

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND



Investigating the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the community of Mnqobokazi, KwaZulu-Natal

By

Simphiwe Lindinkosi Ricardo Gcina Xulu

Student Number: 201404668

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Supervisor: Dr I Moyo

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ORIGINALITY DECLARATION

Full Names and Surname	Simphiwe Lindinkosi Ricardo Gcina Xulu
Student Number	201404668
Title of dissertation/thesis	Investigating the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the community of Mngqobokazi, KwaZulu-Natal

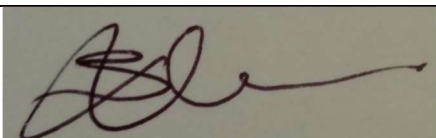
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DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my late mother Mrs. Bazibile Nhlanhla Xulu for her valued contribution towards raising me to be the person I am today. I will forever be appreciative of her love and support throughout my life. May her soul rest in eternal peace.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBC – Community-Based Conservation

CBNRM – Community Based Natural Resources Management

IK – Indigenous Knowledge

IKS – Indigenous Knowledge Systems

IUCN – International Union for the Conservation of Nature

MPA – Maputaland-Pondoland Albany hotspot

MQCT – Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust

PAs – Protected Areas

PPGR – Phinda Private Game Reserve

SLF – Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WCED – World Commission on Environment and Development

ABSTRACT

South Africa has witnessed an increase in the development of policies and investments into the conservation of natural resources as well as improving the livelihoods of people, particularly in the rural areas adjacent to Protected Areas. However, the history of unequal and discriminatory land ownership in the country and the establishment of Protected Areas has been one of the main challenges. Most of the Protected Areas were established on land that was forcefully taken away from black communities during the colonial and apartheid era. The dependence of rural communities on natural resources such as land makes it even hard to manage Protected Areas. Against this backdrop, this study investigates the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi. A mixed method approach was deployed to collect and analyse data from the respondents in the study. Findings suggest that, although there are some positive impacts, Phinda Private Game Reserve has, in the main negatively affected the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi. The results also show that there is a general lack of flow of information amongst the stakeholders, which puts the community in disadvantage and favours the elite. Based on this, it is recommended that there must be improvements made to the involvement of the community in decision-making, benefits sharing and the flow of information to the community.

Key words: Rural Community, Community-Based Conservation, Protected Areas, Natural Resources, Rural Livelihoods.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

Chapter one introduces the whole study. It does so by giving a brief background to the study, discussing the problem statement, aims and objectives as well as outlining the structure of the whole thesis.

1.2. Background to the study

After 24 years of democracy, there has been an increase in the development of policies and investment of money into sustainable rural development, poverty alleviation and the protection of natural resources in South Africa (Olivier et al., 2010). Given the high levels of poverty and low socio-economic development within rural communities, the South African government has implemented policies to support small-scale sectors, however, these endeavours have not been successful (Freguin-Gresh et al., 2012). Rural communities depend mostly on natural resources such as arable land for agriculture, aquatic systems for aquaculture and many other resources for their livelihoods (Perret et al., 2005). Some of these natural resources are located in Protected Areas.

The formation of Protected Areas (PAs) globally has resulted in many indigenous communities losing their lands (Kepe et al., 2005). In the case of South Africa, the democratic government in 1994 instituted a land reform programme so as to correct this injustice in terms of redressing the land ownership imbalances caused by the apartheid laws (Kirsten et al., 2016). In pursuit of reconciling conservation and the peoples' right to resources, the South African government embarked on this policy driven programme (land reform). Instead, this has led to more conflicts between the land reform sector and conservation bodies (Kepe et al., 2005). As Ramutsindela (2003), argues, reconciling human needs and conservation programmes has been the biggest challenge for conservation policies. Kepe et al. (2005) states that although many countries have gone through the process of land reform, there is no clear formula for success and each case differs from the other mostly because of socio-economic (as other economies are still mostly dependent on natural resources) and political dynamics.

The South African land reform programme is made up of three main pillars which are: land restitution, land tenure and land redistribution. These three pillars are provided for in

Section 25 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The South African constitution obligates the state to improve tenure security for those whose tenure is insecure, promote equal access to land resources for all citizens and provide for the restitution of land that was dispossessed through apartheid laws (Hull and Whittal, 2018). Land restitution in South Africa, according to Dikgang and Muchapondwa (2016), attempts to restore land rights lost after the Natives Land Act of 1913. This act made way for racial segregation and inflicted land ownership limitations for the black South Africans (Kloppers and Pienaar, 2014). The apartheid policies contributed to the current socio-economic challenges faced by the country right now (Arko-Achemfuor, 2016).

The most common approach to deal with land claims within protected areas in South Africa has been co-management. This is usually defined as the participatory and collaborative management of natural resources entailing involvement of the community and other stakeholders in decision making (Kepe, 2008). However, challenges such as ensuring the integrity of human land rights and conservation principles have come into play (Kepe, 2008). Many scholars argue that despite co-management agreements being celebrated by land claimants, the wording of the agreement documents create confusion in terms of land tenure and that it gives the state agencies and conservation bodies authority over local people (Kepe, 2008). According to Kepe et al. (2005), there are three issues around these agreements. Firstly, despite land title being in the hands of the claimants, control and management remains with Parks. Secondly, only a few individuals in the community are permanently employed in conservation activities, leaving other community members discontent. Thirdly, legal titles given to communities are too weak such that communities cannot sell or use the land for anything else but for conservation.

In this regard, the conservation of natural resources to develop rural areas has come to the fore. This is based on the notion that Protected Areas (PAs) have been reported as having negative impacts on local people, contributing to an ongoing argument regarding the compatibility of environmental and socio-economic development goals (Oldekop et al., 2016). For instance, Berkes and Turner (2006), argue that questions arise whether the Community Based Conservation systems can be considered to represent conservation and if the customary users can be entrusted with the management of

resources. According to Oldekop et al. (2016), explaining the negative and positive impacts of PAs and conservation outcomes is vital in developing more effective and socially just conservation strategies.

With this in mind, this study assesses the impacts of Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR) on rural livelihoods of Mngobokazi community. This is based on the fact that, Ndebeni area was restored to its ancestral owners, the Mngobokazi community as part of the land restitution deal which saw 1140 hectares of land being given back (Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust, 2011). According to Muzirambi (2017), part of the Phinda Private Game Reserve belongs to the local communities and 9500 ha of land that was dispossessed during apartheid was returned to the Makhasa and Mngobokazi communities as rightful owners on the 11th of August 2007. The Mngobokazi community agreed to place this area under Phinda Private Game Reserve for conservation purposes. This led to the establishment of Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust (MQCT), with an aim of benefiting the local community.

1.3. Problem statement

There are many studies that have been done around the topic of nature conservation and rural livelihoods. For instance, Nsukwini, (2014), Nzama (2009), and others have focused on national parks and Protected Areas and their impact on rural livelihoods. However, there are limited studies that have been conducted on private Protected Areas and their impacts on livelihoods. Hence, this study investigates the impact that Phinda Private Game Reserve has on the livelihoods of the Mngobokazi Community, looking at whether the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust has had a developmental impact in terms of enhancing the rural livelihoods of the surrounding community. This is precisely because, Community Based Conservation is based on the notion that the interests of both the local people and conservationists can only be served if conservation and development are simultaneously achieved (Berkes, 2004). As a result, the case of Mngobokazi Community Trust and Phinda Game Reserve deserves examination, because part of the Phinda Private Game Reserve (Ndebeni land) belongs to the community and was restituted to the Mngobokazi Community. The Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust's mandate therefore, is to ensure equal distribution of benefits to the community.

1.4. Aims and Objectives

1.4.1. Aim

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi.

1.4.2. Objectives

To achieve the aim, this study will address the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the rural livelihood base (in terms of dependence on natural resources) of Mngobokazi community.
2. To assess the impact of the conservation of natural resources on rural livelihoods of Mngobokazi community.
3. To evaluate the involvement of the community in the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust and conservation practices within Phinda Private Game Reserve.
4. To explore the community perception of benefits and challenges endured because of Community Based Conservation and Phinda Private Game Reserve

1.5. Significance of the study

The research is expected to expand the study of Protected Areas in particular, the privately-owned protected areas and the impacts they have on rural communities. This will add new information on environmental conservation, livelihoods and rural development in South Africa and the African continent. This study will also contribute to the understanding of privately-owned protected areas and their impacts on the livelihoods of rural communities and the relationships that exist between rural communities and the managers of these privately-owned protected areas.

1.6. Spatial delimitation

Mngobokazi area is under The Big Five local municipality, Ward 1 (Kwazulu-Natal), South Africa. It is located 27° 29' 28" South and 32° 22' 30" East. The area is within the Isimangaliso Wetland Park (Big 5 Hlabisa Municipality IDP, 2017-18).

1.7 Outline of the study

This study is composed of six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study, paying attention to the statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the study, delimitation of the study area and the outline of the research. Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical and conceptual Frameworks, and chapter 3 is composed of the literature review. In chapter 4 the methodology which underpins this study is explained and chapter 5 analyses the data in light of the objectives and research questions of this research. Chapter 6 provides an overall conclusion of the study, assessing whether or not the objectives of the study have been achieved.

1.8 Conclusion

Chapter 1 has provided an overview of the study. A brief background to the study is laid down in this chapter. The problem statement, aim and objectives, significance and special delimitation of the study were discussed, providing a foundation for the entire study.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

In the first chapter, an outline of the research project, objectives, theoretical framework and delimitation of the study were discussed. To achieve key objectives of the study, two theories serve as bases for analysis and to guide the study. In this chapter, the concepts of Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF), and its principles are explored in detail and in relation to the study. Political Ecology Principles are also explored in support of the SLF to better understand the impacts of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngqobokazi.

2.2. Concepts

2.2.1. Rural livelihoods

In the developing world, rural households are mostly dependent on natural resources for food, fodder, timber, medicinal and other products (Angelsen et al., 2014). Nguyen et al. (2015) defines a livelihood as the capabilities, assets, and activities of a means of living. However, many authors defined livelihoods as means through which people make a living (Rakodi, 2014, Ward, 2012). Environmental resources are key in the provision of life supporting services to rural communities in developing countries (Nguyen et al., 2015).

2.2.2. Community Based Conservation

Although the past few decades have seen a drastic increase in the area covered by protected areas, however, there has been a decrease in biodiversity and an increase in the human-wildlife conflicts despite the conservation gains (Western et al., 2015). Following a decade of governments' ineffective natural resources management, scholars and policy makers were forced to reconsider the role of the community in the conservation and use of resources (Cocks et al., 2001). According to Mosimane and Silva (2015), local communities cooperate better if there are incentives involved. Community Based Conservation (CBC), aimed at protecting natural fauna and flora whilst promoting local development, was introduced by multilateral, regional, and local authorities (Calfucura, 2018). According to Ward et al. (2018), there is no universally approved definition of CBC, rather, it is often used in reference to shared authority and decision making between stakeholders such as traditional communities and government. However, CBC design

and implementation often overlooks the asymmetries of power within communities and at individual level, resulting in the unequal access to the design, decision making and outcomes of this activity (Calfucura, 2018).

2.2.3 Protected Areas

The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) defines a protected area as a geographically defined space which is controlled or designated and managed to achieve particular conservation objectives (Jonas et al., 2014). On the other hand, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) defines a protected area as a clearly demarcated geographical area that is used to attain long-term conservation of ecosystems services, cultural values and natural resources managed through legal or other operational means (Deguignet et al., 2014). The term “protected area” according to (Dudley, 2008) is in short, a sometimes perplexing array of land and water designations with some of the best known including national parks, nature reserves, wilderness areas, wildlife management areas and landscape protected areas. From these definitions, conclusions may be drawn that protected areas are special geographical areas devoted to the protection of the environment. For the purpose of this study, protected areas refer to the Phinda Private Game Reserve and is expected to follow standards set in the definitions provided.

2.3 Theoretical framework

2.3.1 Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is a form of livelihoods analysis used by numerous researchers and organizations for analyzing causes of poverty, people’s access to resources and their diverse livelihood activities (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002). Understanding rural livelihood strategies and environmental resource dependence can help reduce and prevent environmental resources degradation induced stress on livelihoods (Nguyen et al., 2015). Sustainable Livelihood is a core thinking that is accepted by almost all those who use it and it is a necessity in understanding and acting upon the assets limitations of the poor (Levine, 2014). Capabilities, equity and sustainability are the three most crucial concepts when talking about sustainable

livelihoods (Chambers and Conway, 1992, Kayamba-Phiri, 2018). Although the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is centered on people, especially the poor, it is often criticized for not mentioning who the poor are (Kayamba-Phiri, 2018). Failure to address issues such as gender exclusion, violence and conflicts and placing more emphasis on material assets are considered as some of the limitations of SLF (Levine, 2014).

In 1987, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) defined sustainable livelihood as:

Livelihood is defined as adequate stock and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs. Security refers to secure ownership of or access to, resources and income-earning activities, including reserve and assets to offset risk, ease shocks and meet contingencies. Sustainable refers to the maintenance of resources productivity on a long-term basis. A household may be enabled to gain sustainable livelihood security in many ways – through ownership of land, livestock or trees, rights to grazing, fishing, hunting or gathering, through stable employment with adequate remuneration, or through varied repertoires of activities.

From this definition, Chambers and Conway (1992) proposed a modified version of the definition of sustainable livelihoods (Krantz, 2001) to the following:

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term.

According to Scoones (1998), the definition can be broken down to show different components with five key elements, which are, creation of working days, poverty reduction, well-being and capabilities, livelihoods adaptation, vulnerability and resilience and natural resources base sustainability. The third, fourth and fifth elements can assist in achieving objective 1, which is to analyze the rural livelihood base of Mngobokazi. The second key element will assist in attaining the 2nd objective, which is to analyze the impact of the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust on rural livelihoods of Mngobokazi community. In simple terms, sustainable livelihood is a state in which a livelihood can

adapt and recover from shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and provide opportunities for future generations.

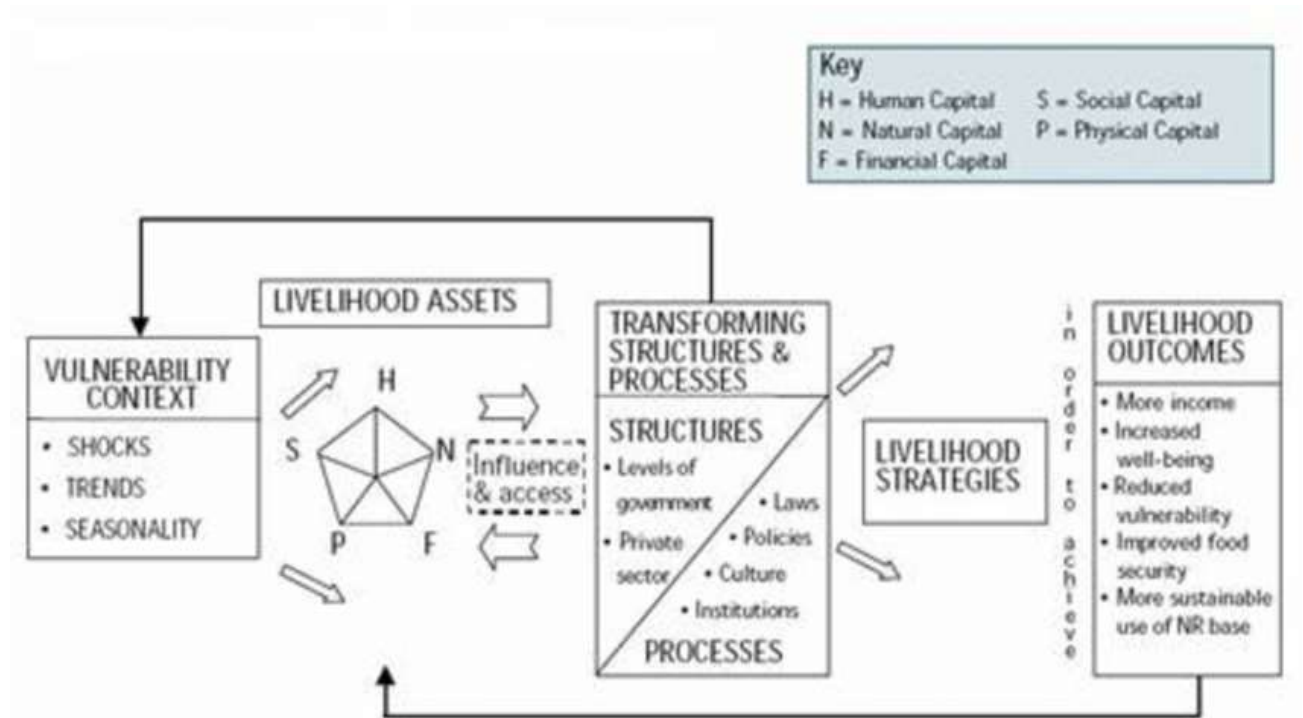


Figure 1.1: The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Vulnerability is distinguished as well-being insecurity for individual, household and communities when facing changes in their external environment (Serrat, 2017). The vulnerability concept may be defined as a great amount of exposure to shocks, risks and stress and being prone to livelihood insecurity (Allison and Ellis, 2001). Vulnerability has dual facets, the external dangers to livelihoods as a result of shocks and the internal coping ability dependent on the assets (Allison and Ellis, 2001, Serrat, 2017). Studying shocks, trends and exogenous variable, that can disrupt access to capital or interrupt continuation of services that are used in livelihoods opportunities creation is essential in analyzing the livelihoods vulnerability (Saxena et al., 2016). The SLF can assist in the assessment of the livelihood vulnerability of the Mngobokazi people. The shocks in this case would be conflicts within the community and between the community and the authorities of Phinda Private Game Reserve and local authorities.

