

Section 3

Cape Peninsula, South Africa

3.1 Introduction

This case study looks at land management approaches that are being used on the Cape Peninsula in South Africa. A prominent feature of this area is the high biodiversity, and great number of endemic plant species, which make the area of interest internationally. Pressure on the area comes from the expansion of the city of Cape Town. In addition, high poverty and unemployment add pressure to the natural resources because of unauthorised resource use and informal settlements in natural areas.

A large proportion of the Peninsula now forms the Cape Peninsula National Park (hereafter referred to as 'CP National Park' - this term is used to relate to both the Park and the Park management), protected under the South Africa National Parks Act 1976. This case study also illustrates an approach where environmental management of an area can be applied to both publicly and privately owned land, and where different management approaches are proposed depending on the environmental sensitivity of areas within and around the CP National Park.

This chapter describes the Cape Peninsula area, the relevant planning authorities and the events leading to the creation of the CP National Park. This is followed by a description of the relevant planning documents that have been developed for the CP National Park and surrounding metropolitan area, strategies for the acquisition of private land, and the management of pressures from outside the CP National Park.

3.2 History and description of the area

Lying at the south-western tip of Africa, the Cape Peninsula National Park encompasses the incredibly scenic Peninsula mountain chain stretching from Signal Hill in the north to Cape

Point in the south - a distance of approximately 60km. The narrow finger of land with its many beautiful valleys, bays and beaches is bound by the waters of the Atlantic Ocean in the west and the warmer waters of False Bay in the east. It has within its boundaries two world-renowned landmarks - majestic Table Mountain and the legendary Cape of Good Hope. These were both important beacons for the early explorers. Many myths and legends have sprung from them. Recognised globally for its extraordinarily rich, diverse and unique flora, this singular land formation - with rugged cliffs, steep slopes and sandy flats - is a truly remarkable natural, scenic, historical, cultural and recreational asset both locally and internationally. Nowhere else in the world does an area of such spectacular beauty and such rich bio-diversity exist almost entirely within a metropolitan area - the thriving and cosmopolitan city of Cape Town.⁸⁷

... Cape Point is an 8000-hectare narrow promontory of land jutting into a stretch of open sea popularly believed to be the meeting point of the Atlantic and Indian oceans. The peninsula, situated 60km southwest of Cape Town, is characterised by towering sea cliffs, the highest in South Africa, which reach a height of 249m (817ft). Criss-crossed by spectacular walks and trails, the area also features whale and penguin watching, tidal pools, over a thousand species of indigenous plants and a variety of mammals, such as baboon and buck. Popular activities around Cape Point also include abseiling, parasailing, horseriding and surfing.

Table Mountain ... stands in the middle of Cape Town and defines the downtown area, with the forested ravines of its eastern buttresses flanking the southern suburbs. So named for its flat top, the mountain rises to a height of 1086m. Maclear's Beacon was erected on the top in 1843 by astronomer Sir Thomas Maclear, who used it to obtain a more accurate

measurement of the earth's circumference. Since 1929, a cable car has carried visitors up to the summit, which offers spectacular views of the city and its beaches. The mountain is also home to an indigenous rodent-like creature called the Rock Hyrax or 'dassie', the closest living relative to modern elephants.⁸⁸

The Cape Peninsula⁸⁹ is in the Western Cape Province of South Africa, and is about 471 kilometres² (figure 3.1). It has a Mediterranean climate, being wet in winter, and warm and dry in summer. The Cape Peninsula is within the Cape Floral Kingdom (figure 3.2), which is one of the world's six floral kingdoms, each of which contains its own unique groups of plants. The Cape Floral Kingdom, predominantly composed of fynbos communities,⁹⁰ is the smallest of these, and is the only one found entirely within a single country.⁹¹ It contains more types of indigenous plants than any other similar sized area on earth. Nearly 6,000 of the 8,600 plant species are unique to the Cape Floral Kingdom. The Cape Peninsula has over 2,280 plant species, of which 90 are endemic, and 141 are threatened.⁹²

Figure 3.1: The Cape Peninsula



Source: Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cpnnp.co.za>.

Figure 3.2: The Cape Floral Kingdom, shown in black (the arrow indicates the Cape Peninsula)



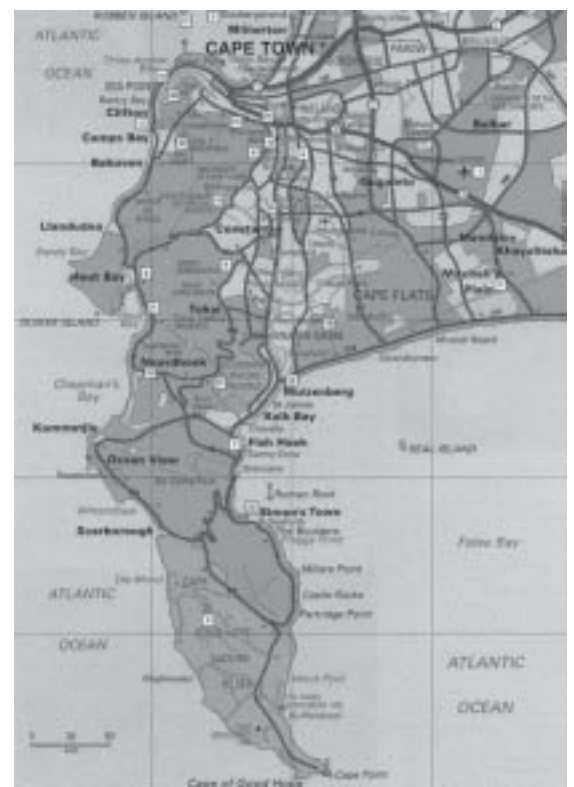
Source: Younge, A. 2000. *A biodiversity strategy and action plan for the Cape Floral Kingdom*.

Prehistoric people are thought to have first occupied the Cape Peninsula at least 200,000 years ago.⁹³ The San (or Bushmen), who were hunter-gatherers, inhabited the Peninsula at least 20,000 years ago.⁹⁴ About 2000 years ago the Khoikhoi migrated to the area from the north, bringing cattle and sheep, and displaced the San. They were dominant when the Dutch arrived in 1652. The Dutch transformed the lowland areas of the northern Peninsula significantly, converting large areas to agriculture, and establishing plantations of exotic tree species.⁹⁵ The gradual expansion of the Dutch into the southern part of the Peninsula, along with a small pox epidemic, led eventually to the social and economic disintegration of the Khoikhoi on the Peninsula by 1713.

The City of Cape Town surrounds most of the Cape Peninsula that is not bordered by ocean (figure 3.3). The city is about 50 kilometres north of the Cape of Good Hope, on the Cape Peninsula, which is the southern most part of southwestern South Africa. The population has grown rapidly since the 1960s, when it was 500,000,⁹⁶ to a population of 2.56 million at the 1996 census,⁹⁷ and the current population of about 3.1 million. This increase was because of the repeal in the 1980s of discriminatory legislation introduced during the apartheid era to prevent black people moving to the Western Cape.⁹⁸ About half the

current population is coloured (people of mixed race), whites and blacks each make up a quarter of the population, and about 2 percent are Asian.⁹⁹ Most coloureds speak Afrikaans, whites speak both Afrikaans and English, and blacks speak predominantly Xhosa as a first language.

