PredSA Chapter 5

- Scientific Assessment on Livestock Predation in South Africa
 CHAPTER 5
 LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF LIVESTOCK PREDATOR IMPACTS
 Lead authors: Marius Diemont and Prof. Jan Glazewski
- 7 Author: Delsey Fahlaza Monaledi

8 SUMMARY

9 Damage caused by predators to livestock affects both commercial farmers carrying large 10 numbers of livestock as well as small-scale and subsistence livestock farmers on communal land. 11 Predation is one of the biggest challenges faced by farmers with livestock losses posing a 12 significant threat to the economic survival of many new and emerging farmers¹ and is one of the 13 reasons why farmers are moving away from livestock farming.²

This chapter outlines the rights of landowners to eliminate or control wild animals that cause
damage to livestock. The land could be communal land or privately owned land. The wild animals

16 could be predators that could occur naturally on such land (or neighbouring land) or predators

17 that have escaped from neighbouring land that is either privately owned land, communal land or

18 land which is a declared protected area.

19 There is no clear legal framework for the management and control of predators. Although there 20 is a plethora of national and provincial legislation and policies, much of this is conflicting and 21 outdated. The provincial nature conservation ordinances which applied in pre-1994 South Africa 22 to the four provinces of the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Orange Free State, Transvaal and to 23 Natal still apply in some of the nine new provinces.³ In addition, some of the nature conservation 24 ordinances of the former homelands continue to apply in some areas. To make matters more 25 confusing, the legislation varies between provinces.

The provincial nature conservation ordinances that were in place and operational well before the
advent of the "new" South Africa in 1994 must be seen against the backdrop of post-1994

¹ Wildlife Ranching SA; letter to the Director General, 9 December 2016

² Predation Management Manual; p.5

³ Nature Conservation Ordinances: Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape); Ordinance 8 of 1969 (Free State); Ordinance 12 of 1983 (Transvaal); Ordinance 15 of 1974 (Natal). The various previous homelands also had their own nature conservation laws, some of which still apply.

environmental legislation when national government became more proactive in its approach regarding the enactment of national environmental legislation. In point is the enactment of the framework National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998 (NEMA): the National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004 (Biodiversity Act) and the National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act 57 of 2003 (Protected Areas Act). In short there is thus an array of both provincial and national legislation relevant to the topic.

In an attempt to address the problems caused by predation on livestock and game, draft Norms and Standards for the Management of Damage-causing animals in South Africa⁴ (draft Norms and Standards) were published in November 2016 under the Biodiversity Act. However, because of the administratively burdensome procedures contained in the draft Norms and Standards, it is unlikely that this will be of much practical assistance to livestock famers if it is finalised as currently framed.

The outdated and conflicting legislation and overlapping administration of laws has exacerbated
the frustration of livestock farmers confronted by livestock predation. This has resulted in
livestock farmers taking matters into their own hands in an effort to minimise losses to livestock.

43 INTRODUCTION

44 The origins of nature conservation legislation can be traced back to the arrival of the colonial settlers at the Cape in the seventeenth century. In Jan Van Riebeeck's journal entry for 30 March 45 1654, he complained of steady losses of sheep: "many are carried away and devoured every day 46 by leopards, lions and jackal."⁵ Five *placaten* were promulgated within five years of Van 47 Riebeeck's arrival, in order to protect gardens, lands and trees from destruction.⁶ The 48 49 predecessors of today's provincial nature conservation ordinances have their roots in the respective ordinances which were promulgated shortly after the creation of the Union of South 50 51 Africa in 1910, when nature conservation was a matter of provincial competence within the four 52 provincial nature conservation departments. The current South African Constitution⁷ adapts this

⁴ Government Gazette No. 40412 dated 10 November 2016, under General Notice No. 749. This was to correct the publication of the unsigned General Notice No. 512 of 30 August 2016

⁵ Skead; CJ 2011; Historical mammal incidence of the larger land mammals in the Broader Western and Northern Cape; p.205

⁶ Rabie MA and Fuggle RF, "The Rise of Environmental Concern" in Fuggle RF and Rabie MA (eds), *Environmental Management in South Africa* (1992) p.13.

⁷ The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (cited hereafter as the Constitution).

historical status quo by designating "nature conservation" to be a matter of concurrent nationaland provincial competence.