Assets interact with institutions, policies, and processes to nature the selection of livelihood strategies, in turn, influencing the livelihood outcomes, of which are usually the impact of our interest (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002). Livelihoods assets may be divided into five; capital, human, natural, social, physical, and financial capital. Human capital is usually viewed as the available workforce and is crucial for the attainment of positive livelihood outcomes and essential for making use of other types of capital (Reid and Vogel, 2006). Natural capital on the other hand, are natural resources stocks, (land, forests, water, erosion protection and biodiversity) useful for livelihoods and are closely related to the ecological scope of vulnerability (Reid and Vogel, 2006). Natural processes that destroy natural capital are mostly detrimental shocks occurring to the natural capital (Reid and Vogel, 2006).

Social capital can be seen as the social resources upon which people draw on in order to make a living including: connections and networks, membership to formal groups and the affiliations of trust and exchange(Reid and Vogel, 2006). Social capital can also include the amount of time spent by a household in the community and the level of participation in community activities (Zenteno et al., 2013). Physical capital is made up of the basic infrastructure and producer goods (including; tools and equipment that are crucial for more productive functioning) needed to support livelihoods (Reid and Vogel, 2006). The financial capital is seen as flows of cash and stock and is the one that is utilized by people to sustain or improve their livelihoods (Reid and Vogel, 2006). Although most of the SLF versions are restricted to only five types of capital, there are some that include political capital as the sixth type, which comprises of, for example, citizenship, membership in political parties, and enfranchisement, all of which can be key in obtaining or operationalizing rights over other assets (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002).

The transformational structures and procedures, as seen in Figure 1, talks to the ranks of governance, the private sector role, the policies, laws, culture and institutions in the community (Kayamba-Phiri, 2018). Transforming structures and processes influences how people use their assets in pursuing their different livelihood strategies (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002). As stated by (Clay, 2016), conservation of the natural environment is gradually run in collaboration with private, state, and civil society actors. Nevertheless,

little is understood empirically of the functioning of such collectives and their livelihood and governance outcomes. With this in mind, the transforming structures and procedures is analyzed in terms of their service to the local communities, and the movement of information and decision making between the local, district and national levels (Kayamba-Phiri, 2018).

2.3.2 Political Ecology

Political ecology delineates the environment as a ground where there is competition amongst various social actors with unequal political power for access to and control of natural resources (Vaccaro et al., 2013). Political ecologists maintain that the protected areas establishment is a practice of enclosure, historically created through removal of ownership and use of biologically diverse areas from local communities, and reassigning ownership to states (Rainer, 2013). This body of work strikes at the core of political ecology methods to understand the relationship between nature and society (Rainer, 2013). The declaration and implementation of conservation policies is a typical example of this race for environmental control (Vaccaro et al., 2013).

In the 1980s, political ecology was initiated as a framework with a purpose of understanding complex relationship between the local people, international political economies, and ecosystems (Quandt, 2016). Basically, political ecology deals with the interaction between humanity and the environment. A study by Walker (2005), shows that political ecology rests on the logical and unpredictable associations of nature and society. However, Walker shows that more often than not, political ecologists use the term political ecology as 'simply a stage or arena in which struggles over resource access and control take place'. Underlying political ecology is the assumption that politics and the environment are interrelated and at the heart of political ecology is the notion that prioritizing politics in an attempt to uncover the human-environment relations may be linked to environmental degradation (Quandt, 2016).

According to Quandt (2016), political ecology draws from a range of schools of thought and theories to uncover complex environmental-social outcomes. Now according to (Quandt), five dominant groups of political ecology narratives have been established: 'degradation and marginalization, conservation and control, environmental conflict and

exclusion, environmental subjects and identity, and political objects and actors'. These groups are vital in this study since they can be used as lenses to look at the relationships that exist between the Mngobokazi people and the authorities, allowing for the clear understanding of the perceptions of the local community towards conservation.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter has shown the significance of combining political ecology and sustainable livelihood framework and how this can be a very powerful and good theoretical framework. SLF as shown above is a tool used to analyze roots of poverty, their diverse livelihood activities and people's access to resources. This will give the reader a better insight into the issues around the Mngobokazi community and the elite actors within the surroundings. PE deals with human-environment relations and how powerful actors tend to overpower weaker actors. Basically, in the context of CBC this means that local communities are always at the receiving end or tend to be overcome by powerful actors such as protected area managers and powerful conservation NGOs who, at times tend to collaborate with the elites to capture benefits on behalf of local communities.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, there was an in-depth discussion of the conceptual and theoretical frameworks which guide this study. This chapter reviews recent literature on Protected Areas (PAs), Community-Based Conservation and rural livelihoods. To lay the foundation for such a discussion, the chapter starts with an analysis of how the land issue has affected conservation practices in South Africa, and the conflicts that arises as a result of the land reform policies implemented by the democratic government. In this way, there is more focus on the key arguments regarding environmental issues, environmental policies, rural communities, their livelihoods and their involvement in conservation.

3.2. Context: Land reform, environmental conservation and socio-economic development

There is no environmental policy examination that can be properly done without understanding of the laws and forces behind the natural world (Smith, 2015). Biodiversity conservation is a significant area of environmental policy, and is gradually being recognized as associated with the socioeconomic well-being of local communities (Riehl et al., 2015). Strong debates arise around the social impact of conservation programmes on communities, raising an extensive range of thoughts about whether or not conservation and social development can be attained concurrently (Riehl et al., 2015) and all this has a bearing on issues of land and land reform. Land reform in South Africa is aimed at redressing the injustices of the past apartheid laws on land ownership (Kirsten et al., 2016). The South African government showed commitment to eradicate the past injustices through the initiation of the land reform programme with strong constitutional backing (Kloppers and Pienaar, 2014).

Land reform in South Africa is guided by three main pillars, which are, land restitution, land redistribution and land tenure reform (Kirsten et al., 2016, Kloppers and Pienaar, 2014, Ndhlovu, 2019). Land restitution provides for equitable redress to the victims of the Natives Land Act of 1913 (Act No 27 of 1913) and it seeks to resolve land restitution through compensation of claimants or by granting land rights to the rightful owners (Ndhlovu, 2019). This basically means that claimants can either get their land back

through the “willing buyer, willing seller” approach or be compensated at a below market price settlement (Ndhlovu, 2019). This is because the South African government has faced challenges with funding land restitution and this has led to underfunding land restitution cases (Atuahene, 2011). Also important to note with land restitution according to Atuahene (2011), is inexperience, inefficiency and ineffective policies by the parties responsible for the programme. Land redistribution focusses on enabling unbiased access to land, subsequently putting a relief in congestion over communal lands, but most importantly to diversify farmland ownership structures (Kirsten et al., 2016). The land tenure reform on the other hand aims to strengthen the tenure security for citizens whose tenure is insecure because of the apartheid system (Hull and Whittal, 2018).

Given the nature of the land reform case between Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR) and the surrounding communities, including Mngobokazi, this section will therefore put emphasis on the land restitution. It is important to note, as discussed in chapter one that 1140 hectares of land was restituted to the Mngobokazi and a co-management agreement saw this land being leased to the Phinda Private Game Reserve for conservation purposes. Arguments for and against land reform revolves around agricultural productivity and use; equality and justice issues; and on the ecological and environmental costs of alternate land use (Adger, 2019). Considering the fact that many biodiversity conservation areas in South Africa were established on lands that were forcefully taken away from black people, it comes as no surprise that the country struggles with mitigating conflicts between conservation and local people (Kepe, 2018). Although conservation organizations make a strong and valid argument that natural resources need protection, this often comes at the expense of the rural poor, who have to sacrifice their livelihoods, while mostly the global wealthy community benefits (Mollett and Kepe, 2018). When talking about the land, one should reflect on the words of the former president of the Republic of South Africa, President Thabo Mbeki:

“I am an African. I owe my being to the hills and the valleys, the mountains and the glades, the rivers, the deserts, the trees, the flowers, the seas and the ever-changing seasons that define the face of our native land”(Mbeki, 2005).

These words would have more meaning to someone who has a sense of belonging, most importantly one who has a place to call home, the land. However, this has been and remains to be untrue for most of the rural poor South African citizens since 1913. Having passed legislations, one of which was land restitution, many protected areas were under land claims, which put South African government in an awkward position, to either take the side of the conservation bodies or to protect the interests of the land claimant, which led to the establishment of the policy forbidding the land use change in protected areas (Kepe, 2018). Musavengane et al. (2019), states that co-management in South Africa, which allows for management partnership between the community and more experienced conservation organizations, became prominent due to the land reform. This, came with high expectations in the provision of equal opportunities and access to resource use, which subsequently led to conflicts over resources access and control (Adger, 2019). Most of the communities were not happy with the way things were done. For instance, the fact that not all community members were involved in the co-management agreements, resulted in them losing trust in the traditional leaders because of corruption. Also, the flow of information was not satisfactory, therefore, conflicts arose and communities started taking down fences and being uncontrollable (Musavengane et al., 2019). The most important issue to highlight in this section is that, the case of Mngqobokazi is under land restitution. This means that the land belongs to the Mngqobokazi Community, but Phinda Private Game Reserve and the community agreed to a lease deal. Therefore, the impact of the relationship and interaction between the Mngqobokazi Community and Phinda Private Game Reserve on livelihoods of the former is the subject of this study.

3.3. Community-Based Conservation

The large-scale and density of modern environmental problems are the main reason for serious challenges to biodiversity conservation faced in recent years (McKinley et al., 2017). For instance, recent increases in the scale of human activities as a result of exponential growth in population poses a threat to the earth's life-support systems, as a result, protected areas are expected to serve both biodiversity protection and provide ecosystem goals (Xu et al., 2017). One of the key problems in biodiversity conservation in recent years has been biodiversity loss, attributed to enduring poverty in neighbouring

communities, non-involvement in management and decision making, and access to benefits by these communities (Lubilo, 2018).

According to Stone and Nyaupane (2016), environmental degradation and poverty are inseparable issues of global concern, and the establishment of protected areas in rural areas continues to marginalize the rural communities, leading to extensive lack of support of conservation by the rural communities. However, granting local people the right to resources use and conservation is still seen as an inefficient way for conservation as some scholars view this as not yielding as much success as expected. For instance, Salerno et al. (2016), advocates that transferring rights and control over particular resources to rural communities is gradually considered essential, but such endeavours have borne limited accomplishments and few lessons on how to make such interventions effective in improving livelihoods.

Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) is the management of natural resources by local people and for their benefits as well as for resources health (Fernandez-Gimenez et al., 2015). Community Based Natural Resources Management evolved as an approach to nature conservation that seeks to empower rural communities and to address the challenge of poverty reduction and this paradigm shift views local people as part of the environment and grants them rights to co-manage the resources (Lubilo, 2018). Rural communities in Africa prosper on social capital and possess numerous commonalities which make them share natural and social resources (Musavengane et al., 2019). With this in mind, CBNRM has been adopted as a dominant paradigm for rural development and conservation, under which the well-being of people and the resources are understood as interdependent, and the success of development is dependent of the success of conservation and visa-versa (Fernandez-Gimenez et al., 2015). This notion is also supported by Bennett and Dearden (2014), who state that conservation success depends mostly on the support of the conservation by local people.

Failure of fortress conservation strategies in combination with the belief that sustainable conservation can be achieved through involvement of local communities contributed to the growth of CBNRM (Lubilo, 2018). Fernandez-Gimenez et al. (2015), show that before the implementation of fortress conservation strategies, many common-pool resources

were managed through community-based conservation strategies, and were often successful, if success is measured by long-term persistence of communities and their resources. Crucial features of community based management systems include harvesting quotas, strong leadership, locally enforced protected areas and social cohesion, as well as respect by wildlife managers for local cultural aspects and rules (Campos-Silva et al., 2017). CBNRM addresses centralized resources management issues and may be driven by the values of the society or influenced by conservation science (Roka, 2019). For CBNRM to be effective, rural people need to buy into the programme and fully support and participate, thus, leading to the development of social capital (Musavengane and Simatele, 2016). Collaborative management (Co-management) is when a certain group of people share the natural resources management responsibilities, with a goal of conservation and community development (Musavengane and Simatele, 2016).

Rural communities' participation in co-management of communal natural resources is seen as a necessity in many regions globally, including Sub-Saharan Africa (Musavengane et al., 2019). Previous victories, and potentials, self-interests and knowledge of groups of users and communities are characteristics of local peoples' institutional arrangements and are very crucial for common resources effective management (Mogende and Kolawole, 2016). As presented in chapter one, the Mngqobokazi community entered into a co-management agreement with the Phinda Private Game Reserve. Therefore, these arguments presented serve as a foundation in understanding impacts of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the Livelihoods of the Mngqobokazi Community.

3.4. Overview of Community-Based Conservation: Global, Africa and South Africa

The 1970s to 1980 saw a drastic increase in biodiversity loss awareness amongst policy makers globally, which led to over 300 agreements being signed at Stockholm (Schroeder and Pisupati, 2010). Langton et al. (2014), argue that in recent years, a number of global organizations such as the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the World Bank, have increasingly linked global sustainability to a greater awareness of Indigenous Knowledge (IK). The rights and interests of indigenous peoples and local

communities over the resources they manage are to some extent recognized by these international frameworks (Langton et al., 2014).

Globally, governments have committed to conserving more than 17% of terrestrial and above 10% of the marine environments, with some countries committing to conserving 3-50% of their land area (Butchart et al., 2015, Di Minin and Toivonen, 2015). Di Minin and Toivonen (2015), state that, PAs are crucial in the conservation of biodiversity, however, mitigating negative impacts requires sound and effective PA management, which requires financial resources to provide incentives especially for developing countries and necessary skills for PA management.

In many developing countries, protected areas management has been based on conservationist approach, characterized by fencing off, thus, excluding traditional local resources users (Nakakaawa et al., 2015). For instance, Fordred and Mearns (2018) stated that during the late 1800s and early 1900s, many lives in southern Africa were severely impacted by the colonial regimes, through displacement, and/ or restriction of access to use the natural resources, thus affecting the way they viewed conservation.