Figure 3.3: The Cape Metropolitan Area (lighter areas indicate urban development)



Source: <http://www.capetowncottage.com/Images/Maps/cape-peninsula.gif>.

Figure 3.4: The provinces of South Africa



Source: <http://www.banyantravel.com>.

3.3 Local and provincial government

South Africa is divided into nine provinces, and of these the Western Cape Province contains the Cape Peninsula (figure 3.4). Figure 3.5 shows how the provinces fit into the overall government structure.¹⁰⁰ Each province has a premier who, along with a number of members, compose the Executive Council of the province. Provinces can have their own laws and even their own constitution. They have jurisdiction over areas such as: agriculture, environment, nature conservation, regional planning and development, and urban and rural development.

Before the first democratic local government elections in 1996, there were 39 local authorities and 19 separate administrations responsible for governing metropolitan Cape Town.¹⁰¹ These were replaced by a two-tiered system with six local councils and a metropolitan council. In December 2000, a single Unicity Council, called the City of Cape Town, replaced all seven councils, in accordance with the Municipal Structures Act 1998.

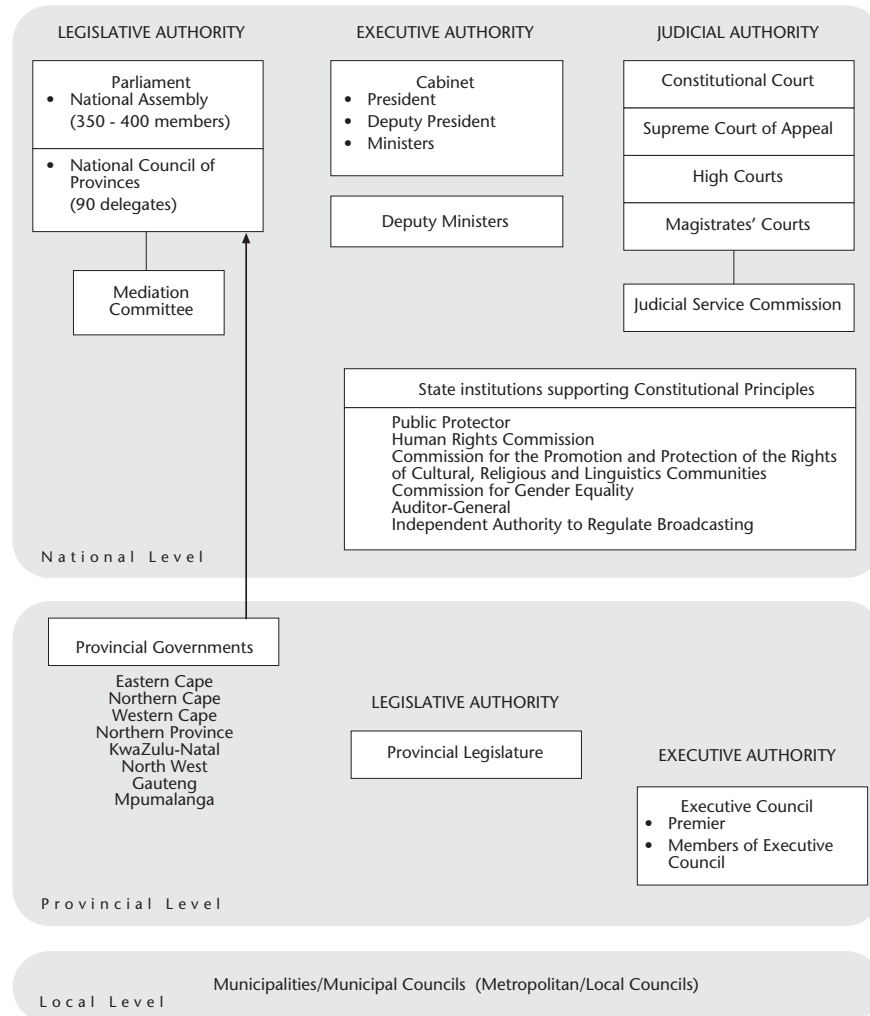
3.4 Process of establishing the Cape Peninsula National Park

The need for a National Park on the Cape Peninsula was recognised as early as 1929, by the Wildlife Society of South Africa.¹⁰² Before 1989, the protected areas on Cape Peninsula consisted of three nature reserves - Cape of Good Hope, Silvermine and Table Mountain.¹⁰³ The Cape Peninsula Protected Natural Environment (hereafter referred to as 'Cape Peninsula PNE') was established in 1989,¹⁰⁴ following extensive efforts to secure protection for additional natural areas on the Peninsula (figure 3.6). The Cape Peninsula PNE was established in terms of the Environment Conservation Act 1989¹⁰⁵ and the powers of the national Minister of the Environment have been delegated to the Provincial Member of the Executive Council for the Environment.¹⁰⁶ Sixty percent (29,000 hectares)¹⁰⁷ of the Cape Peninsula was designated to the Cape Peninsula PNE. This

designation gives the area some protection from development, requires that a permit be obtained from the Premier of the Western Cape before a structure can be built or altered, or a property subdivided, and is in addition to any permission needed from the local authority.¹⁰⁸

The Cape Peninsula PNE was composed of privately owned land, and land owned by central and provincial government, the municipality of Cape Town, a state-owned forestry company, the National Botanical Institute, and the South African National Defence Force, along with some private nature reserves that had been proclaimed by landowners.¹⁰⁹ The majority of the land was publicly owned (80 percent), and the remaining 20 percent was divided amongst over 150 private landowners.¹¹⁰

There were problems with coordinating the management of the Cape Peninsula PNE, because of the multiple land ownership of the area.¹¹¹ In 1993, a study was carried out by the Environmental Evaluation Unit of the University of Cape Town, to provide guidance for how the Cape Peninsula PNE should be managed.¹¹² This study recommended that South Africa National Parks (SANParks) be given the responsibility for managing this area. The recommendation was approved,¹¹³ and the Cape Peninsula National Park was subsequently established in 1998, following negotiations between SANParks and public authorities that held land in the Cape Peninsula PNE. At this time, 16,000 hectares of public and private land was proclaimed as the CP National Park.¹¹⁴ Now, over 70 percent (22,000 hectares) of the Cape Peninsula PNE is controlled by SANParks.¹¹⁵ About three-quarters of the land in the Cape Peninsula PNE that is not yet part of the CP National Park is privately owned.¹¹⁶ SANParks aim to incorporate as much of the Cape Peninsula PNE as possible into the CP National Park (figure 3.7 shows the relationship between these two areas). Figure 3.8 shows the current proportion of land ownership and management within the Cape Peninsula PNE.

Figure 3.5: Structure of South African Government

Source: <http://www.gov.za/structure/diagram.htm>.

Figure 3.6: The Cape Peninsula Protected Natural Environment

Source: Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnp.co.za>.