55 Historically, the concept of nature conservation was construed narrowly by setting aside of 56 protected areas and the conservation of indigenous wild animals, plants and freshwater fish and which were regulated by provincial nature conservation ordinances.⁸ Today, however, it is 57 acknowledged that conservation includes concerns such as the conservation of biodiversity; the 58 59 maintenance of life-support systems; and the sustainable use of species and ecosystems, be it 60 consumptive or non-consumptive. Related to this trend is the modern emphasis on making conservation pay; a reaction to the decreasing capacity of government coffers to subsidise the 61 62 cost of managing protected areas. Legal and managerial mechanisms are being developed to 63 preserve our wildlife heritage while simultaneously ensuring that it generates income, either 64 directly (through harvesting) or indirectly (through tourism), particularly in the context of the need to redress the imbalances of South Africa's past. This is reflected in the establishment of 65 66 provincial statutory boards to manage wildlife resources in a more efficient financial manner in 67 their respective provinces. In addition, while nature conservation laws have been embedded in the statute book since 1910, the last two or three decades have seen the growth of a body of 68 69 laws around what can broadly be described as "environmental management".

Although animal anti-cruelty legislation has been enacted,⁹ this primarily is in regard to the treatment of domestic animals. There is now increasing pressure for the ethical treatment of both domestic and wild animals, raising interesting constitutional questions pertaining to animal rights.

With the adoption of a new Constitution in 1996, the four provinces became nine, and the former homelands, which had their own individual nature conservation laws, were simultaneously reincorporated into South Africa. As a result, each of the nine provinces now has (at least in theory) its own individual nature conservation law which subsumes any previous homeland legislation in its area and which governs nature conservation in that entire province. But, as detailed below, many of the provinces have not yet adopted their own new nature conservation laws and

⁸Rumsey, AB, "Terrestrial Wild Animals" in Fuggle RF and Rabie MA (eds), *Environmental Management in South Africa* (2nd Ed 2009).

⁹ Animals Protection Act 71 of 1962; the Performing Animals Protection Act 24 of 1935; and the Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act 169 of 1993.

continue to apply the respective old nature conservation ordinances as well as, in someprovinces, the respective former homeland nature conservation law.

A further complication is that since "environment," like "nature conservation", is a matter of concurrent national and provincial competence, many of the previous nature conservation authorities have now also been encumbered with administering environmental management laws without their having the capacity or expertise to do so.

Some of the new provinces, for example Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape, have put in place new, consolidated nature conservation laws,¹⁰ but other provinces have not done so. Some provinces have developed, or are in the process of developing, provincial environmental management laws, while other provinces still apply the nature conservation laws which applied in their respective areas prior to the advent of the new South Africa.

91 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

- 92 The regulation of wild animals in South Africa has three concurrent sources: international treaties93 and agreements, national legislation and provincial legislation.
- 94 The international dimension

95 International wildlife agencies

96 The primary international inter-governmental agencies dealing with international aspects of wildlife, are the United Nations Environment Programme (the UNEP) and the UN Commission on 97 98 Sustainable Development (the CSD), which are responsible for the formulation of the Principles 99 for Global Consensus on the Management, Conservation and Sustainable Development of All 100 Types of Forest (UNCED Forest Principles) and Agenda 21. The Food and Agriculture Organisation 101 of the United Nations (the FAO) is involved in the international aspects of forestry and plants, 102 while the UNEP is responsible for the adoption of many of the wildlife conventions discussed in 103 that chapter, to which South Africa is a party.

The most important international non-governmental organisation is the International Union for
 Conservation of Nature (the IUCN) formerly known as the World Conservation Union. It includes
 both governmental and non-governmental members, and plays an active and important role in

¹⁰ Mpumalanga Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1998; Mpumalanga Tourism and Parks Agency Act 5 of 2005.

developing treaties to protect wildlife and for the conservation of natural resources. In 1980 the
IUCN pioneered the 1980 World Conservation Strategy, along with the World Wide Fund for
Nature (the WWF) and the UNEP and hosted the World Parks Congress in Durban in 2003. It has
prepared the preliminary texts for a number of conventions which have been developed at later
negotiations; for example, the International Convention on the Conservation of Biological
Biodiversity (CBD). Other active NGOs in the field include Greenpeace, Friends of the Earth and
the WWF.

Important wildlife conventions which South Africa has adopted include the 1973 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) which imposes restrictions on the international trade in wildlife that are identified as requiring protection, and the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (the Bonn Convention);¹¹ and the CBD.

119 <u>The Southern African Development Community</u>

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) Treaty, a regional economic co-operation
agreement was entered into in 1992.

122 The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement of the Southern African 123 Development Community¹² aims to establish, within the framework of the respective national 124 laws of each State Party, common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife 125 resources and to assist with the effective enforcement of laws governing those resources.

The Protocol applies to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife, excluding forestry and fishery resources. Each State Party has to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources under its jurisdiction, and that activities within its jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the wildlife resources of other states or in areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.

In line with article 4 of the Protocol, appropriate policy, administrative and legal measures have
to be taken to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife and to enforce national
legislation pertaining to wildlife effectively. Co-operation among member states is envisaged to

¹¹ (1980) 19*ILM 11*.