In Zimbabwe, a CBNRM programme, better known as the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), was established and became a success story over the years, which lead to establishment of similar programmes in countries like Namibia and Tanzania (Dube, 2019). The Zimbabwean CAMPFIRE project is one CBNRM project that pioneered the proliferation of CBNRM in the region (Lubilo, 2018). Findings from previous studies suggest that the CBNRM programme in Namibia, comprising of the establishment of communal conservancies in rural communities has been successful on both ecological and economic fronts (Riehl et al., 2015). In Namibia, legal and policy measures were put in place, devolving the user rights over wildlife to local landholders, enabling communities to conserve and use natural resources whilst keeping 100% of the revenue, hence, a significant wildlife population recovered and community benefits were seen (Dube, 2019). On the other hand, Tanzania also adopted a similar programme, the difference being that 5-year operator leases were put in place, allowing revenues from trophy hunting to accumulate to hunting operators and central government,

largely bypassing the communities and landholders who live with and bear costs from wildlife, thus resulting in less positive results (Dube, 2019).

In South Africa, communities, particularly around PAs have suffered dispossession of their land by the colonial government, resulting in restricted access to natural resources due to the protectionist and exclusivist modes of conservation which in turn, affected conservation practices (Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018). As a result, planning that incorporate local communities in South Africa today, has more significance than in previous years because of the historical apartheid legacy, which marginalized and deprived the majority of the population of numerous opportunities (Muzirambi, 2017). The 19th and 20th century saw a growth in legislation aimed at wildlife and environmental conservation (Nxumalo, 2010). Even though South Africa is recognized very well for conservation of biodiversity, research shows that historically disadvantaged communities adjacent to PAs remain impoverished and have restricted access to benefits and resources (Nsukwini and Bob, 2016). According to (Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018), key issues raised by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in the IUCN were unequal benefits sharing, lack of significant community participation and self-representation in PA management, costs, and poor authority at local levels. Having a background of Community-Based Conservation (CBC) globally and in Africa, especially Southern African lays a foundation for understanding the perceptions of the local community of Mngqobokazi about Phinda Private Game Reserve and the agreement between the two parties. This background assists in addressing the fourth objective of this research.

3.5. People and environmental conservation

The primary aim of policymakers for establishing PAs is to conserve the ecological benefits provided by natural ecosystems, with the hope that this objective can be attained with no major expenses on local communities (Miranda et al., 2016) Diverse models of PAs exist, with clear roles and relations between the organizations and stakeholders who partake in their designation and control, and how biodiversity conservation strategies are adapted to local social and ecological contexts (Mathevet et al., 2016). However, the direction and magnitude of protected areas' effects on both local communities and the

environment are uncertain. PAs could inflict economic costs on local communities through restricting their access to natural resources, nevertheless, they could also offer economic remunerations through stimulating tourism, inviting infrastructure investments, and warranting continuous provision of valuable ecosystem services (Miranda et al., 2016). Muzirambi and Mearns (2018) state that many PAs fail to provide tangible benefits that would have a significant contribution to the well-being of rural communities. While some communities may recognize and appreciate the benefits of conservation, others still suffer the costs incurred from PAs over time (Muzirambi, 2017). The downside here is that, should the management of a PAs fail to appeal as legitimate, communities may perceive it as a deprivation of local rights (Mathevet et al., 2016).

Conservationists approaches have been found to inflict costs and reduce benefits for local people, resulting in conflicts between the local communities and conservation managers (Nakakaawa et al., 2015). Living next to protected areas comes with many challenges for the communities, in the form of loss of livestock, crops and land (Fordred and Mearns, 2018); labour costs in the form of livestock and loss of previously accessible benefits such as land (Nakakaawa et al., 2015). Such factors further contribute to negative attitudes from communities towards PAs and conservation (Fordred and Mearns, 2018).

Since acting on nature impacts humans and their activities, and acting on human activities impacts nature, a socio-ecological approach is necessary (Mathevet et al., 2016). New methods have since evolved to reduce conflicts and costs imposed on local communities (Nakakaawa et al., 2015) and thus, mitigate the growing negative perceptions towards conservation, with the aim of including local communities in decision-making and benefits sharing (Fordred and Mearns, 2018). Developing countries have shifted their focus to community-based conservation strategies which seek to involve communities in PAs management as well as compensating them on their losses and restricted access (Nakakaawa et al., 2015).

Nakakaawa et al. (2015) show that empirical evidence on the extent of CBC initiatives being able to achieve their intended environmental and livelihood goods reveals mixed results. It is imperative to note that even though some communities are affected negatively by conservation, not all community members are, thus, some perceive and

have positive attitudes towards wildlife and PAs management (Fordred and Mearns, 2018). Stakeholders, especially rural communities, expect to benefit from PAs through job opportunities, provision of new ways of generating income, skills development and educational benefits for underprivileged youth (Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018). Community-based conservation in some cases has been perceived as the one cause of conflicts (Nakakaawa et al., 2015). These conflicts arise when the interests of local people are ignored and they are excluded from management, planning and decision-making processes (Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018).

Protected areas without the support of local people are less successful, therefore, the inclusion of communities in decision-making and management methods is important (Fordred and Mearns, 2018). Muzirambi and Mearns (2018), pointed out that excluding local communities in planning, decision-making and management processes and ignoring their interests is one of the key causes of conflicts and mistrust that leads to divisions amongst stakeholders. To counter these negative perceptions, project design and capacity building in local communities, properties of local communities such as well functioning tenure regimes and supportive local cultural beliefs and institutions must be established (Nakakaawa et al., 2015). Other possible solutions to improve relationships between communities and wildlife management exist in the form of education and innovative thinking (Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018). Having said that, this can help in terms of trying to understand the roles and relationships that exist between different stakeholders involved with the Phinda Private Game Reserve. This is crucial in trying to comprehend the effects of PPGR on Livelihoods of the Mngobokazi Community. Interaction between the local people conservation lays a foundation for engaging with the second objective of the study, which is to assess the impact of the Phinda Private Game Reserve on rural livelihoods of Mngobokazi community

3.6. Community participation in Community-Based Conservation

Human welfare and conservation is no longer a foreign phenomenon in literature, yet conflicts and challenges remain unsolved (Noe and Kangalawe, 2015). According to Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017), the community participatory process and heritage tourism development is seen as an essential component of conservation, as it creates positive

contributions towards local people's quality of life through enhancing their sense of belonging, thus improving appreciation of the local area. Lack of involvement of local communities has been proven to accelerate ecosystem destruction (Wambugu et al., 2018). However, CBC programmes can fail regardless of the successful communities' participation (Noe and Kangalawe, 2015). Mosimane and Silva (2015), state that incentives are also an important factor in ensuring conservation success because local people are most likely to buy into something that benefits them. de Araujo Lima Constantino et al. (2012) argue that empowerment is not guaranteed by local participation alone since it also depends on the strategies used and the local context in which it is implemented. Other scholars such as (Bixler et al., 2015, Noe and Kangalawe, 2015) support this notion and categorize the studies of impacts of involvement on development outcomes into two, i.e., first, those that focus on variation in context setting and environment and second, those that explore the nature of participation. In this study, focus is put on the nature of participation of the local community of Mngqobokazi. This focus is driven by the third objective which seeks to evaluate the involvement of the community in the Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust and conservation practices within Phinda Private Game Reserve.

Literature suggests that there are three major forms of participation (Mosimane and Silva, 2015, Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). The first one being coercive participation, which is the lowest form of participation, where communities lack the power of self-determination over their degree of participation (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Their roles are defined to them by authorities, have negligible involvement and their participation is limited to being informed by authorities about how certain decisions affect them (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). The second one is the induced participation, this is a mid-level form of participation, it allows local people to voice out their views in the management and development, however, authorities have the power to either consider them or not (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). And finally, the spontaneous participation, which is the highest form of participation where local people are granted the rights to decide and control the development process, usually beginning at the early planning stages and guarantees active involvement of all stakeholders throughout the process (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017)

According to Noe and Kangalawe (2015), there are differences in institutional and biophysical settings where participatory processes are used, and in some cases, there is an influence of factors such as pre-existing structures, state control and elite capture. For instance, Mosimane and Silva (2015), suggests that smaller communities have an advantage since it becomes easier to devolve management rights to people nearest to the resource, facilitate accountability, transparency and decision making, while it is a bit difficult for large communities since this restricts the flow of information. The degree of empowerment is also determined by the consideration of all the important stages of participation (ladders of participation), that is; inform, consult, involve, collaborate, establish anatomy, advice and enable (Bixler et al., 2015, Noe and Kangalawe, 2015, Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017).

As evident in many studies, the significance of indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) in rural communities is increasingly being noticed as playing a role in sustainable conservation (Langton et al., 2014), however, that can only work only if communities are involved. There are many different definitions of IKS that exist, however, most of them are similar in the sense that they include that it is knowledge held by ethnic groups (Mhache, 2018). In simple terms, IKS is the knowledge held by local communities outside of the scientific realm (Mhache, 2018). This knowledge held by traditional communities, is generated and accumulated over long periods time as they live within a certain environment (Camacho et al., 2016). Indigenous knowledge is transmitted from generation to generation through stories, art, and customs, and is also intrinsically rooted in indigenous languages from which concepts and means of knowing are conveyed (Alessa et al., 2016)

Humans naturally have a love for nature that has developed over years as they have evolved with and within nature. This goes deeper than just addressing necessities of life to the provision of aesthetic, spiritual, and philosophical pillars for the development and manifestation of human culture (Lopoukhine et al., 2014). Over the years, tribes have evolved Indigenous Knowledge Systems that are useful for the conservation of natural resources (Nimachow et al., 2011). In both developed and developing countries, experts in development appreciate indigenous knowledge, since they find it very valuable in

solving, agricultural, educational, environmental and, health issues (Mandillah and Ekosse, 2018). Indigenous knowledge serves as a basis on which local communities' decision-making on crucial activities such as, education, healthcare, agriculture, environmental management and a lot other activities depend on (Mhache, 2018, Nimachow et al., 2011). In the olden days, traditional people used to protect and promote conservation of natural resources through complex cultural and spiritual belief system which included, myths, norms, totems, taboos and closed seasons to manage, conserve and preserve certain natural resources (Mandillah and Ekosse, 2018).

There is a growing literature that acknowledge the role of indigenous knowledge and practices in conserving biodiversity (Langton et al., 2014). For instance, Asante et al. (2017), showed that forests in Ghana were successfully conserved by indigenous groups through cultural practices. People had a belief that forests were sacred resources that are associated with spiritual realities, and had interconnections with the nature, humans, and the universe (Asante et al., 2017). For instance, the Ashantis considered forests as the house of Gods (ancestors) and therefore were highly esteemed, hence, anthropogenic activities that could affect the value of forests were prohibited (Asante et al., 2017). The Mngqobokazi community has been living within and with the environment before Phinda Private Game Reserve was established, and one might assume that they do have the knowledge they had acquired over time, and that they can have a valuable input in conservation of biodiversity. With that being emphasised, the Mngqobokazi community IKS can be one of the valuable assets that they can bring to the table if they are involved in the conservation programmes of the Phinda Private Game Reserve. Therefore, this assists in addressing the third objective of the study which seeks to find out if the involvement of the community is limited to only consultation or they are involved in decision making, and their IKS is considered in environmental conservation.

3.7. Conclusion

The background of conservation in South Africa was discussed in the chapter, and how the land reform has influenced the shift in paradigm for conservation. This chapter has also discussed recent literature on protected areas, community-based conservation and community participation in conservation management and how the use of IKS could

benefit both conservation and local development. Important issues and/or conflict that arise between communities and protected areas were discussed. The next chapter, will discuss the physical description of the study.

CHAPTER 4: PHYSICAL SETTING OF THE STUDY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the study area. The major focus is on the historical background, reasons for the selection of the study area, location and size, topography, climatic conditions, soils, flora and fauna, as well as land use.

4.2 Historical background of Phinda Private Game Reserve and the Mngobokazi community

The community of Mngobokazi lost their land to white farmers through the Natives Land Act of 1913 (No 27 of 1913) (which became law on 19 June 1913) and was consolidated by subsequent legislation such as the Native (Black) Urban Areas Act (Act No 21 of 1923), Native Trust and Land Act (Act No 18 of 1936), the Group Areas Act (Act 41 of 1950). The legislative measures led to the race-based spatial allocation of land and the associated forced population removals as well as the consolidation of Bantustans in apartheid era South Africa (McCusker et al., 2015). In the case of Mngobokazi, these apartheid policies led to the dispossession of their land and by 1953, the Mngobokazi community was dispersed around KwaZulu-Natal until 1996 when they finally came together to lodge a claim (Vuk'uzenzele, 2019). According to Muzirambi (2017), the idea of Phinda Private Game Reserve was conceived by a property and timeshare developer, Trevor Cappen. While passing through Southern Maputaland from Durban, on his way to a little village called Mbazwana. His idea was to restore Phinda to its original state. At that time, the area where Phinda Private Game Reserve is situated was used for cattle, pineapples and cotton farms and also for hunting (Muzirambi, 2017). Cappen then purchased the adjoining farms that were in the Phinda area and gradually expanded the area until Phinda was born in February 1991 (Muzirambi, 2017).

The name “Phinda” is a Zulu name meaning “the return” and in the context of Phinda Private Game Reserve, it translates to “the return to the wild” (Muzirambi, 2017). The name comes from the fact that the land was previously an overgrazed agricultural land before being purchased and rehabilitated for conservation purposes, and the reintroduction of the large mammalian species that previously inhabited the area (&Beyond, 2016). The region also housed a small area of critically endangered sand

forests and a number of endangered or threatened species (&Beyond, 2016). And now, a few decades later, Phinda Private Game Reserve is known for its abundant wildlife and habitat diversity as well as a variety of safari activities (Muzirambi, 2017).

4.3. Reasons for the selection of the study area

There are several reasons for selecting the study area. The main reason is that Phinda Private Game Reserve was built out of land that previously belonged to the surrounding rural communities, Mngqobokazi being one of them (Muzirambi, 2017, Vuk'uzenzele, 2019). In 1996, the people who were forcefully removed from the area came together and launched a claim, which saw the land being returned to them in 2007 (Vuk'uzenzele, 2019). Upon negotiations, the land was leased back to Phinda Private Game Reserve for 72 year with an upfront payment of 18 million Rands (Muzirambi, 2017). This led to the establishment of Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community trust, with an aim of benefiting the local community through equal benefit sharing.

According to Xigwana (2007), the agreement between the Phinda Private Game reserve and the community of Mngqobokazi included an upfront payment of R9 million to the Mngqobokazi community, leasing the land back to PPGR for a period of time during which the community will be working together with them to gain the necessary skills relating to the business operation, the community will also share in the proceeds from the economic activities which are taking place in the Game Reserve. Other terms of the agreement are that the rights of the claimed land, was transferred to the Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust, on behalf of the claimant community, the land use shall not be changed and should remain a conservation area, the claimants, through the trust, may not sell or otherwise dispose of the claimed Land or a part thereof, to any person or institution, mortgage or encumber the title in any way, without consensus from the state (Xigwana, 2007).

4.4. Location and size

Mngqobokazi is under the uMkhanyakude District Municipality, which is made up of four local municipalities. Mngqobokazi in under the Big Five local municipality, Ward 1 (Giba) Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. It is located at 27° 29' 28" South and 32° 22' 30" East. The area is within the Isimangaliso Wetland Park (Big 5 Hlabisa Municipality IDP, 2017-18). It

is also under the Maputaland-Pondoland Albany hotspot (MPA). Figure 4.1. below is a map showing the location of Mnqobokazi within the uMkhanyakude District municipality.