Figure 3.7. The CP National Park (dark) and the Cape Peninsula PNE (shaded), in relation to urban areas



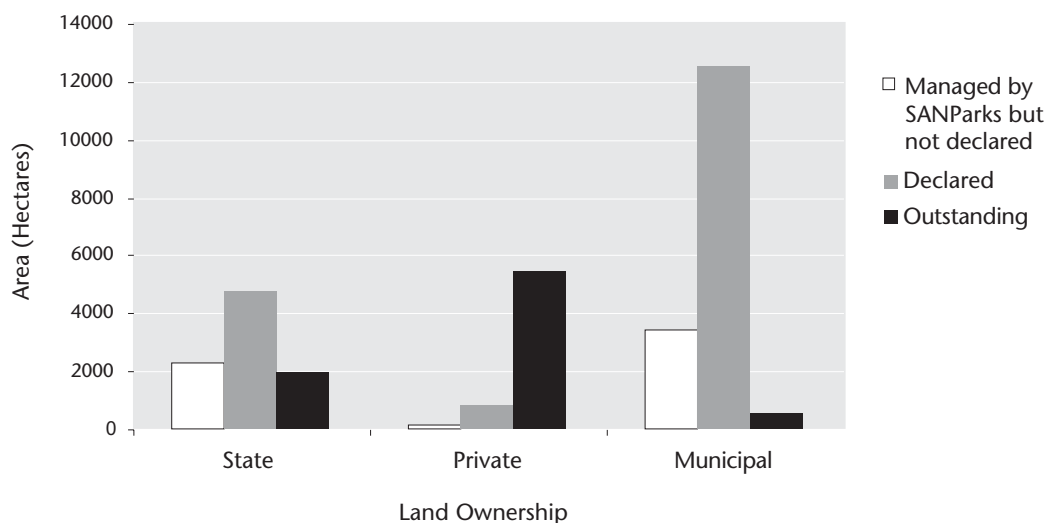
Source: Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001a. *Conservation Development Framework for the Cape Peninsula National Park*.

SANParks does not have control over development outside of the declared area of the Park. Thus, CP National Park management are conducting a concerted campaign at getting land into the Park by purchase or by contractual management agreements (see section 3.6). When a property has

development rights the purchase price is often beyond their means, so instead the CP National Park management attempt to control any development occurring on the property. However, the Cape Peninsula PNE has proved ineffective in controlling development on the Cape Peninsula.¹¹⁷ This is because in some cases developers have been able to get around the development restrictions in the Cape Peninsula PNE, by first obtaining subdivisional rezoning for which a permit is not required from Cape Town City Council, and then applying to the provincial administration of the Western Cape who administer the Cape Peninsula PNE for a permit to implement the subdivision.¹¹⁸ If the Cape Peninsula PNE permit is declined, the applicant can apply to the courts for compensation, so rather than decline an application for a permit the provincial government has historically issued permits that place conditions and restrictions on developments. However, a recent court judgement ruled that such permits are ultra vires. This has effectively invalidated the Cape Peninsula PNE as a means of managing development.¹¹⁹

The CP National Park Committee is appointed by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, and is made up of politicians and non-government organisations. The Committee gives policy advice to the CP National Park management.¹²⁰ Community groups are consulted during the planning process, and can participate in a volunteer programme, but are not involved in the daily management decisions.¹²¹

A long-term strategy for biodiversity conservation for the whole Cape Floral Kingdom, known as the Cape Action Plan for the Environment (CAPE) has been developed, and is described in more detail in box 3.1.

Figure 3.8: Land management within the Cape Peninsula Protected Natural Environment

Source: P. Britton. 2002. *Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park*, pers. comm.

Box 3.1: Cape Action Plan for the Environment

The Cape Action Plan for the Environment was developed over a two-year period beginning in 1998, with the intention of developing a long-term strategy for biodiversity conservation for the Cape Floral Kingdom.¹²⁸ The project has been possible because of the contribution from the Global Environmental Facility, and is managed by the South African branch of the World Wide Fund for Nature (see their website at www.panda.org.za for more details).¹²⁹

The main aims of the project were to:¹³⁰

- Identify conservation priorities, based on assessments of biodiversity and threats.
- Develop a long-term strategy and vision for biodiversity conservation in the Cape Floral Kingdom.
- Draft a five-year action plan and investment programme to address conservation priorities.
- Identify potential sources of funding for these activities.

The main outputs of CAPE are a strategy, and an action plan. The strategy has three components: conserving biodiversity; promoting sustainable use; and strengthening institutions. Specific objectives for the first component are “to establish an effective reserve network, enhance off-reserve conservation, and support bio-regional planning”.¹³¹ A portfolio of projects has been developed to fulfil these objectives.¹³² The action plan integrates the components of the strategy, and identifies priorities.

3.4.1 Funding of the Cape Peninsula National Park

Following the political changes in South Africa after the first democratic elections of 1994 at the end of the apartheid era, fewer funds have been available for conservation because of priority being given to social and economic development spending.¹²² Therefore the Park must look for funding other than that allocated by the State to provide the annual operating cost of 40 million South African Rand (approximately NZ\$8.7 million¹²³).

Funding has been obtained to cover the first six years of operation of the CP National Park.¹²⁴ This funding has come from the councils who formerly owned the public land incorporated into the Park, the Global Environmental Facility (GEF),¹²⁵ and Fonds Français pour l'Environnement Mondial (FFEM), a French funding agency. Income is also obtained from admission fees to selected areas of the Park, from harvesting of pine plantations, from companies who lease park land, and from companies using the Park for product launches and commercial filming.

The Government's 'Working for Water' programme gives funding on an ad hoc basis for projects to clear alien vegetation, using local disadvantaged communities.¹²⁶ The Table Mountain Fund, a biodiversity conservation trust administered by the South African branch of the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF-SA), the CP National Park and the Park Committee, generates annual interest, which is used to fund projects on the Cape Peninsula, as well as in other areas of the Cape Floral Kingdom.