¹² Para 2B.1.10.1.

manage shared wildlife resources as well as any trans-frontier effects of activities within theirjurisdiction or control.

The Protocol establishes the Wildlife Sector Technical Co-ordinating Unit; the Committee of
Ministers responsible for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources; the Committee of Senior
Officials and the Technical Committee. The Wildlife Conservation Fund is established by article
11.

140 The constitutional dimension

141

142 <u>Wildlife rights</u>

Although South Africa has one of the most liberal constitutions in the world, as well as a progressive Bill of Rights, the Constitution does not go so far as to extend rights to animals. Animal rights groups nevertheless campaigned vociferously for the inclusion of animal rights during the negotiating process for the Bill of Rights chapter in the Constitution. Rather than including animal rights, these demands could have been accommodated to some extent by incorporating a duty on people to treat animals humanely.

149 These ethical concerns have manifested both internationally and locally in concern for the 150 humane treatment, prevention of cruelty and the unnecessary killing of animals. Examples 151 include the parliamentary opposition to fox-hunting in England and the vociferous local public outcry against the inhumane treatment of the Tuli elephant.¹³ The relevant South African 152 153 legislation, namely the Animals Protection Act 71 of 1962; the Performing Animals Protection Act 154 24 of 1935; and the Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act 169 of 1993, was 155 developed primarily as a result of the concern for domestic rather than wild animals, covering 156 (for example) the treatment of dogs, but also includes wild animals within its ambit.

157 <u>The Bill of Rights and constitutional presumptions</u>

158 It is relevant to consider the possible impact of constitutional presumptions on criminal and civil

159 legal proceedings for wildlife predation with respect to the presumption of negligence. In *Prinsloo*

 [&]quot;Tuli Elephant" 53 (1) January/ February 1999) African Wildlife 15; 53 (2) (March/April 1999) African Wildlife 11; 53 (5) (September/October 1999) African Wildlife 18.

160 *v Van der Linde and Another*,¹⁴ concerning the now repealed Forest Act 122 of 1984,¹⁵ an action 161 was instituted for damages allegedly caused by the spread of a fire from the neighbouring 162 applicant's land. The land in question was situated outside a fire control area and the case 163 centred on the constitutionality of a provision of the repealed Forest Act, or the common law, 164 which presumed negligence unless the contrary was proved.

The Court found that the provisions of this section were not inconsistent with the Interim 165 Constitution¹⁶ and remitted the matter to the lower court to be dealt with. It should also be 166 noted that the section specifically provided that the presumption of negligence does not exempt 167 the plaintiff from the onus of proving that any act or omission by the defendant was wrongful.¹⁷It 168 169 must be borne in mind that this case concerned a presumption in civil law. The position in the 170 criminal law is different - an accused does not have the onus of proving his or her innocence. This means that in the context of offences committed in terms of environmental and nature 171 172 conservation legislation, the State authorities must prove the guilt of an accused beyond a 173 reasonable doubt in order to secure a conviction.

174 *The Constitution and the administration of nature conservation*

Nature conservation has historically fallen under the purview of the provinces. The Constitution respects this historical position by stipulating that "...nature conservation excluding national parks, national botanical gardens and marine resources" is a matter of concurrent national and provincial competence.¹⁸

The classification of wild animals that are not privately owned as *res nullius*, (owned by no-one), may be inconsistent with section 24(b) of the Constitution, as predators form part of the environment that must be protected for the benefit of present and future generations. As trustee of the environment for future generations, the State is obliged to conserve wild animals that are part of the public estate, and more specifically, in terms of the Protected Areas Act,¹⁹ obliged to conserve all wild animals occurring in protected areas. Namibia expunged the *res*

¹⁴ 1997 (6) BCLR 759 (CC).

¹⁵ S 84 of the Forest Act 122 of 1984 (repealed).

¹⁶ The Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 200 of 1993 (cited hereafter as the Interim Constitution).

¹⁷ S 34(2) of the Interim Constitution.

¹⁸ Sch 4 of the Constitution.

¹⁹ Section 17(c) of NEMPAA read with Section 3(a)

nullius category from its wildlife law by adopting Article 99 of its Constitution which states that all natural resources belong to the State unless otherwise owned by law. A similar approach may be appropriate for South Africa, which adopted would make it easier for livestock farmers to institute claims against the State for damage caused to livestock by wild animals. However, this would require an amendment to the Constitution which is a significant obstacle; alternatively legislation could possibly be put in place.