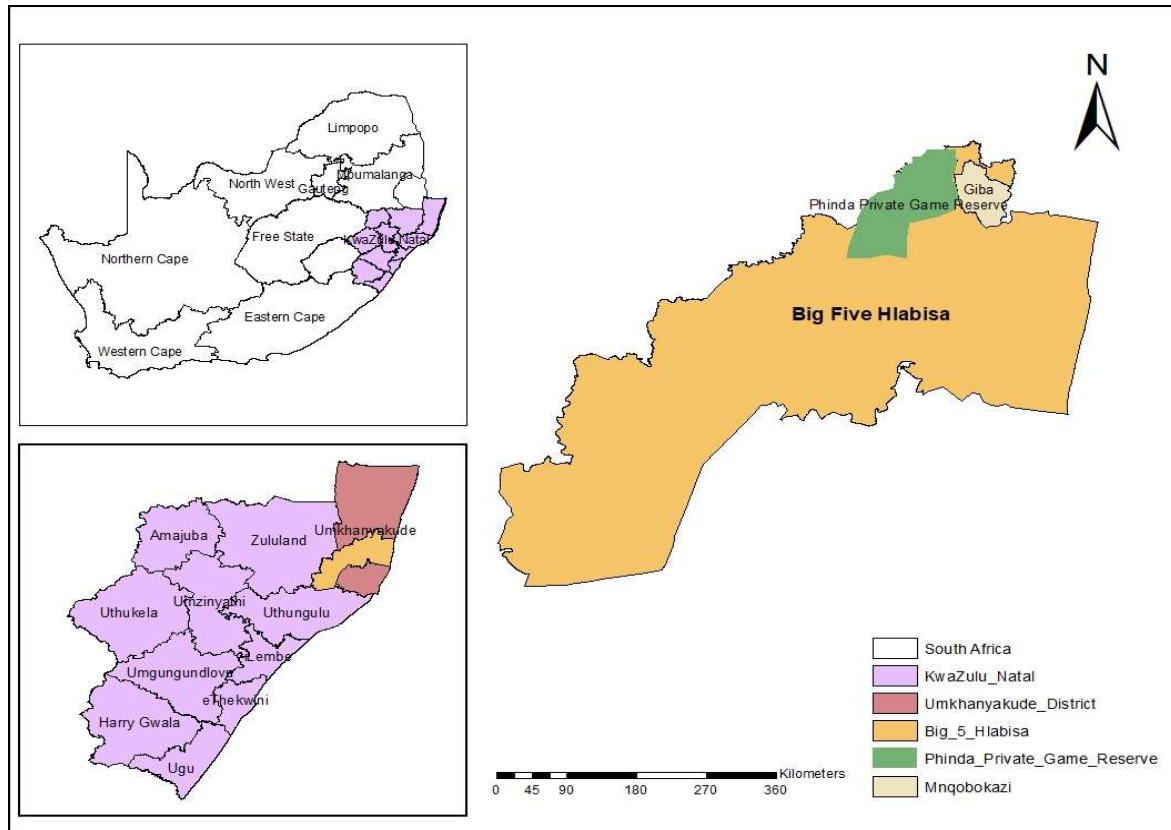


Figure 2: Location of the study area

The MPA is an internationally recognised biodiversity hotspot for high species richness and endemism, with most of them threatened at different levels (Di Minin et al., 2013). Phinda Private Game Reserve falls under the Mun-Ya-Wana Conservancy (Martindale and Naylor, 2018), and is situated between the iSimangaliso Wetland Park and the UMkhuze Game Reserve (Muzirambi, 2017)

4.5. Topography

uMkhanyakude district municipality has areas characterised by slopes exceeding 18°. Most of these potentially unstable slopes are associated with deeply incised valleys of tributary streams in the Lebombo Mountains. The areas are generally inaccessible and impose high cost constraints even to major road developments. However, the land is predominantly level or gently undulating, which is a prime requirement for most aspects

of agricultural productivity. The Phinda Private Game Reserve is located on the pristine coastline in the northern KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa (African Sky, 2019). It boasts of seven diverse habitats within the reserve, mostly known as “seven worlds of wonder” (African Sky, 2019). Phinda has untarnished beaches, marshland, woodland, grassland and forest.

4.6. Climatic conditions

uMkhanyakude has a climate characterised by mild winters and warm to hot summers (The Big 5 False Bay Municipality, 2014). Average summer temperatures range between 29 °C and 32 °C, with the lowest temperatures between 8°C to 23°C experienced between March and July (Muzirambi, 2017, The Big 5 False Bay Municipality, 2014). The mild climatic conditions are as a result of the oceanic climate (Warm Agulhas Current) (The Big 5 False Bay Municipality, 2014). It is located at about 203 m above sea level, with the southern part of the District receiving the highest mean annual rainfall of (> 1000 mm) and the north and the central parts receiving 801 – 1000 mm of rainfall annually (The Big 5 False Bay Municipality, 2014). Tropical cyclones sometimes occur along the coast, usually from January to March, and are usually accompanied by high wind speeds, resulting in irregular episodic largescale floods (Martindale and Naylor, 2018). More than 75% of the annual rainfall occurs between the months of October and March. In contrast, very little rain falls between the months of May and September with July having the lowest average rainfall (Martindale and Naylor, 2018).

4.7. Soils, flora and fauna

Rich wildlife, habitats diversity and a range of safari activities are characteristics of Phinda Private Game reserve (Muzirambi, 2017). Located in the lavish region between the World Heritage Site, iSimangaliso Wetland Park to the east, and Mkuze Game Reserve to the west, 23000ha of prime conservation land within which a handful of lodges are located, showcases Phinda Private Game Reserves’ ground-breaking model of low impact and high yield wildlife tourism (Muzirambi, 2017). Phinda is located on the south-eastern boundary of uMkhuze Game Reserve, it stretches from the Maputaland coastal plains in the west, to the Lebombo Mountains in the east (Siyabona Africa, 2019).

Phinda Private Game Reserve comprises of seven diverse habitats, which includes the rare sand forest, housing significant wildlife richness including, 415 bird species and Africa's Big five (buffalo, elephant, leopard, lion, and rhino) (Muzirambi, 2017). Owing to the region's coastal rainfall pattern, Phinda Game Reserve sits on a luxurious green setting, often called "Seven Worlds of Wonder" and has particular plants species endemic to this region (Muzirambi, 2017). The seven district habitats allow for a much greater variation in species and landscapes (Muzirambi, 2017). On the western part, the reserve is characterised by hills with volcanic rocks projections (Siyabona Africa, 2019). This is a safari park with flora similar to that of its neighbour, uMkhuze Nature reserve, with sandy soils and rocky areas and Lebombo grassland, woodland and forest thicket in most sections (Siyabona Africa, 2019). Stinkwood, brown ironwood and fluted milkwood are the tallest trees in the area, all situated in the deep gorges and valleys. In the eastern sections where richer soils are found, shorter Acacia trees are found (Siyabona Africa, 2019).

4.8. Land use

Most of the land in the district is privately owned or is under traditional authority, this results in loss of biodiversity due to land conversion (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018). The most prominent challenges faced concerning land use is the wide spread of alien species and the unsustainable harvesting of natural resources both in terrestrial and marine environments (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018). Environmental degradation and other adverse environmental impacts may result from inappropriate development, causing major impediments for economic growth and social development (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018). Large areas of land are under communal tenure in the District, with most areas used for agriculture and settlement (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018). The remaining land is under private ownership or under the jurisdiction of the Ingonyama Trust (under the traditional authority) (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018). In 2007, 20% of the total area in the district was in the process of land reform and some of the land had been identified for restitution and redistribution purposes (Umkhanyakude District Municipality, 2018).

4.9. Conclusion

This chapter has provided a description of the study area, in terms of outlining the historical background and reasons for the selection of the study area. In addition, the chapter described the location and size, topography, climatic conditions, soils, flora, fauna and land use of the study area. In the following chapter, the methods used to collect and interpret data are discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

The choice of approach used in research depends on the researcher's philosophical orientation, the knowledge he is looking for and the strategies applied to acquire this knowledge (Maree, 2016). According to Maree (2016), once a researcher has made up his mind about the mode of enquiry, it is imperative that he explains why he has chosen the specific methods to convince the reader of the statistical value of the research. This chapter seeks to explain the methods that were used to sample, gather and to analyse data during the study. The study followed a mixed methods approach, which employs the combination of both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches, using strengths of both approaches (Creswell et al., 2007). This chapter starts off by explaining briefly what mixed methods involves and the type of mixed methods paradigm and its associated steps, which were followed in this study.

5.2. Mixed Methods

The mixed methods approach incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, it resides in the middle (Creswell, 2014). It involves collecting and analysing both types of datasets in one study (Creswell, Hanson et al. 2007). Historically, mixed methods approaches were perceived as valuable since all methods had bias and weaknesses and thus were seen as being able to counter the weaknesses (Cresswell 2014). The choice of methodology used was done based on whether or not qualitative or quantitative approach can best answer the research questions and how best can the two datasets be intertwined (Bryman 2012). There are three paradigms in the mixed methods approach, and these are explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, exploratory sequential mixed methods approach and convergent parallel mixed methods approach.

Explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, according to Maree (2016), is the simplest, with the qualitative data set used to explain the quantitative findings. Exploratory sequential mixed methods approach is used when a topic needs to be explored first using the qualitative methods and then later measured using quantitative methods (Maree, 2016). In convergent parallel mixed methods approach, both qualitative and quantitative

methods are used to develop a complete understanding of the research problem and both data sets are usually collected at the same time (Maree, 2016). In this study, a convergent parallel mixed methods approach was followed to get a better understanding of the research question.

5.3. Research design

The study followed a convergent parallel mixed methods approach, with both data sets collected at the same time, analysed separately, merged and compared. Figure 4.1. below is a diagrammatic representation of the steps taken to conduct the study.

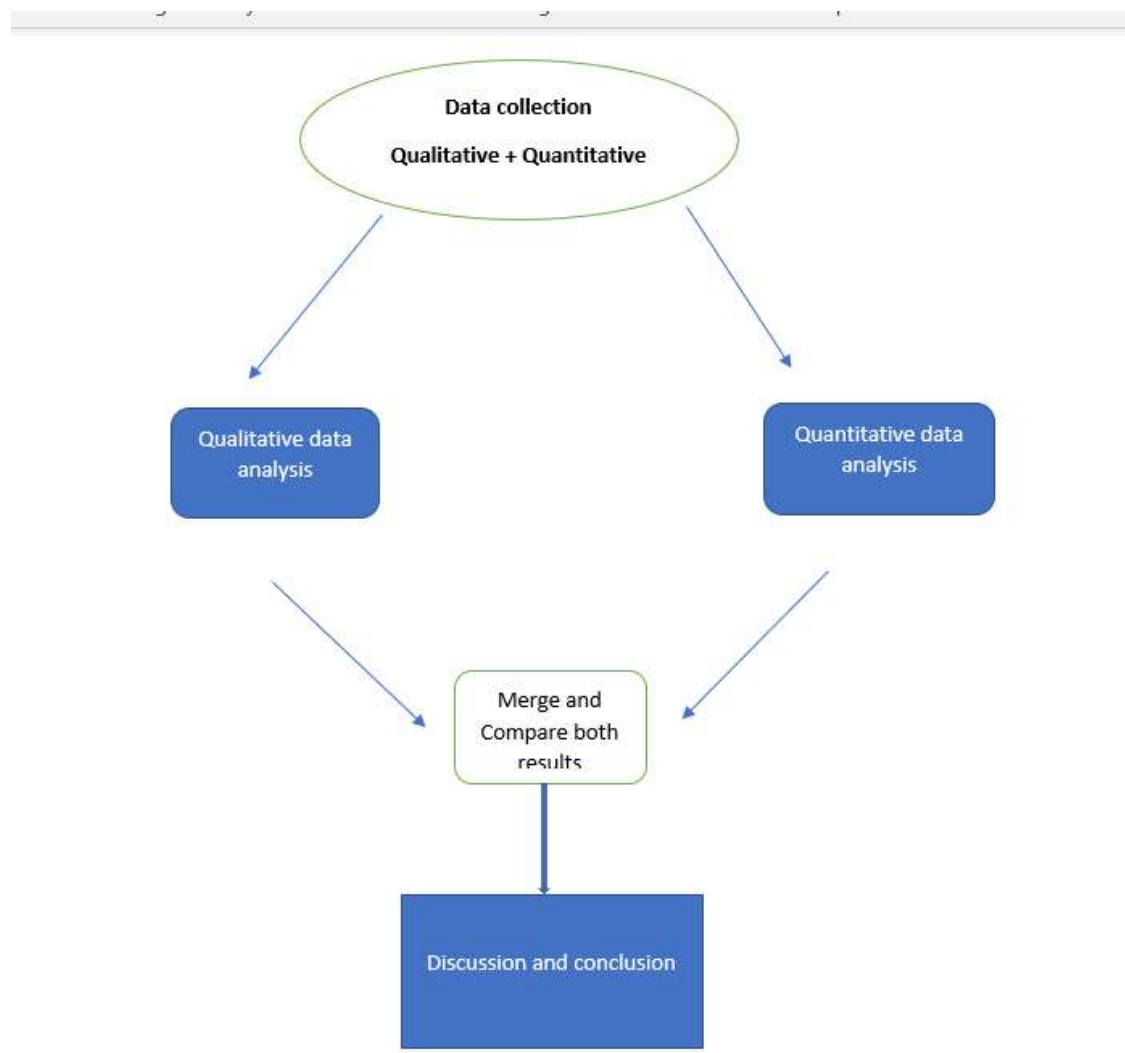


Figure 5.1: The convergent parallel mixed methods research

The following sections explain in detail how the quantitative and qualitative approaches were utilised in this study in line with the convergent mixed methods research paradigm,

5.4. Quantitative approach

The quantitative research can be defined as a systematic and objective process of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a population to generalise findings to the population being studied (Maree, 2016). In quantitative approaches, more emphasis is put on the quantification of collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012). Data is generated and analysed through mathematically based methods and generalised across a group of people (Almalki, 2016). Quantitative research approaches may be associated with experiments, correlation studies and surveys strategies of data collection (Cresswell, 2014, Creswell and Creswell, 2017). It uses closed ended questions with predetermined responses such as those found in questionnaires (Cresswell, 2014). This approach also uses the inferential approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which emphasis is put on theory testing (Bryman, 2012). The following parts further explain the application of the quantitative approach in this study, from sampling to data analysis.

5.4.1. Sample size

The target population for the study was the Mngobokazi community, which consists of 6000 community members with 1055 households. Out of the 6000 community members, only 120 are beneficiaries of the Community Trust. However, the number of households was used as the population size to derive a sample size. Interviewing all community members was not possible because of time constraints, therefore, the researcher applied the Cochran's (1977) sampling formula to derive the sample size. According to Israel (1992), the smaller the size of the population, the smaller the sample size, because a given sample size provides proportionately more information on a small population than on a bigger population, thus, the following formula can be used to arrive at a good sample size:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

Where,

n_0 = Cochran's sample size recommendation number

n = Sample size

N = Population size

Therefore,

$$n = \frac{100.55}{1 + \frac{(100.55 - 1)}{1055}}$$
$$= 92$$

5.4.2. Quantitative Sampling technique and data collection

One adult from each household was interviewed from randomly selected households. The respondents in the study had to be 18 years and above. Face to face surveys were used to ask questions and record answers. This method, according to (Maree, 2016, Welman et al., 2005), has advantages such as the highest response rate, use of long questions, the respondents do not need to be literate, and it is easy to apply.

A survey questionnaire was used as a primary tool for data collection. It was translated to IsiZulu since it is the language that is dominant in the study area. To collect demographic data and the perceptions of the local people about the Mnqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust, closed-ended questions were used. To assess the behaviour of local people towards the Mnqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust, open ended questions were used. The choice to use either open ended or closed ended questions was based on the information required to answer the research questions as per each objective of the study. Although the sample size was calculated to be 92, data was collected from 59 community members because there was no new data that was emerging from the data collection.

5.4.3. Quantitative data analysis

For the quantitative component of the study, a descriptive analysis of the data was done with an aid of Microsoft excel and SPSS. Data was coded using Microsoft excel to numbers. Percentages, frequencies, and measures of central tendency, such as, means; median; as well as, standard deviations were calculated from the data obtained from

questionnaires (closed-ended questions). Inferential statistics was also used to answer objective two of this study. This was done by correlating the responses of participants to the distance from the reserve for those that said the Phinda Private Game Reserve contributes to their livelihood. This helped the researcher to establish whether or not there is a relationship between the distance from the Phinda Private Game Reserve and the benefit distribution. Inferential statistics was also used to assess the fairness in the distribution of the benefits that the Phinda Private Game Reserve provides to the community of Mngqobokazi. For objective three, a proportion test, used to assess whether there is significant difference between segments, which are communities under different headmen (Izinduna), was used to analyse the data across segments or locations to see if Phinda Private Game Reserve favours certain villages over the others.