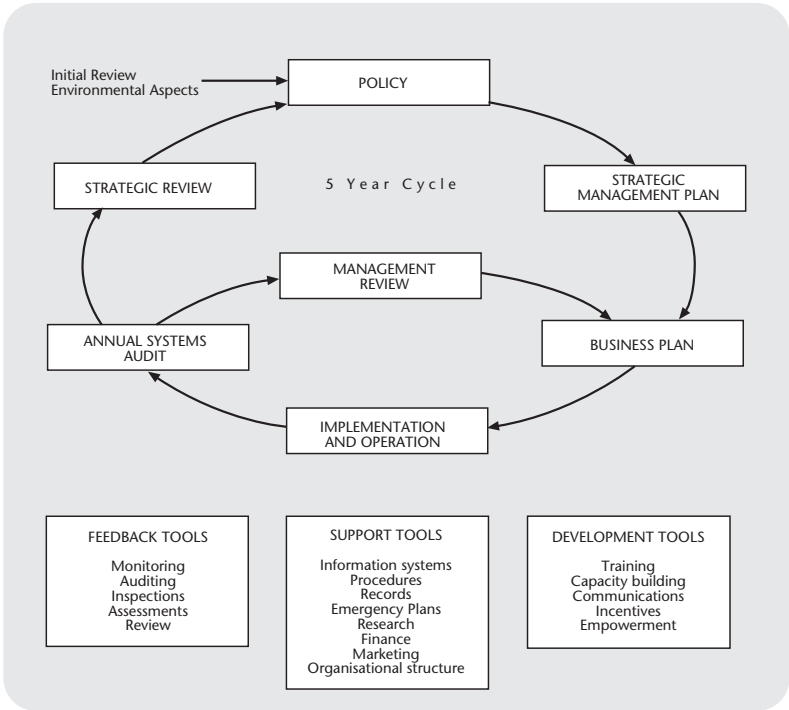
A recent proposal suggested that an annual entry card (called a 'Go Green' card), for which a fee is paid, and that is currently required for admission to specific sites in the park, be made compulsory for all park users. The attempt to introduce a compulsory card for access was rejected by the CP National Park Committee, but a marketing campaign will be launched to encourage as many people as possible to acquire the card, which is to be expanded to give discounts to card holders for selected attractions and facilities on the Cape Peninsula, and free access to other national parks in the Western Cape.¹²⁷

3.5 Planning documents for Cape Peninsula National Park

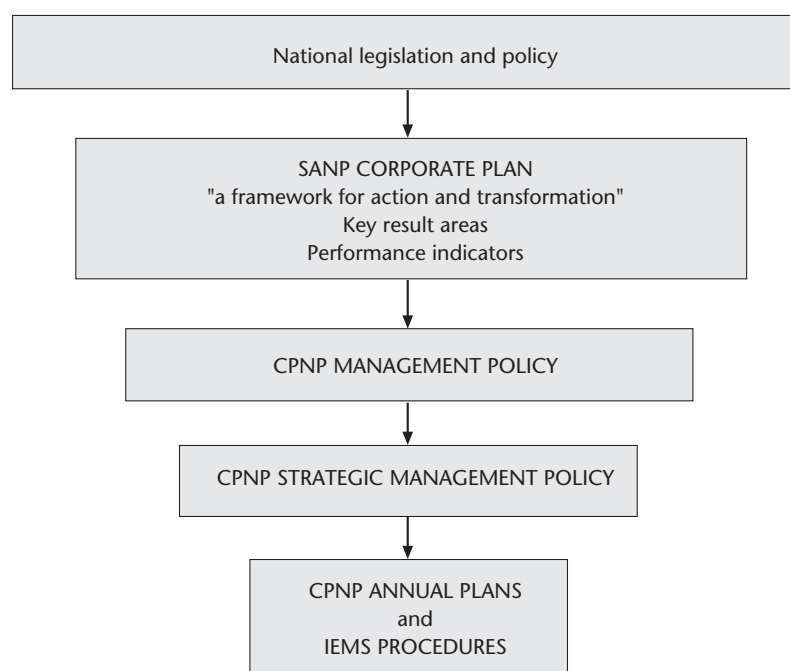
3.5.1 Integrated Environmental Management System

The Integrated Environmental Management System (IEMS) is defined as "[a] systematic approach to dealing with the management aspects of the [CP National Park] to plan proactively for the future and to control the impact of its activities, products or services on the

Figure 3.9: Structure of Integrated Environmental Management System



Source: Cape Peninsula National Park. 1999. Management Policy.

Figure 3.10: Relationship of Integrated Environmental Management System products

Source: Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001b. *Strategic Management Plan*.

environment”.¹³³ The objectives and implementation of this approach are outlined in the National Environmental Management Act 1998.¹³⁴ The process has multiple stages, starting with an Initial Environmental Review, which is followed by the development of a Management Policy, a Strategic Management Plan, and the procedure for implementing the Strategic Management Plan (figure 3.9).

The development of the Management Policy and the Strategic Management Plan are important steps in this iterative process.¹³⁵ Both of these documents will be reviewed every five years, and there is an annual review of the management, systems, and business plans. Figure 3.10 shows the relationship of the IEMS products. The main planning documents for the CP National Park are listed in table 3.1.

3.5.1.1 Management policy

The CPNP Management Policy provides an overarching framework for Park management, and

guides the development of the Strategic Management Plan, annual plans and management procedures.¹³⁶ It defines a vision, principles, goals and objectives for the management of the Park. It defines the course of action to achieve the well-being of the ecological, economic and social environment of the Park.

3.5.1.2 Strategic management plan

The CPNP Strategic Management Plan prioritises the goals and objectives as identified in the Management Policy, and outlines the focus for the Park management team for the next five years.¹³⁷ Key result areas, which are strategic priorities for the Park management, are identified, along with strategies for achieving these, but details of specific activities are not included. There are 12 key result areas, including Park establishment, proactive conservation planning and development, cultural heritage resource management, community partnerships and benefits and financial sustainability. For each key



result area the following are specified: strategies; actions; deliverables; indicators; time frame; and implementing department.

One of the required strategies is to “establish and maintain a GIS-based database of Park information to facilitate strategic and operational decision making”.¹³⁸ The CP National Park managers make use of custom-designed Geographic Information System (GIS) tools to inform their decisions.¹³⁹

Table 3.1: Planning documents for CP National Park

Integrated Environmental Management System <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Management Policy - December 1999• Strategic Management Plan 2000-2004 - August 2001
Conservation Development Framework (CDF) <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Conservation Development Framework - March 2001
CDF supporting documents <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Towards a Conservation Development Framework - June 2000• Towards a CDF Comments and Responses Report - August 2000• Draft Conservation Development Framework - November 2000• CDF Comments Report - January 2001• Supporting Maps
Other documents <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Strategy for Private Land Consolidation - December 2001• Environmental Management Plan for Mountain Cycling in the CPNP - January 2002• Environmental Management Plan for Walkers accompanied by Dogs in the CPNP - May 2002• Cape Peninsula Marine Park Proposal - February 2001• Development proposals for specific sites

3.5.2 Conservation Development Framework

The Conservation Development Framework (CDF) is an outcome of the Integrated Environmental Management System developed for the CP National Park by SANParks.¹⁴⁰ The production of this document was a requirement of the Management Policy. The CDF focuses on spatial land-use considerations. The three main components of the CDF are use zones, managing the park-city interface and managing visitor sites.

The CDF has been prepared in line with the principles and policies of the Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework, in particular with its Urban Edge and Metropolitan Open Space System components, which are discussed in more detail in section 3.7.2. The current land-use plans for the Cape Peninsula were prepared before the establishment of the CP National Park, so the CDF will assist with the review and updating of these plans, and with guiding land-use management in the park-city interface. The CDF has been useful to Cape Town City Council staff in terms of signalling where development should and should not occur.¹⁴¹

3.5.2.1 Use zones

The Cape Peninsula PNE has been divided into four defined use zones, each of which is characterised by its tolerance to change and carrying capacity, and the quality of human experience desired in that zone. The four zones are:

- Remote Zones.
- Quiet Zones.
- Low Intensity Leisure Zones.
- High Intensity Leisure Zones.