191 The common law

192 <u>The acquisition of ownership of wild animals</u>

193 The question of ownership of plants and trees is not an issue, as these are owned by the 194 landowner while they are rooted to the ground. However, the position is different with respect 195 to wild animals and birds, which move about freely. In South African common law, wild animals 196 are classified as res nullius meaning that they are owned by nobody but fall into the category of 197 objects which can be owned (res intra commercium). This contrasts with res extra commercium, 198 which are things incapable of private ownership, such as the sea and sea-shore. Two conditions 199 are necessary for ownership of a res nullius to be established; firstly that the occupier must take 200 control of the object (occupatio) and secondly this must be done with the intention of becoming 201 the owner (animus possidendi). By way of an example, if a fish inadvertently jumps into your 202 boat, you are not its owner until you control it with the intention to possess it.

203 In the past, it was often difficult to establish the degree of control necessary to establish 204 ownership of wild animals, particularly in the case of large farms through which wild animals 205 traversed. More specifically, the problem is to establish clearly the extent of physical control that 206 is necessary for the owner or occupier of land to become the owner of a wild animal. A second 207 and related question is: at what point does an established owner of a wild animal lose ownership 208 if it escapes? The ownership of wild animals has been considered in a number of reported cases.

209 In *Richter v Du Plooy*,²⁰ a farmer purchased a number of wildebeest and reared them by hand 210 before releasing them onto his large farm. Subsequently, two strayed onto a neighbouring farm 211 where they were shot. The alleged original "owner" instituted an action for damages against the 212 neighbour, but was unsuccessful. It was held that as soon as animals escape from detention, they 213 revert to being *res nullius* and are susceptible to *occupatio* by another. In the course of the

²⁰ 1921 OPD 117.

judgment, the judge alluded to the large size of the farm and implied that this had a bearing onthe juristic character of the wild animals, as they were relatively free.

The question of size of the land seemed to play a similar role in *Lamont v Heyns*,²¹ where blesbok 216 217 were confined to a much smaller encampment (300 morgen) and the perpetrator came onto the 218 land and shot a number of the animals. The plaintiff succeeded in claiming damages. The judge 219 appeared to take the size of the camp into account in determining that the necessary degree of 220 control existed to constitute ownership. However, the size of the farm should not have been 221 relevant, in view of the fact that the animals never left captivity. The general subsequent 222 approach of the courts was that the degree of physical control required depends on the facts of 223 each particular case.

Finally, in Langley v Miller,²² a case concerning the acquisition of ownership of wild animals in 224 225 common law heard during the previous century, the Court had to consider the question of who 226 was the owner of a res nullius, where a series of events, rather than one event, results in its capture. In this case, a whale had been harpooned by the crew of a boat and thereafter the crew 227 228 of another boat assisted in the killing. It was held that each person who contributed to the killing the animal was entitled to its proceeds. In R v Mafohla and Another, ²³ a hunter wounded a kudu, 229 but it was subsequently taken into possession by a number of others. In this case, it was held that 230 231 the mere wounding of an animal is not sufficient to transfer ownership by occupation and those 232 who had subsequently captured the wounded animal *prima facie* obtained ownership by 233 occupatio.

234 The Game Theft Act 105 of 1991

Under common law, as soon as physical control over a wild animal is lost, the animal ceases to
be owned by that person and reverts to its state of natural freedom, becoming *res nullius* again.
Consequently, if a wild animal escapes or is stolen, the original owner would lose any investment
made in acquiring the game. The common law position was changed by the Game Theft Act 105
of 1991 (Game Theft Act)²⁴ which provided that the loss of possession does not result in a loss of

²¹ 1938 TPD 22.

²² 1848 3 Menzies 584.

²³ 1958 (2) SA 373 (SR).

²⁴ The South African Law Commission considered the question of acquisition and loss of ownership of game and its recommendations lead to the enactment of the Game Theft Act.

ownership. However, this only applies to 'game' (which is defined as 'all game kept for
 commercial or hunting purposes'²⁵) and if the farm owner holds a valid certificate of enclosure
 issued by the Provincial authority.²⁶

243 The ownership of enclosed game which escapes was in the spotlight in the case of *Eastern Cape* 244 Parks and Tourism Agency v Medbury (Pty) Ltd t/a Crown River Safari and Another,²⁷ where a 245 herd of buffalo escaped from the Thomas Baines Nature reserve onto a neighbouring safari 246 company farm. Although it was contended that the buffalo was sufficiently enclosed in the nature 247 reserve, it did not hold the necessary certificate. Because the certificate had not been applied 248 for, it was contended that this actual proof of sufficient enclosure, as opposed to a mere 249 certificate, should be sufficient. It also argued that the common law should be developed to 250 provide that wild animals, which were sufficiently contained in a protected area managed by an 251 organ of state, were res publicae (state property) and therefore should afforded protection. 252 However, the court dismissed the action and also rejected the argument to extend the common 253 law. The court held that there was no basis to hold that the common law should be developed 254 to obtain *ex post facto* protection where no certificate had been obtained. The intention of the legislature was to limit protection against loss of ownership only to circumstances where a 255 256 certificate of sufficient enclosure had been issued. The certificate is a practical mechanism to 257 obviate the need for an investigation into the adequacy of fencing and to avoid unnecessary 258 disputes between landowners.