5.5. Qualitative approach

Qualitative research relies on linguistic rather than numerical data and uses meaning-based forms of data analysis rather than statistical forms of data analysis (Maree 2016). Qualitative approaches put emphasis on enquiring about and understanding a social phenomenon from individuals (Almalki 2016). The qualitative approach to research is used to answer questions such as how people feel about a phenomenon and why. It is also used to find out about attitudes, behaviour, current developments, and effects of events and peoples' needs (Muzirambi 2017). Individual meanings and knowledge from experience is used to make knowledge claims (Creswell and Creswell 2017). It is classically associated with the formulation and testing of theories (Bryman 2012). It uses open ended questions with no predetermined answers (Cresswell 2014). Ethnographies, grounded theory, case studies, phenomenological research and narrative research are some strategies associated with qualitative research approach (Creswell and Creswell 2017). In this study, the researcher employed phenomenological strategies, which, according to Creswell and Creswell (2017), entails studying the true nature of the lived human experiences regarding a phenomenon as defined by the participants.

5.5.1. Sampling and data collection

A smaller sample was used for the qualitative component of the study. According to Cresswell (2014) , this is because this data collection is intended to collect extensive

information from this sample. Therefore, for qualitative component of the study, respondents were purposively sampled. The respondents were selected from the tribal authority and the Phinda Private Game Reserve. Five respondents (as explained below) from tribal authorities were sampled because they are responsible for the community and Phinda Private Game Reserve management officials were interviewed since they work with the environment. First, the king of Mngqobokazi was interviewed because he is the leader of the community and handles many issues relating to livelihoods and other developmental programmes. Second, the two headmen of Mngqobokazi community were interviewed, one who is involved in the Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust and one that is not involved, so that the researcher could get different perspectives from different parts of the community. Third, the Environmental officer from the Phinda Private Game Reserve, for their involvement in the conservation practices within the reserve. Fourth, an official from Africa Foundation as they are overseeing the functioning of Phinda Private Game Reserve. Individual interviews were conducted through in-depth surveys with the officials of Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust. This was done to get clarity on the issues related to the interaction between the local communities and the Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust management.

5.5.2. Data collection tools

For the qualitative component of the study, the following tools were used to collect data:

Structured interview.

An interview was used to collect data from the selected traditional authorities, Phinda Private Game Reserve managers, Africa Foundation officials and Mngqobokazi Qhubekani community trust officials. The interview was developed especially for the purpose of this research project so as to help answer the research questions for the study.

Documents.

Documents such as peer reviewed journals and books were used to get information with regards to the research topic. Policy documents, and other documents such as the co-management agreement between the Mngqobokazi community, Africa foundation and

Phinda Private Game Reserve were also reviewed to get a clear understanding of how things are supposed to be.

5.5.3. Qualitative data analysis

Content analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. According to Maree (2014), content analysis is defined as a systematic, replicable procedure for coding using explicit rules to compress many words of text into less context categories. Data analysis followed 6 steps which are explained by (Creswell, 2014), These steps are, organize and prepare the data for analysis, read or look at all the data, coding all of the data, generating a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis, explain how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative, and an interpretation of the findings or results. Figure 4.2 below summaries the data collection techniques which were employed in this study.

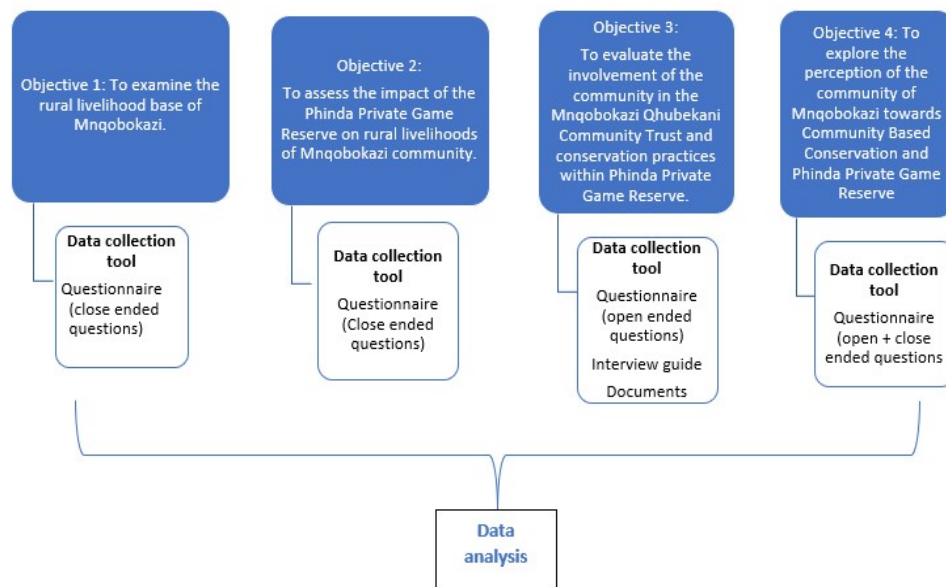


Figure 5.2: Diagrammatic representation of data collection tools used for each objective

5.6. Overview

Data collection tools were selected based on the objectives of the study and which tools were best suited to collect data which respond to the objectives of the study. Figure 5.3. below is a schematic representation of the study aim, objectives, the tools used to collect data and data analysis methods used.

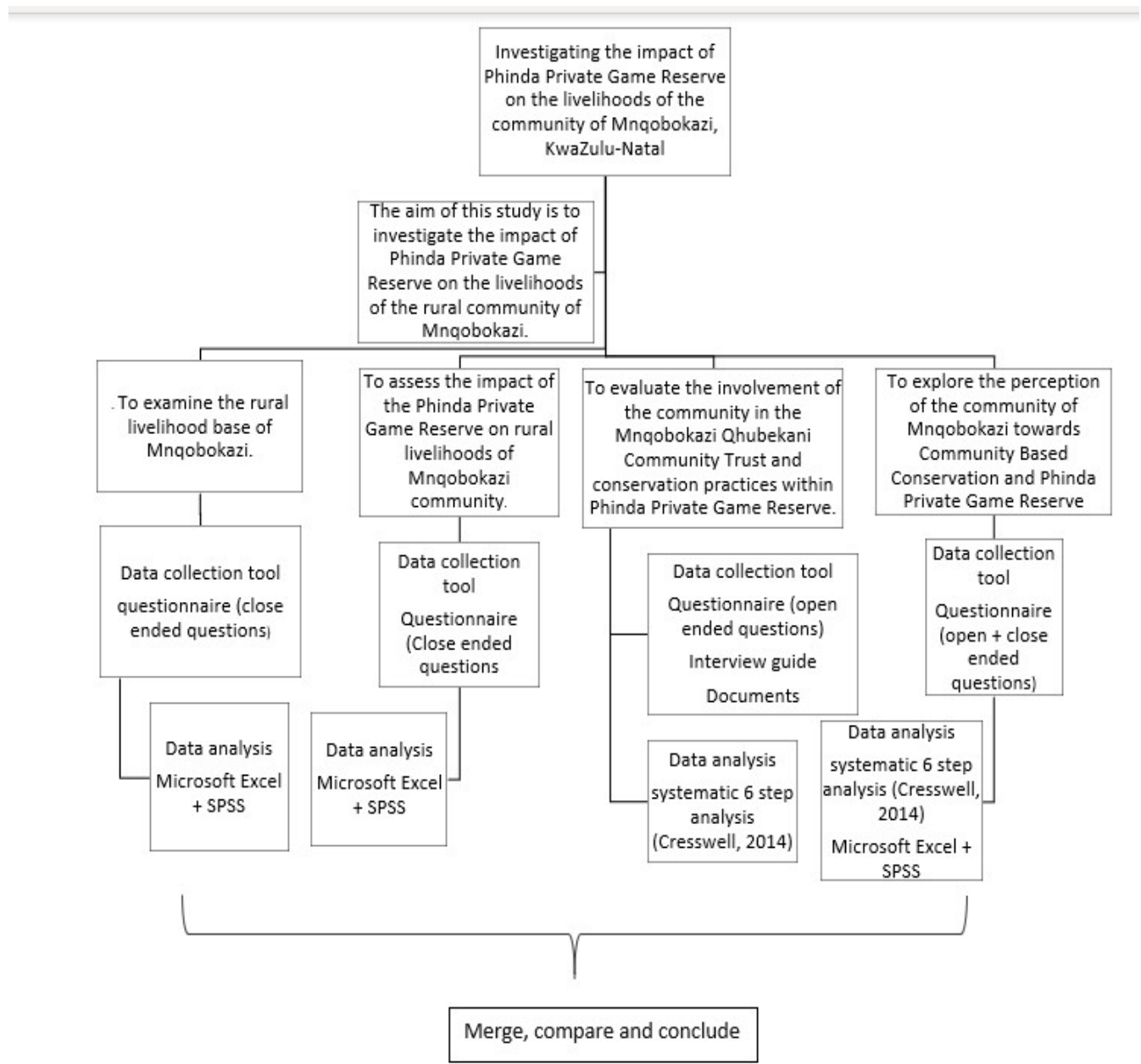


Figure 3.3: Diagrammatic representation research methodology overview.

5.7. Ethical considerations

Through reading the University's policy and procedures on research ethics, I fully understand the content of its policy and procedures on managing and preventing acts of plagiarism and unethical actions, therefore, I abstained from doing so. This study upheld and maintained a research environment in which the values of human dignity, equality, non-discrimination, social justice and fairness were honoured. Participants were not forced to participate in this study, rather, they were made comfortable and provided with sufficient information about this research. Confidentiality of participants was maintained through the protection of participant's identities, letter of consent and obtaining permission to be interviewed. This study was conducted in a manner that is socially and ethically relevant, pursuing the truth, intellectually honest and open to ideas and with high standards of professionalism and ethics. Before conducting the study, an ethical clearance certificate was granted to the researcher by the University of Zululand's ethics committee.

5.8. Limitations of the study

Despite achieving the objectives of the study, there were some issues that were hindering the full potential of the study. These included the fact that the community in question is under the tribal authority and has a sense of fear for their leaders. This limited them from responding freely to some of the crucial questions to the study. The researcher however, explained the purpose of the study and the data collected is a true representation of the reality on the ground. Another issue is that not all the people who were removed from PPGR settled in Mngobokazi, there are also other neighbouring communities that have a stake in PPGR. Therefore, it would have been beneficial if their views were also presented. But it should be added that, for the present purposes, the focus was only on Mngobokazi and this makes the insights gained in the study to be still important.

5.9. Conclusion

This chapter provided insight on the research methods and procedures followed when conducting the study. Qualitative and quantitative methods were explained in the context of the study and how they are incorporated into mixed methods used in the study.

Furthermore, a breakdown of how each objective was achieved using the method most suited was done to further clarify and justify the choice.

CHAPTER 6: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the presentation and analysis of data based on the results generated from interaction with the Mngobokazi community, their Traditional Authorities and the Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR) officials. The analysis and discussion of data from respondents answers the objectives and research questions as presented in Chapter 1, Section 4.

6.2 To examine the rural livelihood base (in terms of dependence on natural resources) of Mngobokazi community.

In order to understand the rural livelihood base of the Mngobokazi community, this section will first discuss the demographic characteristics of the respondents. This will be followed by an analysis of the primary and secondary livelihood strategies. The demographic data of respondents in the community is presented according to their gender, age, education level, and occupation.

Table 6.1: Gender of Participants

Gender of participants	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	42	71.2
Male	17	28.8
Total	59	100.0

Table 6.1 above shows the frequency and percentages of female and male participants in the study. The results show that 71.2% of the participants in the study were female, as compared to the 28.8% male. This may be attributed to the fact that in rural areas, man usually leave to seek for employment in the cities, if not, they are normally out herding cattle. In Table 6.2, below, the respondents' ages were categorized and presented as frequencies and percentages. Most (27%) of the respondents are between the ages 21 and 30. The least percentage of respondents were those above 60 years old at 10.2 %.

Table 6.1: Age of respondents

Participant's age	Frequency	Percent
less/equal to 20 years	7	11.9
21-30 years	16	27.1
31-40 years	10	16.9
41-50 years	10	16.9
51-60 years	9	15.3
Above 60 years	6	10.2
Total	58	98.3
Missing	1	1.7
Total	59	100.0

Table 6.2: Level of Education.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
None	7	11.9
Primary	11	18.6
Secondary	41	69.5
Tertiary	0	0
Total	59	100.0

Table 6.3. above shows the level of education of the respondents in the study. Of the 59 respondents from Mngobokazi, a majority of them (69.5%) had secondary education, 18.6% had primary education and the least (11.9%) of them had no formal education. None of them had tertiary education and this may be attributed to the fact that most of the educated people tend to move away from rural areas in search of better opportunities in urban areas.

Table 6.3: Employment status.

Employment status	Frequency	Percent
Employed	22	37.3
Unemployed	17	28.8
Self employed	20	33.9
Total	59	100.0

Table 6.4. shows that only 37.3% of the respondents have formal employment, in this case, formal employment is viewed as being employed in the formal sector, the majority (62.7%) of the respondents were either self-employed (33.9%) or without a job (28.8%). Wilkinson et al. (2017), argues that the unemployment rate in South Africa has seen an unprecedented increase over the past years and it mostly affects the youth, especially from rural areas. In this regard, it is not surprising that a significant number of people in the study area were also unemployed. Some of the respondents in this study derive their livelihoods from a number of activities with most of them (25.4%) being street vendors, and the least number of respondents (1.7%) making a living from making grass mats, hairdressing, petrol attendants, security guards, pensioners, and traditional healers (Table 6.5).

Table 6.4: Primary occupation

Primary livelihood strategy	Frequency	Percent %
None	9	15.3
EPWP	14	23.7
Volunteer	5	8.5
Sewer	2	3.4
Vendor	15	25.4
Security	1	1.7
Traditional healer	1	1.7
Small business	4	6.8
Student	2	3.4
Pensioner	1	1.7
Petrol attendant	1	1.7
Farmer	2	3.4
Grass matt making	1	1.7
Hairdresser	1	1.7
Total	59	100.0

What is clear from Table 6.5 is that, the respondents in this study do not have formal employment. This may be attributed to the fact that they do not have any tertiary education. An independent samples T test was therefore done to check for the relationship between employment and education level for the sample. The results for the Levene's test for equality of variances showed .000 significance and for the T-test for

equality of means, a .014 significance was found. This suggests that indeed, the level of education does affect the employment status of the respondents. Another reason for this is that there are not many opportunities for those that have tertiary education in rural areas, and therefore they migrate to the urban areas. Most of them are vendors (25.4%), followed by those employed in the extended public works programme (EPWP) with 23.7 %. The EPWP is a government programme that aims to employ the youth, women and people with disabilities for jobs such as site clearance, repairs, physical maintenance and cleaning of schools at several Wards within specific municipalities (Department of Public Works, 2016).

The results discussed above from Table 6.3 to Table 6.5 reflect the primary livelihood strategy of the community. The evidence provided above shows that the community does not possess a strong human capital. Literature on human capital suggests that it is a set of skills and knowledge that is possessed by the labour force (Goldin, 2016, Scoones, 1998). Major components of the human capital are health care, education and training (Goldin, 2016). None of the respondents in the study had any tertiary education, which makes it hard for them to get formal jobs and therefore this makes their livelihoods vulnerable. In the sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF), vulnerability is defined as the insecurity of livelihoods (Serrat, 2017), which is basically the exposure to risks, shocks and stress. Studies such as those of (Allison and Ellis, 2001, Serrat, 2017) distinguishes between two facets of livelihoods vulnerability, which is the external facets that deals with seasonality, shocks and critical trends; and internal facets that deals with the inability and lack of means to cope with external factors. The case of the community of Mnqobokazi falls under the internal facets in the sense that they do not have the necessary skills to improve their livelihood and cope with stresses since their education levels are poor and their livelihoods are not diverse enough (see Table 6.3 to Table 6.5).