The use zone mapping was developed from two studies, which were carried out in 1994 by the Environmental Evaluation Unit of the University of Cape Town and in 1996, by a private planning consultancy, and the South African Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). The recommendations of the 1994 study led to the

decision that desirable human use of an area in the Cape Peninsula PNE should be determined by the management objectives of that area. The 1996 study followed up on this by demarcating the Cape Peninsula PNE into use zones. Originally, the zones covered only areas within the Cape Peninsula PNE, including publicly and privately owned land, but this was later extended to include surrounding urban and agricultural areas (see section 3.5.2.2).

The Remote Zones are the core natural areas of the Cape Peninsula, making up the majority of the Park. In these areas conservation priorities take precedence over human activities. These zones have been the least modified by humans. The activities allowed should not detract from the remoteness of the environment, and access will usually be on foot. No new permanent structures should be erected in these zones, and no new development rights should be granted.

Quiet Zones have been more modified than Remote Zones, but are still essentially places of quietness and naturalness. Often, this zone will be the interface or buffer between built and natural environments. The priority for management of these areas, as for the Remote Zones, is to retain the natural and undisturbed qualities of the area. This zone is substantially smaller than the Remote Zone. A very restrictive policy on new developments in this zone is recommended. Only limited and appropriate development that does not detract from the natural and cultural qualities of the landscape should be considered in suitable localities, and this should follow a participatory Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA)¹⁴² and Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA)¹⁴³ process.

Low Intensity Leisure Zones are more highly modified than Remote and Quiet Zones, and are to be utilised for a greater range of leisure and recreational activities so as to reduce the pressure on the more sensitive Remote and Quiet Zones. Activities should remain in keeping with the biophysical, cultural, and scenic attributes of the area. Some limited, appropriate development that

is related to tourism, recreation, and management of the Park, should be allowed in these areas.

High Intensity Leisure Zones have a similar function to the Low Intensity Leisure Zones, but human activity is more concentrated. These areas will generally have vehicle access, and act as a gateway to other use zones. These areas are very highly modified, but should still reflect the ethos and character of the Park. Therefore large-scale tourist facilities are not preferred in these areas, but should instead remain in urban areas.

Because the CDF is not a legally enforceable document, these zones are not regulations, but give guidance to the controlling agency (either Park management or the Cape Town City Council), or the private landowner, as to what management approach is suitable for each zone. The CP National Park management believe the use zones have been useful for them for discouraging proposals for development.¹⁴⁴

3.5.2.2 Managing the park-city interface

The use zones were later extended beyond the Cape Peninsula PNE to the urban edge boundary (see figure 3.7), and this required the introduction of four new zones to incorporate functional areas outside the Cape Peninsula PNE which are:

- Farming.
- Peri-urban.
- Urban.
- Urban conservation village.¹⁴⁵

Draft management guidelines for each zone are defined, outlining for each: management objective; principle/guideline; management mechanism; action/programme required; and responsible party. These zones were proposed with the purpose of focusing attention on how the park-city interface should be managed. However, Paul Britton from CP National Park¹⁴⁶ feels that attempts to maintain a particular land use in an area are subject to change by political decisions. He feels that landscape areas needing protection must be added to the Park in order to ensure they are protected.

3.5.2.3 Managing visitor sites and access

A survey of people visiting the CP National Park showed that a few sites are the main focus of Park usage.¹⁴⁷ For the purpose of visitor management, these sites have been classified using the following criteria:

- Scale of patronage - divided into high volume (more than 100,000 visits per annum), medium volume (between 35,000 and 100,000 visits per annum) and low volume (less than 35,000 visits per site).
- Role of the site - these were assessed, in terms of current and future roles, into the following categories: destinations; transit; leisure; and mixed use.
- Entry point - sites serving as entry points to the Park. These include all transit sites and many mixed-use sites.
- Ecological and cultural characteristics - ecological sensitivity of sites has been rated, and a note is made of sites forming part of a cultural precinct.
- Patrons - all sites were assessed as to whether predominant use of the site is by tourists, locals or both.

These criteria were then applied to assess the current and prospective role of each site, and used as indicators of limits of acceptable change.

Development of new visitor sites is not viewed as appropriate for the CP National Park. Each site was given a priority rating, and a management action, such as noting the need to upgrade facilities at the site.

3.5.2.4 Cape Peninsula Biosphere Reserve - an option for the future

The Biosphere Reserve approach (see appendix 2D) was considered as a possible management model for the CP National Park.¹⁴⁸ Biosphere Reserves are composed of a core, buffer and transition zones, and these zones are similar to the Use Zones defined in the CDF. This means the transition to a Biosphere Reserve approach would have been partly achieved. However, it was decided not to pursue this option for three main reasons: the

approach had yet to be applied to an urban context; a new management approach at this early stage of the CP National Park's establishment could be disruptive; and Biosphere Reserves are a new concept, which are still not widely understood, so this could add to public confusion over the many environmental initiatives currently underway.

3.6 Process of acquiring private land to incorporate into the Park

In January 2000, severe fires burnt over 8,000 hectares of the Table Mountain chain on the Cape Peninsula, including at least 15 percent of the Cape Peninsula PNE. The incident raised awareness of the importance of controlling alien plant species and managing the threat from fires.^{149, 150} This resulted in national, provincial, and local government, and business, community, and NGO interest groups working together to establish the Ukuvuka Operation Firestop Campaign (Ukuvuka is a Xhosa word meaning 'to wake up'). The campaign endorses incorporation of land into the CP National Park as being the best approach for managing land in the Cape Peninsula PNE, and has been contributing to the programme for consolidating privately owned conservation-worthy land into the CP National Park. Previously, the focus has been on consolidating publicly owned land, because the negotiations tend to be more straightforward.

In December 2001, the CP National Park released the document *Managing the CPPNE: A strategy for private land consolidation*, which outlined the consolidation process for private land. Part of this process involved the appointment of a Land Negotiator, who works directly with landowners to inform them about the consolidation process, and works out an agreement regarding various options for CP National Park to be involved in the management of their land.¹⁵¹

Several options are used for managing private land in the Cape Peninsula PNE. Full contracting-in of the land means that CP National Park takes over

full environmental management for all or part of the property, while the owner retains their right to access and occupy the land. Other methods of land acquisition are land donation, purchase, expropriation (for exceptional circumstances such as deceased estate with no apparent heirs) and cooperative management arrangements.

Various incentives are offered to landowners to encourage them to 'contract' their land into the CP National Park. Reducing the cost of land ownership is not always the motivation, because some landowners are more interested in seeing their land conserved.¹⁵² The incentives offered can include:

- the CP National Park taking over responsibility for alien vegetation clearing and fire management, both of which are expensive to the landowner and a legal requirement
- rates relief
- access to SANParks specialists (for example, botanists, zoologists)
- assistance with the process for developing land not managed by the Park

- erosion control, footpath maintenance and law enforcement by Park staff
- free 'Go Green' card (see section 3.4.1).