259 The common law position still applies to wild animals which are not "game" as defined in the 260 Game Theft Act, for example predators such as jackal, caracal and baboon or other wild animals 261 that wild animals that are not hunted for sport or food, or farmed commercially. Wild animals 262 which do fall within the definition of 'game' but which escape from private land to any other land 263 for which an enclosure certificate has been issued is enclosed becomes the property of that land 264 owner. If a wild animal kept for commercial or hunting purposes escapes from a farm that is not 265 enclosed or does not have an enclosure certificate, then the animal is res nullius and not owned 266 by anyone.

²⁵ S 1. of the Game Theft Act.

²⁶ S 2(2)(a) of the Game Theft Act.

²⁷ 2016 (4) SA 457 (ECG).

267 <u>Ownership of an illegally acquired wild animal</u>

268 In S v Frost, S v Noah,²⁸ the Court had to consider a related fundamental common law guestion, 269 namely: who is the owner of an illegally captured res nullius? Two employees of a fishing 270 company were convicted of capturing a large tonnage of snoek during the closed season. The fish 271 was confiscated and the accused convicted in the lower court. On appeal, the magistrate's order 272 that the snoek be "confiscated to the State" was challenged. The Court considered various authorities, including Dunn v Bowyer and Another,²⁹ where a hunter had been issued a licence to 273 274 shoot a hippopotamus, but instead it was shot by his friend. In this case, the Court held that as 275 the friend who had shot the hippopotamus did not hold a licence, it was therefore not lawfully 276 acquired. The fact that he obtained possession of the hippopotamus could not give him ownership.30 277

The Court in the *Frost* case however, referred to Voet, who expressed the view that someone who acquires a wild animal unlawfully, which is a *res nullius*, nevertheless acquires ownership, a view which has been endorsed by some legal academics.³¹ This line was followed by the Court, which held that illegal capture of a *res nullius* does results in the acquisition of ownership.

Although the common law allows for a person to become the owner of a wild animal (which is not owned by any-one), this is subject to national and provincial legislation which severely curtails the extent to which land-owners can use wild animals located on their land, and which also provides for confiscation and forfeiture of illegally acquired wildlife.

286 <u>Claims for damages caused by wild animals</u>

The courts have considered claims for damages caused by wild animals in a number of cases. In Sambo v Union Government, ³² the court held that where a person introduces a dangerous wild animal onto his or her property, such person is required to prevent such wild animals from leaving his or her property and causing damage or harm elsewhere.

²⁸ 1974 (3) SA 466 (C) (cited hereafter as the *Frost case*).

²⁹ 1926 NPD 516.

³⁰ At 470G.

³¹ At 469. Van der Merwe CG and Rabie MA, "Eiendom van Wilde Diere" (1974) 37 THRHR 38.

³² Sambo v Union Government (1936 TPD 182),

291 However, in contrast to this, in the case Mbhele v Natal Parks, Game and Fish Preservation Board, ³³ it was held that that a landowner cannot be responsible for damage or harm caused by 292 293 wild animals which occur naturally on the property where the landowner lets nature take its course and who takes no steps to prevent the wild animals from leaving the land.³⁴ In this case, 294 295 it was held it would be unreasonable and unrealistic to require a "hippo-proof" fence to be 296 erected around the 220 kilometre perimeter of the reserve to confine the hippos to the reserve, 297 especially where fences would have to cross rivers and resist the forces and impacts of floods, 298 especially given the infrequency of attacks by hippos.³⁵

Applying the reasoning of the *Mbhele* case, this means that where predators occur naturally (whether on private or public land) and no steps are taken or to control their numbers or behaviour, then the owner of the property has no duty to prevent the predators from escaping from the property and causing damage to others. There would be no lawful basis to claim for losses to livestock.

This is not to say that damages for losses to livestock caused by predators could not be claimed. However, if predators have been introduced onto the property, then there is a legal duty to control predators and the owner (or person in control of the property), could be held liable for any losses caused by predators escaping and causing damage to livestock. However, the duty to take such measures is tempered by a consideration of the likelihood of such damages or losses being caused and the steps that reasonably could be applied to prevent the harm from occurring.