When asked about their alternative livelihood strategies, 53.5% of the respondents claimed not to have any, while 33.9% were involved in small scale agriculture. Making grass mats accounted for 5.1%, government grants were 3.4% and other strategies such as traditional healing, trust beneficiaries and vendors were 1.7% each. This makes the livelihoods of the community of Mnqobokazi more vulnerable, because of the limited

range of alternative to sustain their livelihoods. Liu and Liu (2016) note that normally, livelihoods are dynamic and there are shifts in livelihood strategies from time to time. For instance, Francis (2019) argues that South Africa has seen a decline in employment opportunities since the late 1980s because of the restructuring in the mining industry resulting in a shift to dependence on agriculture. Therefore, livelihood strategies have to be diverse in order to cope with such instances where jobs are lost or natural hazards occur (Gautam and Andersen, 2016). A livelihood can only be sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and maintain or enhance its capabilities and grant opportunities for the future generation (Chambers and Conway 1992; Krantz 2001). This does not seem to be the case in the area under study because their livelihood base is not sustainable. The low level of education of respondents and the fact that the majority of the respondents depend on only one source of income and do not have formal employment makes the livelihoods of the community unsustainable.

6.3. Impact of the conservation of natural resources on rural livelihoods of Mngobokazi community

This section focusses on the impacts that Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR) has on the livelihoods of the local people of Mngobokazi. In order to understand the impacts of PPGR on the livelihoods of Mngobokazi community, the following was assessed: livelihood dependence on Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR), interests in participating on PPGR activities, livelihood dependence on natural resources, impact of PPGR on livelihoods, access to resources and economic and social benefits.

Most of the rural livelihoods are known to depend on natural resources, however, since the introduction of PAs, rural communities residing next to the PAs have struggled to get these resources since they are being fenced off. Table 6.6 below shows the results concerning the dependence of Mngobokazi community on PPGR. The majority of the respondents (84.7%) stated that they do not depend on Phinda Private Game Reserve for their livelihoods. Only 15.2% of the respondents claim to depend on Phinda Private Game reserve, with 3.4% of them receiving money, 5.1% getting resources and 6.8% accessing employment. For most respondents, PPGR is not their primary source of income and therefore, their livelihood do not necessarily depend on PPGR that much.

However, PPGR and the Mngobokazi community are under a co-management agreement (see chapter 4, section 2). To have such high number of people stating that they were unaffected by PPGR is a sign that, either people are ignorant of the outcomes of the land claim (the successful land restitution case see Chapter 4 Section 3) or the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust (MQCT) has deliberately left out the community members. This is in terms of not giving them enough information about the responsibilities of PPGR to the community of Mngobokazi as well as the providing information about the land claim and/or terms of lease agreement between PPGR and the community.

Table 5.6: Livelihood dependence on PPGR

		Nature of dependence				
		None	Money	Resources	Employment	Total
Dependence on PPGR	Yes	0	2	3	4	9
	No	50	0	0	0	50
Total		50	2	3	4	59

When asked about their interests in participating in activities such as decision-making in Phinda, 69% of the respondents said they would be interested and 31% indicated that they were not interested (Figure 6.1). This suggest that people are not involved in activities such as decision making in PPGR. This is also confirmed by findings presented in Figure 6.2 below. The non-involvement of the community members affects the way in which the community views PPGR in terms of their dependence, and how PPGR affects them. The community does not have a sense of belonging within PPGR, and it feels disconnected.

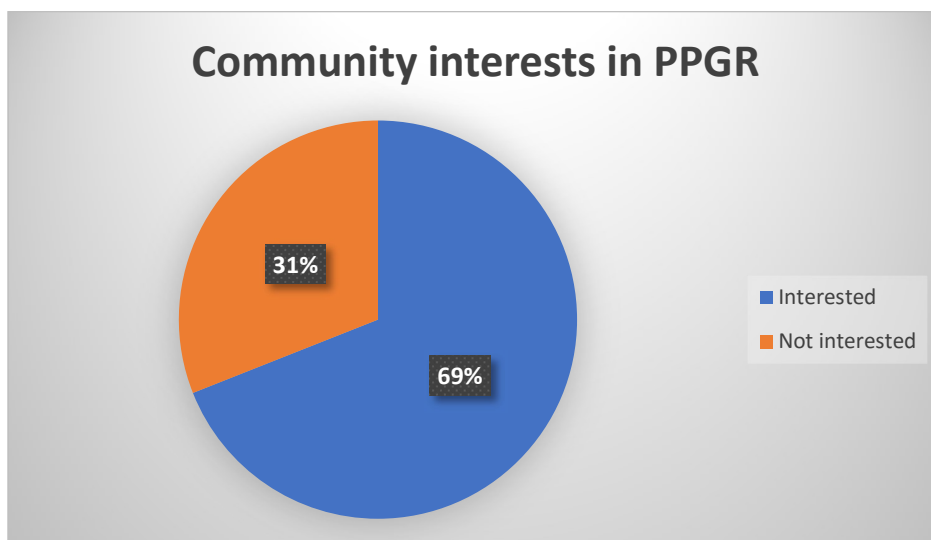


Figure 4.1: Community interests in PPGR

All respondents admitted that their livelihoods depend on natural resources, some of which can be found within PPGR. These resources are water, land, grass trees and wildlife. The high dependence on natural resource makes the community more vulnerable to shocks. For instance, some respondents claim to depend on water, and they find it difficult to cope with shocks such as droughts since they do not have proper facilities.

Table 6.7 below shows that most of the respondents (67.8%) claimed that their livelihoods are not affected by PPGR. However, of the 32.2% that said their livelihoods were affected by PPGR, the issues they raised related to restricted access to resources, benefits from Phinda and some stated that wildlife was a constant threat while others mentioned getting employment, support opportunities and access to PPGR. All of the authorities who were interviewed claimed that PPGR had benefitted the community. These benefits included building education facilities (schools and crèches), community halls, healthcare facilities and providing opportunities for the community. However, the information provided by traditional authorities and officials from PPGR is contradicting the findings in section 6.2, Table 6.5 above, which shows that the livelihood base of the community is not strong, because they do not among others, receive the support claimed by the officials who were interviewed in this study.

Most of the respondents claim that their livelihoods are not affected by PPGR. This shows that the community members lack the information about their stake in the co-management arrangement. As seen in Table 6.9, the majority of the respondents claim that their livelihoods do not depend on PPGR because their income is not dependent on PPGR (see Table 6.5). Even though a significant number of the respondents depend on natural resources, they can get the resources they need outside of PPGR. However, there is still a significant number of people in the community that depended on job opportunities that are directly linked to PPGR, such as those that work in the crèches built by PPGR as volunteers. There are also those whose livelihoods depend on natural resources and are denied access to PPGR. Drawing from the evidence above, the community of Mngqobokazi is affected by PPGR, however, most of the community members are not aware of this since they lack information. Using the lens of political ecology (See Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2.) one sees that power and politics plays an important role in the exploitation and governance of the environment and its resources. This is because, it would seem that PPGR would be happy if the ignorance of the community would continue and for the community members to think they had no share in PPGR and therefore were not affected. This serves the interests of the elite, who are the owners of PPGR, while the ordinary people on whose land the park stands have no complete idea that they own the land and have a co-management stake in the same PPGR.

Table 6.6: Impact of PPGR on Community Livelihoods

PPGR impact on community livelihoods	Community views on impact of PPGR on their livelihoods		Total
	Yes	No	
No response	0	40	40
Employment	2	0	2
Opportunities	2	0	2
Restricted access	4	0	4
Access to PPGR	3	0	3
Wildlife problems	2	0	2
Financial benefits	4	0	4
Support on livelihoods	2	0	2
Total	19	40	59

According to Adato and Meinzen-Dick (2002), livelihood assets influence the livelihood outcomes through interaction with institutions and policies. The livelihood assets of the community of Mngobokazi can be seen in the livelihood-base section above. It is evident that the livelihood-base of the Mngobokazi community is not that strong since most people depend on informal jobs as they do not have tertiary education. Although they have the natural capital, policies such as those related to poaching policies restrict their access, and thus limiting them to some extent. Their physical capital is also not strong enough since the area is underdeveloped. It is worth noting, however, that the community has a strong social capital, since most of the people have lived in the area for a long time. The strong natural capital is in the form of fauna and flora found within the PPGR, but they have limited access to the resources as discussed below. The community views of the impacts of PPGR show that there is no understanding of their role and place in the co-management arrangements. This may be attributed to their lack of education on such issues, or the general lack of flow of information that is seen in other sections of the study such as in Section 6.4.

When asked about their access to Phinda Private Game Reserve, the majority of the respondents (86.4%) said they have no access to PPGR. The other 13.6% claimed to have access but their access was relatively limited. In the interviews conducted with the authorities, most of them said that the community is allowed access, however, their access is limited and closely monitored. One of the respondents had this to say:

Yes, they are allowed, the community harvests certain plants for medicinal purpose or firewood, however, they must be kept on check since there are dangerous animals and also due to the threat of rhino poaching, therefore, they are closely monitored. Open access and frequent entering of the community members caused problems in the past therefore control measures had to be implemented" (Interview with Africa Foundation officials, 10 July 2019, Mngobokazi).

This suggests that there is a misunderstanding from the side of the community when it comes to access to resources. They believe that because the PA is located on their land, they have to get unlimited access to the resource, which contradicts the purpose of conservation, hence authorities grants them limited access. Literature on access to resources in PAs suggests that in South Africa, most of the communities were displaced from their ancestral land and stripped off rights to resource, leading to restricted access

to resources (Muzirambi, 2017, Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018, Nxumalo, 2010). Communities residing next to the protected areas remain in poverty and that makes it difficult for them to accept conservation projects (Nsukwini and Bob, 2016).

Table 6.8 below lists conflicts that have arisen between the community and the PPGR. The majority of the respondents (71.2%) did not respond to this question, and that can be taken as not having knowledge about the conflicts. However, 28.8% of the respondents said they have knowledge of the conflicts. These asserted that the conflicts were because of poaching. Others mentioned that it was because of lack of employment, denial of access to the PPGR and corruption.

Table 6.7: Conflict between community members and PPGR

Source or nature of conflicts	Community views on conflict		Total
	Yes	No	
No response	1	42	43
Corruption	1	0	1
Land claim and forceful removal	4	0	4
Employment	4	0	4
Poaching	6	0	6
Deny access	1	0	1
Total	17	42	59

In the interviews conducted with the authorities, half of the respondents claim that there were many conflicts stemming from the belief by the community that the land belonged to them and therefore they have the right to use the resource within PPGR. However, there has been improvements ever since. One of the respondents was quoted saying: “there were conflicts before, but the traditional authorities have stopped the community from fighting with the reserve because they bring benefits” (Interview with community Headman, 10 July 2019, Mngobokazi). Others suggested that there are some conflicts that exists, for instance, one respondent said that: “four years ago, someone was short for poaching, people wanted to hunt but were not allowed” (Interview with community headman, 10 July 2019, Mngobokazi). In addition, the other respondent said that: “the

community is angered when Phinda takes long to respond to their grievances” (Interview with community Headman, 10 July 2019, Mnqobokazi).

Results presented in Table 6.8 show that not all the community members experience conflicts. However, there is still room for improvement in terms of minimizing conflicts between the game reserve and the community. The results confirm the findings by some scholars such as (Dube, 2019, Lubilo, 2018, Riehl et al., 2015), who stated out that community-based conservation does minimize the conflicts between the neighbouring communities and protected areas. The presence of protected areas can also provide economic boost to the communities residing adjacent to them. Table 6.9 below is a presentation of economic benefits that the community of Mnqobokazi get because of living adjacent to PPGR. The results in Table 6.9 show that 74.6% of the participants deny receiving any economic gains from the PPGR and only 25.4% claimed to be getting benefits either as money (as per the lease agreement) or through employment. This suggests that only certain members of the community get to enjoy the benefits of having PPGR as their neighbour, however, the negative externalities are endured by all. This also confirms findings by Muzirambi (2017) that costs, lack of community participation, inadequate sharing of benefits and self-representation in PA management, and poor exercising of authority at local levels remain key issues in conservation. According to the local authorities, the local people are employed and those that were removed from the Phinda land get a certain amount of money paid to them once or twice a year.

Table 6.8: Economic gains

Economic benefits	Which economic gains			Total
	No response	Employment	Money (Beneficiaries)	
Yes	0	4	11	15
No	44	0	0	44
Total	44	4	11	59

In Table 6.10, social impacts that PPGR has on the local people are presented. The results show that 37.3% of the respondents did not respond to the question. Most of the respondents (22%) mentioned multiple factors, while 16.9% mentioned that PPGR

assisted the community with education. Other respondents said that they lost their sense of belonging and pride because of the displacement and those accounted for 6.8%. Similarly, those who said they get opportunities such as employment and business opportunities were 6.8%.

Table 6.9: Social impacts of PPGR

Social impacts	Frequency (59)	Percent % (100)
No response	22	37.3
Education	10	16.9
Displaced (Cultural/belonging)	4	6.8
Opportunities	4	6.8
Family conflicts	2	3.4
Health care	1	1.7
Wildlife	1	1.7
Disables + orphans	2	3.4
All of the above	13	22
Total	59	100.0

Others (3.4%) mentioned that they are faced with family conflicts since only one person gets the money from the family that was displaced, and it is not enough to be shared with all the other members of the family. Another 3.4% said that PPGR helps out with the orphans and the disabled people in the community and others (1.7%) mentioned support with health care facilities such as clinics. Other respondents (1.7%) mentioned that the wildlife escaping from PPGR is causing social issues.

The results presented in this section show that PPGR does have some positive impact on the livelihoods of the community. However, there are still people who are left behind in terms receiving benefits and most people in the community still lack understanding of their role in the co-management arrangement between the community and PPGR. The sustainability of the livelihoods is, however, questionable. Currently, the working force in the community lacks necessary skills to get proper jobs. The businesses they run are also not sustainable since they are barely making enough to put bread on the table. Issues such as conflicts within families, loss of sense of belonging and impacts on cultural practices are issues that can lead to even greater problems if they are not properly addressed. Another important issue worth noting is that the community shows great

interest in PPGR whilst they claim not to be dependent on PPGR. This is a sign that the community is not benefitting from what they are supposed to get from PPGR. Community involvement in decision making was also found to be lacking in the management of PPGR.

6.4 Involvement of the community in decision-making

The involvement of communities in decision making in community-based conservation is one of the most crucial things. According to Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017), community participation can empower the community and improve its well-being through improving sense of belonging. Figure 6.6 below show the results for the community involvement in decision-making within Phinda Private Game Reserve. The majority (63%) of the respondents in the study revealed that they are not involved in decision-making. The respondents that claimed to be involved in decision-making accounted for 27% and only 10% did not respond. In the interviews conducted with the authorities, the respondents had different views from each other about the involvement of the community in decision-making. From the side of PPGR, they claim that implement all decisions as directed by the community. Whatever action they take is from the community, they do not implement anything without the community coming to them and guiding them on what needs to done. The respondent was quoted saying:

“We deal with basic needs, so we support what the community needs. However, our philosophy is that we do not impose anything on the community, we let the community lead the way and support them as long as it is something we can afford to do. The community is central to whatever we are doing. The community is allowed to participate, we don’t involve them, they are central to what we do” (Interview with Africa Foundation officials, 10 July 2019, Mngqobokazi).

One of the community headmen agreed that the community is allowed to participate and also stated that they are afforded a lot of opportunities, the other one claimed to not have information regarding community participation. However, one of them claimed that the Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust committee represents the community when it comes to negotiations. The results presented in Figure 6.2 show that many community members are either not involved in decision making or lack information about the

conservation. Only a small segment of the respondents showed that they have knowledge about conservation in PPGR. As presented also in Table 6.12, a larger proportion of the respondents lack information about conservation, this suggests that there is a lack of flow of information amongst stake holders.