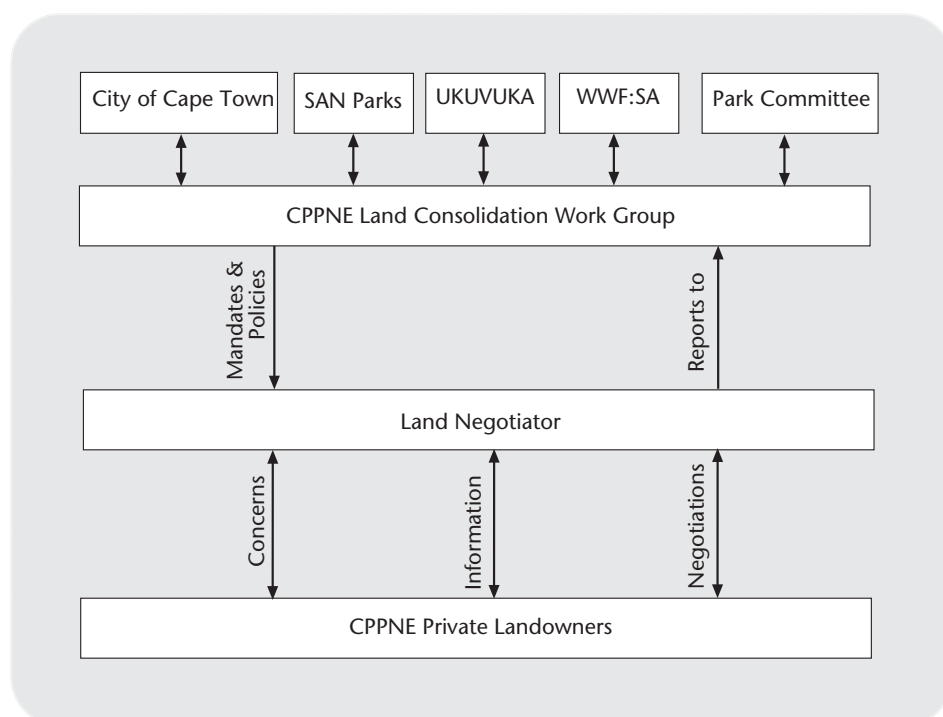
The negotiation process is managed by the Land Negotiator, who is guided by the Private Land Consolidation Working Group. Figure 3.11 shows the reporting relationships between all agencies involved in the land consolidation process. This programme is still in its early stages, and as figure 3.8 shows, there is still a large proportion of privately owned land in the Cape Peninsula PNE that is not managed by the Park, so it is too soon to assess its success.

3.7 Relevant planning documents for Cape Town Metropolitan Area

3.7.1 Integrated Metropolitan Environmental Policy

The Integrated Metropolitan Environmental Policy (IMEP) is the basis for an environmental management strategy for the City of Cape Town.¹⁵³ This policy is concerned not just with the natural environment and conservation issues but

Figure 3.11: How the agencies involved in the land consolidation process report to each other



Source: Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001c. *Managing the CPPNE: A strategy for private land*.

also with built, cultural and socio-economic factors. It contains a vision for Cape Town for the year 2020, and there is a focus on sustainable development and how this can be achieved.

3.7.2 Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework

The Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework (MSDF) was developed to guide the form and location of development in the Cape Metropolitan Area, and aims to intensify and integrate development, and contain sprawl. The four basic structuring elements of the spatial framework are: Metropolitan Urban Nodes; Metropolitan Activity Corridors (defined as a metropolitan-scale linear zone or area along major transport routes); a Metropolitan Open Space System; and Urban Edges.¹⁵⁴

The Urban Edge study aimed to define cadastrally an urban edge line that indicated the maximum permitted extent of urban development for the next 20 years, and proposed management policies and strategies for the land on either side of the line.¹⁵⁵ Management zones have been created for the areas adjoining the urban edge line. The Urban Transition Zone is an area inside the Urban Edge, where development will be controlled in order to protect the urban edge line. Aspects covered by the recommended policy proposals for this zone include open space linkages, fire protection and scenic quality. The Non-Urban Zone is the area beyond the urban edge line, for which policies are given for non-urban use. Policies proposed for this zone cover aspects such as rehabilitation, agriculture and forestry.

The Metropolitan Open Space System (MOSS) is an interconnected network of open space, and excludes areas outside the Urban Edge. Two stages of this project have been completed: establishing the process for identifying MOSS,¹⁵⁶ and the mapping of MOSS areas that should remain as open space.¹⁵⁷ Phase three of the project, which is currently underway, involves investigating management guidelines for MOSS.

3.8 Managing pressure in and around the Cape Peninsula National Park

Two major management issues for the CP National Park are invasive alien plants, and fire. Both issues relate to how land at the Park boundary is managed, and, additionally, the alien plant species contribute to the fire problem, because they are often highly combustible.¹⁵⁸ Park planners participate actively in local and regional planning, in order to reduce urban development on the Park boundaries, although to control development in the long term SANParks aims to incorporate as much land as possible into the Park.¹⁵⁹

There is a high demand for sites on the urban edge of the CP National Park, especially those with an exceptional view.¹⁶⁰ Such developments impact on the wilderness character and aesthetic appeal of the Park, as well as creating edge-effect problems, such as fires and invasive weeds, as mentioned above. A recent controversial proposal was for a new residential development on a four-kilometre stretch of privately owned land along the coast near Oudekraal, which is near Cape Town. The area has both environmental and religious value.¹⁶¹ The land was not part of the Cape Peninsula PNE, because the landowner had made a submission for it to be excluded during the establishment of the Cape Peninsula PNE.¹⁶² There was public opposition to the development, which led the Council to seek legal advice. The Council were advised that the township development rights for the area were invalid, and turned down the landowner's application. This position was confirmed by the Cape High Court after the landowner took the application to court. However, if the development rights had been valid the development would probably have gone ahead despite the public opposition. There are similar cases occurring in other areas on a smaller scale and, often, land without development rights is purchased speculatively in the hope that rights might be obtained.¹⁶³ This example suggests that the current development controls for areas outside the CP National Park have difficulty adequately controlling large-scale urban development in

sensitive areas.

There are high levels of unemployment and poverty in the Cape Metropolitan Area, which has created problems with squatters in the CP National Park.¹⁶⁴ Once these settlements are established, they are difficult to remove, because the law requires that illegal occupants can only be removed if an alternative site can be provided for them. The use of cooking fires by the squatters also contributes to the risk of wild fires. Informal settlements on the Park boundaries are expanding into the Park, which increases the risk of fire and the exploitation of natural resources. The Park is readily accessible, so informal use is very high, and often involves unauthorised use of resources by poverty-stricken people living near the protected areas. The Park has established partnerships with these communities to assist them with improving their circumstances, such as with the provision of contract work, skills training, and provision of informal trading opportunities at gateways.¹⁶⁵

Tourism pressure is also a major challenge to the management of the CP National Park.¹⁶⁶ More than half of the international tourists visiting South Africa go there (830,000 in 1999),¹⁶⁷ and it contains four of South Africa's top ten tourist attractions. Domestic visitor numbers exceed international tourists (3.8 million in 1999).¹⁶⁸ The Park policy for managing visitors is to channel visitor movement using formalised access areas, rather than control the number of visitors.¹⁶⁹

3.9 Social ecology approach to conservation used by SANParks

Since the democratic elections of 1994, SANParks has had major changes to its philosophy, policy, and organisation structure, in order to reflect the new political, economic and social realities of South Africa.¹⁷⁰ Previously, the approach used was for conservation areas to be established largely through enforcement and compulsory exclusion. The view was that people should be kept separate from conservation areas, and this served to create a rift between those living around the CP National Park, and those running the Park. This was

exacerbated by the fact that communities were often adversely affected by the establishment of new conservation areas, because of loss of land, loss of access to natural resources and, as a result, loss of economic opportunity. The new approach aims to recognise the need for parks to be linked with the local community, and for the community to be involved in the management of the parks.