310 If the owner of manager of the property from which the predator escapes denies liability and 311 refuses to pay for the damages, then protracted and expensive court proceedings would have to 312 be instituted to claim damages. The claimant would have a difficult evidentiary burden, as he or 313 she would first have to establish which property the predator came from and that the owner or 314 manager of that property should reasonably have been expected to foresee that damage or loss 315 may occur and that reasonable steps were not taken to prevent the damage or harm.³⁶ Even if 316 successful, the cost of the legal proceedings could by far exceed the amount of damages ordered

³³ Mbhele v Natal Parks, Game and Fish Preservation Board 1980 (4) SA 303 (D&CLD).

³⁴ Mbhele v Natal Parks, Game and Fish Preservation Board 1980 (4) SA 303 (D&CLD); p309

³⁵ Mbhele v Natal Parks, Game and Fish Preservation Board 1980 (4) SA 303 (D&CLD) (fn 53) at 308-9.

³⁶ Kruger v Coetzee 1966 (2) SA 428 (A)

by the court, as the amount of damages would be limited to the losses proved to have been
suffered.³⁷

319 Customary law

Some indigenous communities in South Africa have relied upon wild animals as resources, whether for own consumption and use, also killing wild animals that prey on their livestock. Where these are long standing practices and are considered part of their culture, then this can be considered to be a customary right. Customary law is recognised in the Constitution as an independent source of law which is not subject to any legislation other than the rule of constitutional law.³⁸ The Supreme Court of Appeal has held that as an independent source of law, customary law may give rise to rights that include access and use of natural resources.³⁹

The role of customary law in respect of access to natural resources was first addressed in Alexkor 327 Ltd and Another v Richtersveld Community.⁴⁰ A community of indigenous people, the 328 329 Richtersveld community successfully instituted a claim for the restoration of land. The court found that the content of the land rights held by the community must be determined by 330 331 reference to the history and the usages of the community of the Richtersveld. The Constitutional 332 Court took the view that the real character of the title that the Richtersveld community possessed 333 in the subject land prior to annexation was a right of communal ownership under indigenous law. 334 The content of that right included the right to exclusive occupation and use of that land by 335 members of the community. The court held that the community had the right to use its water, to use its land for grazing and hunting and to exploit its natural resources. 336

In the case of *S v Gongqose*⁴¹, which concerned illegal fishing, the Court recognised the customary
 rights to fish in a marine reserve, which effectively trumped the provisions of the Marine Living
 Resources Act 18 of 1998 (MLRA). David Gongqoze and two others were jointly charged, *inter alia*, with entering a national wildlife reserve area (Dwesa-Cwebe Nature Reserve) without

³⁷ A loss of future earnings or profit would not be sustainable.

³⁸ This is evidenced by the case of Alexkor Ltd v. The Richtersveld Community, in which the court stated: 'While in the past indigenous law was seen through the common law lens, it must now be seen as an integral part of our law. Like all law it depends for its ultimate force and validity on the Constitution. Its validity must now be determined by reference not to common law, but to the Constitution.' (2003) 2 ALL SA 27 (SCA)

³⁹ Richtersveld Community and Others v Alexkor Ltd and Another (2003) 2 ALL SA 27 (SCA) at para 28.

⁴⁰ Alexkor Ltd v Richtersveld Community 2004 5 SA 460 (CC).

⁴¹ S v Gonqose Case No. E382/10 (unreported).

341 authorization and specifically fishing or attempting to fish in a marine protected area in 342 contravention of the MLRA,⁴² which prohibits fishing in a marine protected area. In their defence 343 the accused relied on their customary right to fish. It was also argued that that the establishment 344 of marine protected area impacted negatively on the capacity of the Dwesa and Cwebe 345 communities and other such communities to practise their system of customary law rules in 346 respect of marine resources.

347

As evident from the *Richtersveld* and *Gongqose* cases, the long standing practices of communities in regard to the use of natural resources may enjoy constitutional protection, provided that the custom is clear and has been practised over a long period.

351

In remote rural areas, land is typically held in trust for a tribe or community, with ownership vested in the Chief. In terms of customary law, wild animals that occur on communal land are owned by the Chief on behalf of the tribe. This would mean that, in terms of customary law, the members of the tribe could exploit the wild animals occurring on the communal tribal land, either for own consumption or use, or to protect their livestock, provided that this use has been a long standing practice of the tribe.

Because of conflicting claims between customary rights and environmental rights, there have 358 359 been calls for a community-based approach to management of wildlife that actively involves indigenous communities.⁴³ The cultural practices and traditional knowledge related to wildlife 360 361 could enhance the manner in which predators are controlled and managed. By adopting this approach, communities would become involved not only in monitoring predators and managing 362 363 wildlife, but would also assist authorities in compliance and enforcement of legislation. By 364 adopting such an approach, communities that engage in small-scale or subsistence farming of 365 livestock and who are dependent on this for their livelihood would control and manage predators 366 in a sustainable and responsible manner that for the benefit of future generations.