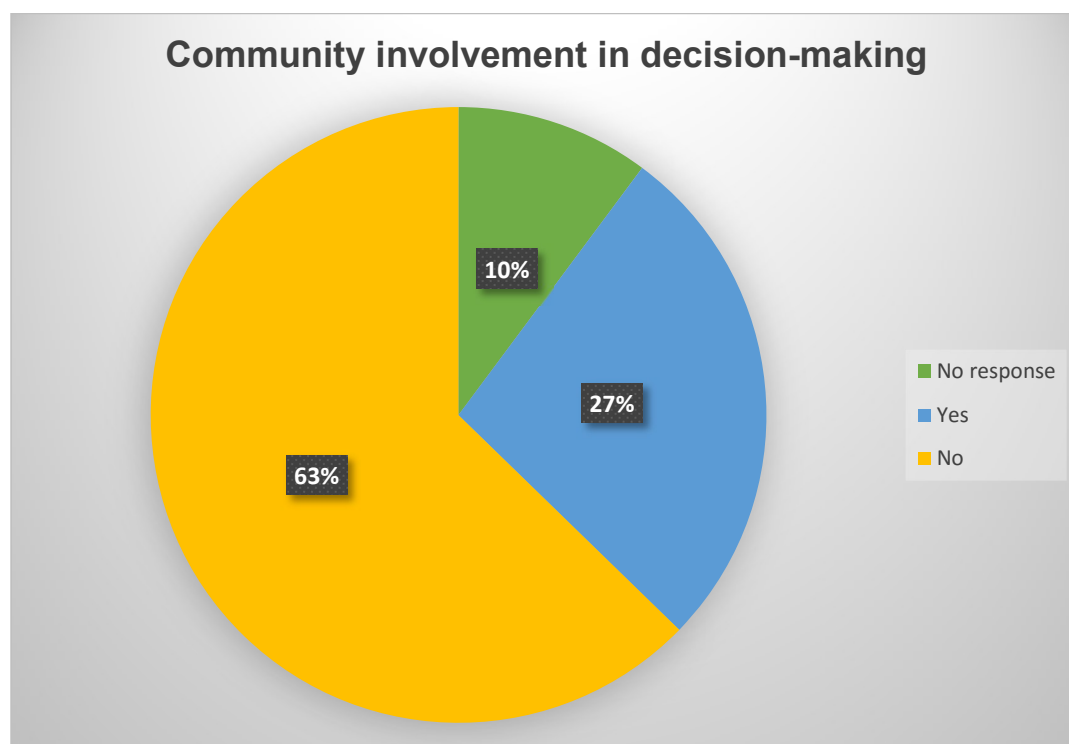


Figure 6.2: Community involvement in decision-making

To some degree, these results confirm findings by Musavengane et al. (2019), that information about the land reform and co-management agreements remained with the local elite. The results also show that there is no clearly defined hierarchy of power, and hence, the power play issues that are evident. This phenomenon is identified in the political ecology studies such as those by Calfucura (2018), which argue that community-based conservation often tends to overlook power-play issues, which then leads to unequal access to resources and decision making.

Table 6.11 below show a presentation of results for participation in conservation programmes in PPGR. The majority of the respondents (74.6%) in the study said that they are not afforded the opportunity to participate in conservation programmes and

25.4% said they are allowed to participate. Those who claim to participate stated that they are involved in decision-making, had meetings with PPGR authorities and the youth were trained as well as the fact that school children participated in conservation education. The results suggest that not all people participate in conservation programmes. This may be caused by the lack of communication between general community members and the authorities either from PPGR or the local authorities. This trend of lack of communication amongst stakeholders is also seen in Figure 6.2 above.

Table 6.10: Community Participation in PPGR Conservation Programmes

Nature of participation	Community views on participation in conservation		Total
	Yes	No	
No response	1	44	45
Meetings	3	0	3
School	2	0	2
Few involved	1	0	1
Training	3	0	3
Decision making	5	0	5
Total	15	44	59

6.4.1 Perceptions of the local community about Phinda Private Game Reserve

There are many factors that affect the way people view conservation on natural resources. In order to understand the perceptions of local community about Phinda Private Game Reserve, the following issues were addressed: knowledge about conservation policies, challenges faced by the community related to PPGR, MQCT support of the community and perceptions of the local community about PPGR and reasons for these perceptions.

When the respondents were asked if they knew of any conservation policies, 71.1% said they were not aware of any policies. The respondents who claimed to have knowledge about conservation policies made up 28.9%. They stated that, they knew policies related to poaching, social and economic development, getting permission to access resources,

education and conservation. These results show that a lot of people still lack knowledge about conservation. This comes as no surprise since the level of education (especially, tertiary education) in the area is very low. It is also worth noting that the most familiar conservation policy people know is that which restricts them to access resources. A significant number of respondents with knowledge about conservation policies mentioned poaching.

Rural communities residing next to PAs are said to be facing different challenges as a result of their location. For instance, scholars such as (Miranda et al., 2016, Muzirambi, 2017), have argued that PAs do inflict costs on the rural communities through denying access and sometimes the wild animals escape from the reserve and cause problems for the communities. Table 6.12 below is a representation of the challenges inflicted by PPGR on the rural community of Mnqobokazi.

Table 6.11: Challenges

Challenges from Phinda	Frequency	Percent
No response	37	62.7
Lack of grazing land	2	3.4
Lack of service provision	1	1.7
Denied access	7	11.9
No tourism benefits	2	3.4
Lack of support	4	6.8
Water shortage	1	1.7
Wildlife	2	3.4
All of the above	3	5.1
Total	59	100.0

The results in Table 6.12 above show that 37.3 % of the respondents do encounter challenges because of PPGR, the other 62.7% did not respond to the question. The challenges they faced related to PPGR include denial of access to PPRG resources, lack of support for their livelihood endeavours, while some respondents mentioned lack of grazing land for their livestock, not getting tourism benefits and wildlife from PPGR which escapes and feed on either their livestock or crops. Other stated water shortage and lack of service provision as challenges. Most of the respondents that did not face challenges

relating to PPGR had seen benefits such as employment opportunities provided by PPGR. Even though some participants were positively affected, there are some members of the community that were affected negatively by PPGR. These results confirm findings made by authors like Fordred and Mearns (2018), that conservation may inflict some costs to the rural communities through loss of livestock, land and crops, thus lead to conflicts. Muzirambi and Mearns (2018), also mentions the failure of PAs to provide tangible benefits to the communities, which corresponds with the respondents that mentioned lack of service provision. Indeed, it has been well documented that in most developing countries, the establishment of protected areas saw displacement of rural communities from their ancestral lands, subsequently leading to impacts on the livelihoods of the communities. Studies such as those by Fordred and Mearns (2018); Muzirambi, (2017); Nsukwini and Bob (2016), have suggested that the rural communities residing next to protected areas are severely impacted through displacement, restricted access to natural resources and many other factors. In Figure 6.3 below, community perceptions on natural resources conservation are presented.

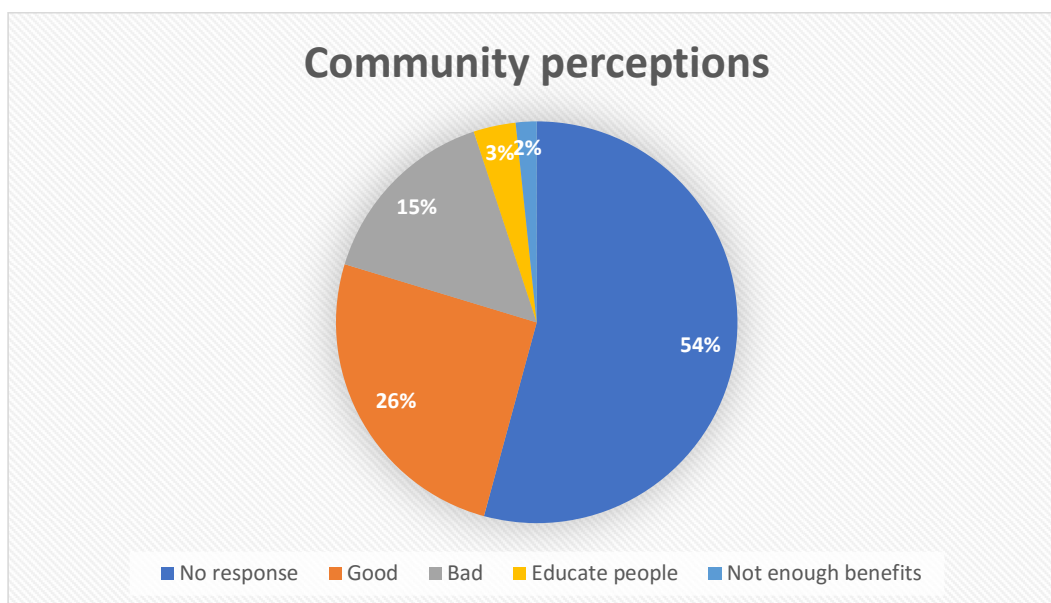


Figure 6.3: Community perceptions

A large proportion (54%) of respondents did not respond to this question. Second to this was 26% of the respondents who think that conservation is good while 15% think that it is bad. The remaining 5% was divided amongst those that think that educating people

about conservation would be a good idea 3%, and other 2% that believe that there are not enough benefits for people to support conservation. The reasons for the large portion of respondents not responding to the question on perception might be that they were not comfortable enough as they feared that the researcher might be working for PPGR and maybe something bad might happen to them. The strong correlation between the perceptions and involvement in decision-making suggests that community participation influences the way people perceive conservation. Literature on perceptions of conservation by the local communities suggest that ignoring the views of local people in conservation practices is a major cause of conflicts. The results presented above support the findings by scholars (see e.g. Fordred and Mearns, 2018, Mathevet et al., 2016, Muzirambi and Mearns, 2018, Nakakaawa et al., 2015), that lack of involvement of the community in conservation activities and decision-making, as well as the failure to produce tangible benefits may lead to negative perceptions by the community.

Table 6.13 below is a presentation of the role that Mngqobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust plays in supporting the community. The majority (76.3%) of the respondents stated that there is no support they receive from the MQCT. Other respondents claimed they do get support (18.6%) and the others did not respond (5.1%). The respondents mentioned employment opportunities, financial support, and educational support as ways in which they receive support from the trust, while others claim that selected individuals only benefit.

Table 6.12: MQCT support of the community

Nature of support	Community perception of MQCP support			Total
	No response	Yes	No	
None	3	0	45	48
Employment	0	1	0	1
Depends	0	2	0	2
Financial	0	3	0	3
Education	0	5	0	5
Total	3	11	45	59

Table 6.14 below is a follow up on Table 6.16 and is a presentation of the reasons why respondents thought the trust was not doing enough to support them

Table 6.13: Reasons

Community perception of MQCP	Frequency	Percentage %
No response/don't know	19	32.2
Not transparent	1	1.7
No support	6	10.2
Selective	13	22
Not enough support	9	15.2
Lack of communication	4	6.8
Not democratic	1	1.7
Non involvement	1	1.7
Corruption	3	5.1
Other responses	2	3.4
Total	59	100

From Table 6.14 above, the respondents mentioned lack of transparency, lack of support, not enough support, lack of communication, non-democratic processes, non-involvement of the community, corruption and that only selected individuals get support. Most (44%) of the respondents claim that the relationship between PPGR and the community is good. However, 31% of the respondents say there is no relationship that exists between the two, while 17% said it is bad. Only 8% of the respondents did not answer the question. In the interviews with the authorities, the majority of the respondents claimed that there was a lot of bad blood between the community and the PPGR. Communities believed that the land belonged to them and they were bitter about the fact that PPGR was making profits on their land. However, a relationship has since been cultivated and now there are signs that show that the community is co-operating. In the words of one of the respondents: “in 1994, there was no relationship between the two parties, we were enemies in fact, local people were always angry at conservation bodies. Phinda’s success story is combating poaching” (Interview with Africa Foundation officials, 10 July 2019, Mngobokazi).

Considering the background provided in chapter 4 of the study about the establishment of PPGR, it is safe to say that their relationship is moving in a positive direction. The results suggest that PPGR, with the help of local authorities, has done enough to cultivate the relationship with the community. However, there is still a long way to go if they want

to get full support from the community. They still need to improve on some aspects, such as communication and flow of information. The results support claims made by other scholars (see e.g. Fordred and Mearns, 2018, Nakakaawa et al., 2015), that community-based conservation yields mixed results, as some people may still be affected positively and some negatively.

6.5. Conclusion

This chapter presented and analysed data that was collected from the community of Mngobokazi, the officials from Phinda Private Game Reserve and the traditional authorities. The following chapter will present conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

The study consisted of seven chapters. Chapter one provided a background to the study in order to provide an orientation to the research. Chapter two explored the contextual and theoretical perspectives of the study. Chapter three critically reviewed literature relevant to the present research. Chapter four presented the physical setting of the study. The study was based in Mnqobokazi, which is a small rural area in the uMkhanyakude district municipality. The chapter briefly explained the history of Mnqobokazi in terms of the land claim settlement/land restitution. Chapter five described the research design and methodology which was followed in the collection and analysis of data and on which the findings of this research stand. Chapter six provided a critical analysis and interpretation of the data in response to the objectives of the study. In line with this analysis, the following issues emerged.

7.2 The rural livelihood base of Mnqobokazi community

The community of Mnqobokazi does not have a good education base, therefore, their livelihoods depend on jobs that are not formal. They do not have the necessary skills that are needed to be employed in the formal sector and this affects their human capital. This means that they are not capacitated to achieve both positive livelihood outcomes and make use of other types of capital. The primary livelihood strategies of the majority of the community members were found to be mostly informal and unsustainable. Street vending, extended public works programme, petrol attendants, security guards, pensioners, and traditional healing were amongst primary livelihood strategies mentioned. The majority of the members do not have a secondary livelihood strategy, which further puts their livelihood at risk. Evidence provided suggests that the livelihoods of the community of Mnqobokazi are not sustainable, since most of them depend on only one source of income. Most of them also do not have adequate education and even those who have businesses can barely provide for their families with their profits.

7.2.1. Impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on livelihoods

The majority of the respondents stated that they do not depend on Phinda Private Game Reserve (PPGR) for their livelihoods. At the same time the livelihood base of the community is poor. The community also claimed to have no access to PPGR, whilst the local authorities claimed that the community had access. In addition, the community also stated that they have interests in the PPGR. These seemingly contradictory findings point to deeper issues in the study area. First, the claim by the community that they were not affected by PPGR is not true, because the community members depended on some of the resources which are within the PPGR. It can only be that they made this claim based on ignorance of the co-management agreement between PPGR and Mngobokazi, to the extent that they believe they have no stake in PPGR and therefore should not be expected to depend on it. Second, the fact that people who are supposed to be partners in a co-management agreement of PPGR, claim that they do not depend on and are not affected by the same, actually shows that they are affected. The fact that they are ignorant about an inheritance (their land and resources) from which they must benefit shows that they have lost out and will continue to do for as long as they are ignorant of their stake. Third and most importantly, the fact that a significant part of the population is kept in the dark about their claim to and benefits from PPGR shows the impact of power and politics in environmental issues and the management of resources. The theory of Political Ecology as propounded by scholars like (Quandt, 2016, Vaccaro et al., 2013, Walker, 2005) have assisted to illuminate this. In other words, the elites who may be the community leaders and officials of PPGR will continue to thrive on the ignorance of the community (who will continue to think they are not part of beneficiaries in PPGR).