SANParks has identified its core business as conservation, which "includes the management of biodiversity as well as the pursuit of social ecology - the long-neglected, but crucial people aspect in conservation".¹⁷¹ Ecological, cultural and socio-economic issues are recognised as critical to the management of national parks. This approach is focused mainly on disadvantaged communities that live near the parks. One of the main objectives of this approach is to give support to, and open up opportunities for, communities that have been dislocated and marginalised when the national parks were originally set up.

3.10 Process for Cape Peninsula to be declared a World Heritage site

The Cape Peninsula has been nominated as a World Heritage site, and the application for this is being prepared by the CP National Park. The possibility of including other areas within the Cape Floristic Region is also being considered. The nomination is, therefore, a two-step process:

- 1) The first phase, which was submitted in June 1999, addressed the areas to be considered, and provided detailed documentation for the Cape Peninsula as a key area.
- 2) The second phase is to provide detailed documentation for the remaining sites, which will be submitted by the Provincial Administration of the Western Cape.¹⁷²

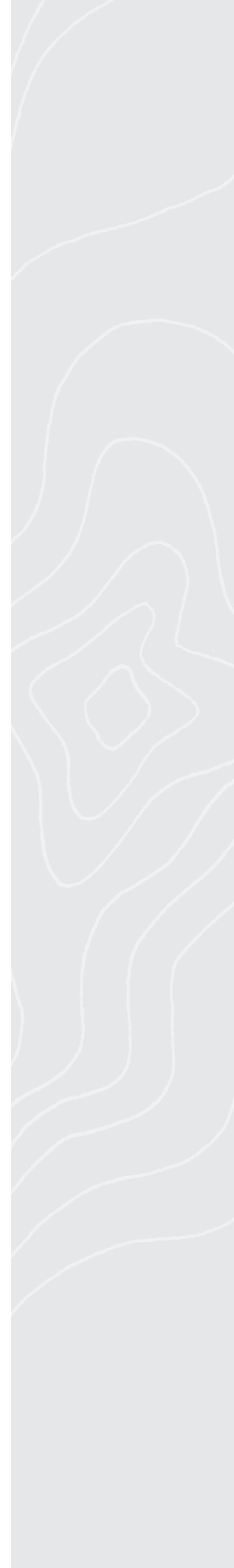
This application was favourably considered but was pending until the consolidation of public land on the Cape Peninsula had made significant progress.¹⁷³ The application will be resubmitted in 2003 as part of an application for the entire Cape Floral Kingdom, which will cover seven major sites.

3.11 Conclusion

The land management approach presented in this case study is based on protecting conservation values, which is mainly achieved by government management of the land. The main factor driving the need for protection on the Cape Peninsula is the high biodiversity and endemism of the flora and fauna. The area has a long history of human occupation, but only recently has the human population begun to increase rapidly, and is now the most significant threat to the natural environment. It has taken most of the last century to establish adequate protection of natural areas on the Cape Peninsula. The formation of the Cape Peninsula PNE identified the priority areas for protection, and as many of these areas as possible will be incorporated into the CP National Park. The need to secure future funding is a challenge remaining for the Park.

The Integrated Environmental Management System for the CP National Park provides a process for developing and reviewing plans for managing the Park. Within this system, the Conservation Development Framework provides guidance on what uses are appropriate for defined zones both within the Park, and in the areas outside the Park up to the urban edge boundary. Because most of the publicly owned land has now been incorporated into the Park, the focus now is to acquire or manage as much as possible of the private land within the Cape Peninsula PNE. This is especially important because of the need to control fires and invasive weeds adequately, and is achieved by the Park having a contract with the landowner that gives the Park control of the environmental management. This approach is preferred to regulation, because of concerns about the possible effects of future political decisions on land management. Squatters and unauthorised use of resources are a regular problem in the Park, because of high levels of poverty and unemployment in the Cape Metropolitan Area. The Park management are attempting to work with local communities to provide opportunities

for them to improve their circumstances. The long-term future of the Park is still uncertain, but the approaches described here are important steps towards ensuring the uniqueness of the Cape Peninsula will be preserved.



List of abbreviations and acronyms

CAPE	Cape Action Plan for the Environment
CP National Park or CPNP	Cape Peninsula National Park
Cape Peninsula PNE or CPPNE	Cape Peninsula Protected Natural Environment
CDF	Conservation Development Framework
CSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
FFEM	Fonds Français pour l'Environnement Mondial
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GIS	Geographic Information System
HIA	Heritage Impact Assessment
IEMS	Integrated Environmental Management System
IMEP	Integrated Metropolitan Environmental Policy
MOSS	Metropolitan Open Space System
MSDF	Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework
SANParks or SANP	South Africa National Parks
WWF-SA	World Wide Fund for Nature (South African branch)

Useful websites

Cape Peninsula National Park
www.cpnnp.co.za

South Africa National Parks
www.parks-sa.co.za

City of Cape Town (Cape Town Council)
www.capetown.gov.za

Provincial Government of the Western Cape
www.westerncape.gov.za

Cape Nature Conservation
www.capenature.org.za

South African Government Online
www.gov.za

South African Acts Online
www.acts.co.za

Scenic photos of the Cape Peninsula and Cape Town area
www.capetownskies.com

⁸⁷ From the South Africa National Parks website: <http://www.parks-sa.co.za/parks/CapePeninsula/default.htm>.

⁸⁸ From worldtravelguide.net website: <http://www.worldtouristattractions.travel-guides.com/attractions/tam/tam.asp>.

⁸⁹ The website <http://www.capetownskies.com> has many scenic photos of the Cape Peninsula and Cape Town area. These photos are by Gordon Richardson, who supplied the cover photo for the Cape Peninsula.

⁹⁰ Mountain fynbos (fine bush) is characterised by three main plant types or growth forms: the Cape reed or restiose grasses; the small-leafed, heath-like ericas; and the larger, leathery-leafed proteas. A large variety of bulbs, rhizomes and tubers form an important part of the fynbos group as well as many types of ground orchids. Source: <http://www.cpnnp.co.za/main.html>.

⁹¹ Younge, A. 2000. A biodiversity strategy and action plan for the Cape Floral Kingdom.