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- 368

⁴² S.43(2)(a)

⁴³Most recently by L. Feris; A customary right to fish when fish are sparse: managing conflicting claims between customary rights and environmental rights; Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal [2013] PER 66

369 **Provincial legislation**

370 Nature conservation and wild animal management is both a national and provincial concurrent 371 legislative competency in South Africa. The national government has exercised its authority to 372 impose uniform national standards and regulation of threatened or protected species, which 373 once fell to the provinces. However, 'ordinary game' is primarily regulated by provincial 374 authorities, although this is also a competence of the national authorities. The provincial nature 375 conservation ordinances are in transition, many of them being updated to be consistent with the 376 TOPS Regulations and of threatened or protected species and to reflect more modern ideas about 377 wild animals and ecosystem conservation.

378 As intimated in the introduction, prior to 1994 South Africa's four provinces each developed its own nature conservation and wild animal legislation and system of administration. Although 379 provincial restructuring in 1994 expanded the four provinces to nine, the legislation itself 380 381 changed very little. The nine provinces have, for the most part, retained the pre-1994 legislation 382 and administration for regulating wild animals and the wild animal trade. In addition, prior to 383 1994, the former South African Independent States (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and 384 Ciskei) had authority to develop their own nature conservation and hunting legislation that, 385 although similar to the provincial legislation, also has some differences. Similarly, the self-386 governing territories (Lebowa, Gazankulu, KwaZulu, Qwaqwa, and KaNgwane) had limited 387 authority to enact legislation or amend existing South African legislation on certain issues. The 388 result was a fragmented and complex system across the Republic for regulating the use and 389 conservation of biological resources.

390 Nature conservation laws in the four former provinces and homelands

391 Introduction

392 It is necessary to deal with the four nature conservation Ordinances which applied in the former 393 four provinces as well as some of the former homeland laws of the "old" South Africa, because 394 in many cases these laws are still in place and being applied in the nine new provinces. More 395 specifically, the four "old" Ordinances still apply as follows:

The Nature and Environmental Conservation Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape) applies
 to the new provinces of the Western Cape and the Eastern Cape.

The Nature Conservation Ordinance 12 of 1983 (Transvaal) applies in Gauteng. It
 previously applied to the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces (formerly part of
 the Transvaal) as well, but these two provinces have now enacted their own
 legislation.

- 402 The Nature Conservation Ordinance 8 of 1969, (Orange Free State) still operates
 403 in the Free State.
- The Nature Conservation Ordinance 15 of 1974 (Natal) applies in KwaZulu-Natal.
 The more recent legislation adopted relates to creation of institutional bodies (the
 KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Act 9 of 1997, and the KwaZulu Natal Nature Conservation Management Amendment Acts 5 of 1999 and 7 of
 1999.

409 *General approach in the provincial Ordinances*

410 The general approach in all four provincial Ordinances is to distinguish between conservation 411 inside and outside reserves. Outside reserves, the focus is on protecting or controlling individual 412 species of fauna and flora, rather than ecosystems. The system of protection follows more or less 413 the IUCN system of classification system. These categories apply to all species, whether wild 414 animals, birds, fish, plants or other organisms. The four ordinances do not consistently use the 415 terms "threatened" or "endangered", but predominantly refer to categories such as "ordinary game", "protected game" and "specially protected game" and each lists individual species of wild 416 417 animals, plants, birds and fish, while some include insects.

- 418 More specifically, the respective Schedules of the old Ordinances and the new provincial laws419 which are currently operative in South Africa provide the following categories:
- 420 421 422

The Nature and Environmental Conservation Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape) has five pertinent Schedules which list the following: endangered wild animals; protected wild animals;⁴⁴ endangered flora; protected flora; and noxious aquatic growths.⁴⁵

⁴⁴ Added by Proclamation 59 of 1976 *Provincial Gazette* 3873, 13 February 1976.

⁴⁵ Schedules 1-5 of Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape).