Conflicts between PPGR and the community are mostly caused by poaching, denial of access, perceived corruption and unemployment. However, the authorities claim that conflicts have been minimised from the time of the establishment of PPGR. The community does get economic and social benefits from PPGR in the form of money, employment and educational support. However, not all people are happy with these benefits. There are also some negative social impacts that were evident from the study, such as inadequate sharing of benefits, and conflicts between family members caused by the money they receive from PPGR. Their cultural practices were also affected since they

do not have free access to their graveyards. Considering the findings discussed above, one can argue that the community of Mngobokazi is affected despite, the community not being aware of the fact that they are being affected. Issues such as the lack of employment, basic services such as access to water, not having enough grazing and ploughing land, fear of losing their livestock and safety because of wildlife continue to plague the community. These negative impacts led to food shortages, financial difficulties, loss of lives (poachers), and conflicts amongst some family members. All these challenges contribute to continued poverty and affects the well-being of the community. Therefore, the overall comment concerning the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on livelihoods, is that there are some positive impacts on some members of the community. However, the issue is that only a selected few individuals get these benefits as opposed to challenges experienced by the majority of the community members.

7.2.2. Involvement of the community in decision-making

The majority of the respondents in the community claim that they do participate in conservation programmes within PPGR. However, their involvement in decision making within PPGR conservation programmes is still questionable. The flow of information was noted to be deficient in the different structures of the community. Even some of the local authorities are not fully informed about the processes that take place within the PPGR. For instance, one of the community headmen stated that they had no information regarding involvement of the community. While other authorities stated that the community was involved, because it was represented by the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust committee. It is evident that there is no clearly defined hierarchy of power in the community, and therefore, this affects the flow of information. It seems that this lack of flow of information would be of benefit to the authorities as long as people in the community remain in the dark.

The claim that MQCT represents the community is too simplistic since MQCT caters for a selected few in the community and is not fully representative of the entire community. As discussed in section 4.1 of the study, most of the respondents said that the trust benefits only the selected individuals in the community and not the entire community. It

was also noted that some members of the community have lost confidence in the MQCT committee as they accuse them of lacking transparency and for being corrupt, leading to unequal benefits sharing. This reflects the significance of politics and power in natural resources management in that local elites are capable of manipulating power to serve their own interests at the expense of the poor. This also outlines the importance of political ecology as a theoretical underpinning to the study, as advanced by (Quandt, 2016, Vaccaro et al., 2013, Walker, 2005) which assisted the researcher to attempt a clearer and deeper understanding of the issues under consideration.

7.2.3. Perceptions of the local community about Phinda Private Game Reserve

The local community has no knowledge of conservation policies and for those who do, the policies that restrict their access to resources, such as the non-poaching policies were the most popular. The community does encounter challenges relating to PPGR, however, some have seen benefits from PPGR. Most of the people are of the belief that conservation is good, while others think that improvements in benefit sharing and conservation education are needed. It was also found that there is a strong correlation between perceptions of the local community and their involvement in decision-making. This means that the non-involvement of the community in decision-making is the one that affects the way the community views conservation. Evidence suggests that there has been an improvement in the relationship between PPGR and the community of Mngobokazi since the MQCT was established.

7.3. Suggestions for further research

The study was delimited to a particular scope and therefore other elements encountered during the study fell outside of the study's intended investigation. For these reasons, the following are suggested as possible areas for future research;

- a) Comparative study on other communities neighbouring the PPGR.
- b) The role and functioning of Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust committee.
- c) A deeper look into the land claim settlement and how it affects the local communities and conservation.

7.4. Recommendations

a) This study has showed that the local community of Mngobokazi has a poor livelihood base, despite the fact that they have a strong social and natural capital. It is recommended that, there should be investments into education and skills development (especially in areas such as conservation and entrepreneurship). The youth in the community would benefit as well as the whole community.

b) Power play issues, and lack of clearly defined roles for stakeholders were evident in the study. This hinders the further development of the relationship between the community and PPGR and the success of the co-management agreement between the parties. The flow of information is key in addressing the issue of non-involvement. It is recommended that, the community should have knowledge and be informed about decisions that are taken within PPGR. Involvement of the community in decision making can give the community a sense of ownership and therefore more willing to co-operate with PPGR. It is for this reason that the Phinda Private Game Reserve managers should incorporate the local communities around them in the management of the resources. This can be achieved through reconfiguring the existing structure within the community or through closely monitoring the structures. The rural communities need to be truly represented in decision-making processes.

7.5. Concluding remarks

The study aimed at investigating the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi. The reason for selecting Mngobokazi and Phinda Private Game Reserve is that PPGR was built out of land that previously belonged to the surrounding rural communities, Mngobokazi being one of them. The land was then returned to the community only to be leased back to PPGR for conservation purposes on a co-management deal. The study followed a mixed methods approach to achieve the main objective as explained in chapter five of the study. The results show that the community of Mngobokazi is indeed impacted by PPGR.

Whilst some of the community members are impacted positively, others are impacted negatively, however, there is an improvement in the relationship that exists between the two parties as compared to the time the reserve was first established. Community-Based

Conservation is considered as a way to minimise conflict and promote good relations between communities and protected areas. However, if it is not executed properly, there are high chances that it can fail and lead to more conflicts. As a result, issues of benefits arising from PAs and how these impact on the livelihoods of community members continue to be important points for conversation. Hence in this study, the main finding is that, the majority of the community members of Mngobokazi were actually excluded from the management and decision making as well as benefits sharing, which, overall, negatively affected their livelihoods.

These findings suggest that Phinda Private Game Reserve and the local community members must ensure that there is equal sharing of benefits within the community. This can be done through monitoring the distribution of benefits closely and with honesty. Likewise, there is need to ensure that the community is involved in the decision making through establishing better communication channels to ensure that everyone is aware of all processes. This is in the best interest of the PPGR, since it can make the task of convincing the community to support conservation easy. The PPGR and the local elites need to put more emphasis on transparency and ensure that their practices are done in a more democratic manner. Notwithstanding, the community members, should be proactive by requesting clarity on the terms and implications of the co-management agreement which exist between them and PPGR. This knowledge could assist them to behave like partners and not subjects who are at the mercy of the elites. It is posited that by these means, the community would take responsibility and not wait for the PPGR to hand them opportunities. This would lead to a strong partnership involving, the government, interested NGOs and local authorities and the community in the fight against poverty in these rural areas. It is evident from the case of Mngobokazi that a weak livelihood base, poverty and underdevelopment lead to conflicts between protected areas and the community.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ORIGINALITY DECLARATION

Full Names and Surname	Simphiwe Lindinkosi Ricardo Gcina Xulu
Student Number	201404668
Title of dissertation/thesis	Investigating the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the community of Mngqobokazi, KwaZulu-Natal

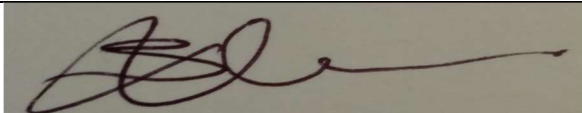
I acknowledge that I have read and understood the University's policies and rules applicable to postgraduate research, and I certify that I have, to the best of my knowledge and belief, complied with their requirements.

In particular, I confirm that I had obtained an ethical clearance certificate for my research (UZREC 1110-O3O PGM 2019/64) and that I have complied with the conditions set out in that certificate.

I further certify that this research paper/ mini dissertation/ dissertation/ thesis is original, and that the material has not been published elsewhere, or submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

I declare that this research thesis is, save for the supervisory guidance received, the product of my own work and effort. I have, to the best of my knowledge and belief, complied with the University's Plagiarism Policy and acknowledged all sources of information in line with normal academic conventions.

I have/have not subjected the document to the University's text-matching and/or similarity-checking procedures.

Candidate's signature	
Date	10/01/2020

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND



FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND AGRICULTURE

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Questionnaire.

I Simphiwe Xulu, a Masters' student at the University of Zululand, kindly ask for your assistance in my Masters' research aiming to investigate the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi by willingly answering this questionnaire. Be assured that all answers you provide will be treated with strictest confidentiality.

Consent form

I state that the aim of the research has been explained to me and that I voluntarily accept to answer the questions in the questionnaire. The researcher explained that I can withdraw my participation at any time without being penalised.

Signature:

Questionnaire no

Distance from the Protected Area

Section A: Biographical and Demographic Information.

1. Age

2. Gender

Male:

Female:

3. How many family members are in your household?

.....

4. Level of education attained:

.....

5. Indicate your current employment status with an "X" below.

Employed	
Unemployed	
Self-employed	

6. What work do you do? (occupation)

.....

7. How many of your family members are employed.

8. How long have you lived in this area?

Section B: Rural Livelihoods

1. What livelihood strategies do you pursue?

.....

.....

2. Does your livelihood depend on the Qhubekani Mngobokazi Community Trust/
Phinda Private Game Reserve?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2.1 If the answer to the above question is yes, how?

.....

.....

2.2 If the answer to the above question is no, do you have an interest on the trust?

.....

.....

Section C: Impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on livelihoods.

1. Do you depend on natural resources for your livelihood wellbeing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

1.1 If the answer to the above question is yes, which resources do you depend on?

.....

.....

2. Does Phinda Private Game Reserve affect your livelihood?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2.1 If the answer to the above question is yes, how?

.....

.....

3. Do you know of any conservation policies used by Phinda Private Game Reserve?

Yes ☐

No ☐

3.1 If yes, which are those and how do they affect your livelihoods?

.....

.....

4. What are the challenges you face in sustaining your livelihood in relation to the Phinda Private Game Reserve?

.....

5. Do you have access to natural resources within Phinda Private Game Reserve?

Yes ☐

No ☐

5.1 If the answer to the above question is yes, how much access are you allowed?

.....

6. Has there been any conflict between Phinda Private Game Reserve and the community?

Yes ☐

No ☐

6.1 If yes, please specify

.....

6.2 Are there any economic gains you can attribute to Phinda Private Game Reserve?

Yes ☐

No ☐

6.3 If yes, what are those?

.....

7. What are the social impacts that Phinda Private Game Reserve has on the community?

.....

.....

7. Are you involved in any decision-making in Phinda Private Game Reserve?

.....

.....

Section D: Possible Contribution of Indigenous Knowledge Systems on Phinda Private Game Reserve.

1. Are you given a chance to participate in conservation programmes within Phinda Private Game Reserve?

Yes ☐

No ☐

1.1 If yes, how?

.....

.....

1.2 If no, how do you think your knowledge can assist in making the projects a success?

2 Do you think your Indigenous knowledge of conservation contributes to making the projects a success?

.....

Section E: Local peoples' perceptions

1. What are your perceptions on Community-Based Conservation?

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. Do you think that the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust is doing enough to support the livelihoods of Mngobokazi people?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2.1. If yes, please explain how?

.....

.....

2.2. If no, please explain why not?

.....

.....

3. Do you think that using land for conservation is sustainable?

.....

.....

4. Describe the relationship that exists between the community and Phinda Private Game Reserve?

.....

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE. (PHINDA PRIVATE GAME RESERVE AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES)

I Simphiwe Xulu, a Masters' student at the University of Zululand, kindly ask for your assistance in my Masters' research aiming to investigate the impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi, by willingly answering this questionnaire. Be assured that all answers you provide will be treated with strictest confidentiality.

Consent form

I state that the aim of the research has been explained to me and that I voluntarily accept to answer the questions in the questionnaire. The researcher explained that I can withdraw my participation at any time without being penalised.

Signature:

Section A: Impact of Phinda Private Game Reserve on the livelihoods of the rural community of Mngobokazi.

1. What are the natural conservation initiatives and programmes implemented by Phinda Private Game Reserve?

.....

2. Is the community of Mngobokazi allowed to participate in the conservation of natural resources?

.....

3. Is the community of Mngobokazi allowed to access natural resources? Why?

-
-
-
-
4. To what extent are the local people involved in the Mngobokazi Qhubekani Community Trust?
-
-
-
5. Do the implemented natural resource programmes allow the community of Mngobokazi to benefit from natural resource conservation? If yes, how?
-
-
6. What measures are taken by Phinda Private Game Reserve to make sure that their natural resource conservation benefits the people of Mngobokazi?
-
-
7. What programmes have been implemented by the Phinda Private Game Reserve which were inspired by the local peoples' indigenous knowledge?
-
-
-
-
-
-
8. Has Phinda Private Game Reserve encountered any conflict with the community of Mngobokazi in the process of conservation?

.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX D: TRANSMITTAL LETTER

University of Zululand

Faculty of Science & Agriculture

*Department of Geography and
Environmental Studies*



Website: <http://www.uzulu.ac.za>

Private Bag X1001
3886 KwaDlangezwa

Tel: 035 902 6340
Fax: 035 902 6647
E-mail: moyoi@unizulu.ac.za

2019

11 February

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

**RE: REQUEST TO UNDERTAKE A RESEARCH STUDY IN MNQOBOKAZI
QHUBEKANI COMMUNITY TRUST BY MR SMPHIWE LINDINKOSI RICARDO
GCINA XULU (STUDENT NUMBER 201404668)**

The above named student, Mr Xulu (Student number 2014404668) is a full time student registered for the Master's Degree in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at the University of Zululand. The requirements for the degree under study (Master's Full dissertation) is a dissertation. The actual title of Mr Xulu 's research is:

**ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF PHINDA PRIVATE GAME PARK ON
MNQOBOKAZI QHUEBEKANI COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT TRUST**

The Department of Geography and Environmental Studies would like to appeal to you to assist this student with any help he may require to complete this project. I would like to assure you that this research project is undertaken mainly for academic purposes and all information acquired from you will be treated with the strictest confidence. A copy of the final dissertation may be given to you on request.

I would be most grateful for your assistance in this regard.

Yours sincerely

I. Moyo (PhD)

Department of Geography & Environmental studies

University of Zululand

APPENDIX E: TRADITIONAL AUTHORITIES PERMISSION LETTER



Physical address
Mnqobokazi area
Hluhluwe
3960

postal address
p.o.box 75
hluhluwe
3960

25 February 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Re: Request to undertake a research study in Mnqobokazi Area by Mr Simphiwe Lindinkosi Ricardo Gcina Xulu (Student number 201404668)

The KwaMnqobokazi Traditional Authority hereby grants Mr SLRG Xulu, Student number, 201404668 permission to undertake a research study for his Master's Dissertation, with the topic:

Assessing the Impacts of Phinda and Beyond (Private Game Reserve) on the Rural Livelihoods of the Mnqobokazi Community.

Regards,
P.J.GWANE

CELL: 076-6659-046
CELL: 079-6511-092



APPENDIX F: ETHICAL CLERANCE CETIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF INNOVATION

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE Website:
(Reg No: UZREC 171110-030) Private KwaDlangezwa Bag



ZULULAND

RESEARCH &

<http://www.mni7.u.ac.za>

X 10013886

Tel: 035 902 6731

Fax: 035 902 6222

Email: DlelanaM@unizulu.ac.za

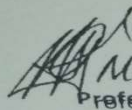
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Number	UZREC 171110-030 PGM 2019/64					
Project Title	INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF PHINDA PRIVATE GAME RESERVE ON THE LIVELIHOODS OF THE COMMUNITY OF MNQOBOKAZI, KWAZULU-NATAL					
Principal Researcher/ Investigator	Simphiwe LRG Xulu					
Supervisor and Cosupervisor	Dr I Moyo					
Department	Geography and Environmental Studies					
Faculty	Science and Agriculture					
Type of Risk	Med Risk — Data Collection from people					
Nature of Project	Honours/4 th Year		Master's	x	Doctoral	Departmental

The University of Zululand's Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project. The Researcher may therefore commence with data collection as from the date of this Certificate, using the certificate number indicated above.

- Special conditions:
- (1) This certificate is valid for 1 year from the date of issue.
 - (2) Principal researcher must provide an annual report to the UZREC in the prescribed format [due date-21 October 2020]
 - (3) Principal researcher must submit a report at the end of project in respect of ethical compliance.
 - (4) The UZREC must be informed immediately of any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the meeting.

The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting research.


Mahlomahle Gideon De Wet
Professor Gideon De Wet

U

IVERSITY OF ZULULAND RESEARCH
ETHICS COMMITTEE (UZREC)
REG NO: UZREC 171110-30
22-10-2019

RESEARCH & INNOVATION OFFICE

Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee
Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research & Innovation
22 October 2019