⁹² Trinder-Smith, T.H., *et. al.*, 1996. Profiling a besieged flora: endemic and threatened plants of the Cape Peninsula, South Africa.

⁹³ Cowling, R.M., *et. al.*, 1996. The Cape Peninsula, South Africa: physiological, biological and historical background to an extraordinary hot-spot of biodiversity.

⁹⁴ Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cpnnp.co.za/history.htm>.

⁹⁵ Cowling *et. al.*, 1996, *op. cit.*

⁹⁶ Cowling *et. al.*, 1996, *ibid.*

⁹⁷ Cape Metropolitan Tourism. 2000. Cape Town.

⁹⁸ Cowling *et. al.*, 1996, *op cit.*

⁹⁹ City of Cape Town website: www.capetown.gov.za/home/demographics.asp.

¹⁰⁰ For more information on the different levels of government see the South African Government website: <http://www.gov.za>.

¹⁰¹ Unicity Commission. 2000. *Discussion Document: Developing the future City of Cape Town*.

¹⁰² Pringle. 1982. Cited in van Wilgen, B.W., *et. al.*, 1996. Management of the natural ecosystems of the Cape Peninsula: current status and future proposals, p. 673.

¹⁰³ McNeely, J.A. 2001. Globally significant biodiversity within the city limits: the case of South Africa's Cape.

¹⁰⁴ Shroyer, M., *et. al.*, 1999. A wilderness in an urban setting: planning and management of the Cape Peninsula National Park, Cape Town, South Africa.

¹⁰⁵ Some South African Acts can be viewed online at the Acts Online website: <http://www.acts.co.za>.

¹⁰⁶ P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.

- 107 Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za>.
- 108 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 109 McNeely, 2001, *op. cit.*
- 110 van Wilgen, *et. al.*, 1996, *op. cit.*
- 111 van Wilgen, *et. al.*, 1996, *op. cit.*
- 112 Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001a. *Conservation Development Framework for the Cape Peninsula National Park*.
- 113 This recommendation was approved by the Huntley Committee (chaired by Professor Brian Huntley of the National Botanical Institute), which was appointed to implement the recommendations of the study. Source: Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001a, *ibid.*
- 114 Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za>.
- 115 Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za>.
- 116 Cape Peninsula National Park. 2001c. Managing the CPPNE: A strategy for private land consolidation.
- 117 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 118 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 119 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 120 Cape Peninsula National Park. 1999. *Management Policy*.
- 121 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 122 Younge, 2000, *op. cit.*
- 123 Using exchange rate as of 8 November 2002 from <http://www.currency.co.nz>.
- 124 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 125 The GEF is based in Washington DC. It provides funding to projects that protect the global environment and promote sustainable economic growth. To receive funds a country must be a party to the international Climate Change Convention or the Convention of Biological Diversity.
- 126 Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za/funding.htm>.
- 127 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002. More details on the 'Go Green' card are available from the Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za>.
- 128 Younge, 2000, *op. cit.*
- 129 Reports produced for the CAPE project are available from: <http://fred.csir.co.za/extra/cape/reports/reports.html>; http://www.panda.org.za/megaprojects_cape.htm.
- 130 Younge, 2000, *op. cit.*
- 131 Younge, 2000, *op. cit.*, p. 3.
- 132 Heydenrych, B.J., *et. al.*, 1999. Strategic conservation interventions in a region of high biodiversity and high vulnerability: a case study from the Agulhas Plain at the south tip of Africa. One of the plans being developed for the CAPE project is looking at the process of establishing protected areas on the Agulhas Plain, which is the southern-most tip of Africa, and where a National Park was established in 1999. This project focuses on improving the representation of lowland areas under conservation management, and involves partnerships between SANParks and private landowners.
- 133 Cape Peninsula National Park, 1999, *op. cit.*, p. 42.
- 134 Some South African Acts can be viewed online at the Acts Online website: <http://www.acts.co.za>.
- 135 Cape Peninsula National Park, 1999, *op. cit.*
- 136 Cape Peninsula National Park, 1999, *op. cit.*
- 137 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001b. *Strategic Management Plan*.
- 138 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001b, *op. cit.*, p. 22.
- 139 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 140 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 141 H. Davies, Environmental Management Department, City of Cape Town, pers. comm. 2002.
- 142 For more information see: http://www.capenature.org.za/Information_And_Education/html/enviro_manage.html.
- 143 See National Heritage Resources Act 1999, s38, at www.acts.co.za.
- 144 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 145 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 146 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 147 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 148 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 149 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001c, *op. cit.*
- 150 Recently, controlled burning has been undertaken in the CP National Park. This was necessary because alien vegetation has greatly increased the fuel load. Controlled burning is part of fire management in the Park, which is important both for the regeneration of the fynbos vegetation, and for the protection of property. For more information see the Report on Trappieskop Prescribed Burn - May 2002, available from: <http://www.cnpn.co.za/archive.html>. See also http://www.fire.uni-freiburg.de/iffn/iffn_22/content.htm, for more on the importance of fire management.
- 151 For more details on the land consolidation process see the Cape Peninsula National Park newsletter, Park News, Issue 7, October 2002 at: <http://www.cnpn.co.za/parknews7pg1.html>.
- 152 From interview, Jan Roux, Land Negotiator, Park News, Issue 7, October 2002: <http://www.cnpn.co.za/parknews7pg4.html>.
- 153 City of Cape Town. 2001b. *The Environmental Policy of the City of Cape Town*.
- 154 Documents regarding the Metropolitan Open Space System and Urban Edge Study were provided by Kier Hennessy, from the City of Cape Town Spatial Planning Department.
- 155 City of Cape Town. 2001a. *Peninsula Urban Edge Report*.
- 156 City of Cape Town. 2000. *Defining and Mapping MOSS in the CMA: Phase One*.
- 157 City of Cape Town. 2001c. *CMOSS Phase II: Mapping: Pilot Project Summary Report*.
- 158 McNeely, 2001, *op. cit.*
- 159 Shroyer, *et. al.*, 1999, *op. cit.*
- 160 Shroyer, *et. al.*, 1999, *op. cit.*
- 161 This was because of the presence of Muslim graves and kramats (shrines) on the site. Source: http://www.parks-sa.co.za/news/media_releases/2002/oudekraalhtm.htm.
- 162 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 163 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.
- 164 Shroyer *et al.*, 1999, *op. cit.*
- 165 For more details see: www.cnpn.co.za/community.htm.
- 166 McNeely, 2001, *op. cit.*
- 167 Cape Metropolitan Tourism, 2000, *op. cit.*
- 168 Cape Metropolitan Tourism, 2000, *op. cit.*
- 169 Cape Peninsula National Park, 2001a, *op. cit.*
- 170 South Africa National Parks website: <http://www.parks-sa.co.za/frames.asp?mainurl=conservation/intro.html>.
- 171 South Africa National Parks website: <http://www.parks-sa.co.za>.
- 172 Cape Peninsula National Park website: <http://www.cnpn.co.za>.
- 173 P. Britton, Manager Planning, Cape Peninsula National Park, pers. comm. 2002.