- The Orange Free State Ordinance 8 of 1969, which applies in the Free State, lists six
 pertinent schedules, these being: protected game; ordinary game; specified wild animals;
 exotic animals; aquatic plants; and protected plants. A further Schedule, titled "Hunting
 at Night", list those species to which some of the hunting provisions apply.⁴⁶
- The Transvaal Ordinance 12 of 1983, which applies in Gauteng, lists twelve Schedules of
 which the following are pertinent here: protected game (which includes a sub-schedule
 on specially protected game); ordinary game; protected wild animals; wild animals to
 which section 43 applies (this deals with possession of certain listed wild animals); exotic
 animals; invertebrates; problem animals; trout waters; prohibited aquatic growths;
 protected plants; and specially protected plants.⁴⁷
- The Mpumalanga Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1998 lists fourteen Schedules which are 433 434 relevant here, namely: specially protected game; protected game (which includes 435 amphibians, reptiles, mammals and birds); ordinary game; protected wild animals; wild 436 animals to which the provisions of section 33 (dealing with possession) do not apply; 437 exotic animals to which the provisions of section 34 do apply (dealing with certain 438 prohibitions); invertebrates; problem animals; fly-fishing waters; prohibited aquatic 439 growths; protected plants; specially protected plants; invader weeds and plants; and 440 unique communities.⁴⁸ This Act repeals the KaNgwane Nature Conservation Act 3 of 441 1981.
- The KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Amendment Act 5 of 1999 lists
 four categories to which different degrees of legal protection apply, namely: specially
 protected indigenous animals, protected indigenous animals; specially protected
 indigenous plants, and protected indigenous plants.⁴⁹
- It is evident from the above that these categories, while similar, are not the same. One of thedifferences is that all include the category "game", except the Cape Ordinance, reflecting the fact

⁴⁶ Schedules 1-6 and 8 of Ordinance 8 of 1969 (Free State).

⁴⁷ Schedules 2-12 of Ordinance 12 of 1983 (Transvaal).

⁴⁸ The Mpumalanga Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1998.

⁴⁹ Sch 7 of the KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Amendment Act.

that hunting is not as predominant, at least in the Western Cape. However, in the Eastern Cape,hunting is a large generator of revenue.

450 <u>Problem wild animals</u>

It should be noted that while the various Schedules are aimed at conserving indigenous fauna and flora, they are not solely protectionist. The provinces permitted and often actively encouraged the hunting of so-called 'problem animals' also referred to as 'damage causing animals'. The Transvaal Ordinance, for example, includes a schedule of problem animals. They were previously referred to as "vermin" and included wild animals such as baboons, which could be freely hunted in the past.

457 <u>Summary</u>

The general approach in each of these provincial laws is to protect species listed in the respective Schedules in various ways. On some, there are absolute protections; on others there are permit requirements including bag limits, specific hunting seasons, prohibitions on certain hunting methods, and so on. All these are prescribed in the respective laws, which cross-refer to the relevant Schedules.

An advantage of this system is that it takes into account the different regional eco-types. A particular species may be endangered in one province, but may not exist in another province. Although the system is accordingly easily adaptable to local needs and ecological circumstances, it necessitates a constant vigilance by the scientific community to monitor the status of species in each province and thus demands a sophisticated administrative and technical infrastructure which many of the under-resourced provinces lack.

469 Administration

In the old South Africa, each of the four provinces had a Department of Nature Conservation, and the former homelands also had their own respective nature conservation authorities. In KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), arguably the premier nature conservation authority in the country, the position was always slightly different, in that a separate statutory board, namely the Natal Parks Board, administered conservation in the then Natal Province, from early in the twentieth century to 1997, when the Board was amalgamated with the Kwa-Zulu Bureau of Natural Resources to form the reconstituted KZN Nature Conservation Service (the KZN NCS). The new South Africa has seen a marked trend whereby other provinces are converting their respective nature conservation departments into statutory authorities known as Boards, following the lead of the KZN NCS, and the national SA National Parks (SANPARKS), (formerly the National Parks Board). The first new province to do so was Mpumalanga, followed by the North West and the Western Cape.

However, the extent of these Boards' jurisdiction in their respective provinces requires consideration. Some provinces have placed only nature conservation functions (and not environmental management) under the control of their respective boards. Others are considering only placing provincial protected areas under the auspices of a board and leaving nature conservation functions outside reserves with provincial authorities.

487 <u>The conservation of wild animals</u>

488 Most of the provincial ordinances refer to both "wild animals" and "game" as seen above. The 489 term "wild animal" is generally widely defined. In the case of the Cape Provincial Ordinance, for 490 example, "wild animals" means:

491 "... any live vertebrate animals (including bird or reptile or the egg of any such
492 animal, bird or reptile but excluding any fish or any ostrich used for farming purposes
493 and the egg thereof) belonging to a non-domestic species and includes any such
494 animal which is kept or has been born in captivity".⁵⁰

495 None of the provincial ordinances refers to the ownership of wild animals, therefore it is left to 496 the common law. However, the old South West African Ordinance, which still applies in Namibia, 497 interestingly provides that the owner of land which is adequately fenced shall be deemed to be 498 the owner of ordinary game on that land.

The various ordinances provide for similar measures to control hunting of wild animals. Thus endangered wild animals" may not be hunted at all according to the Cape Provincial Ordinance,⁵¹ while "protected wild animals" may be hunted during the season, subject to permit requirements and conditions. The typical control measures include the laying down of hunting seasons, bag limits, prohibitions on using certain kinds of hunting methods such as fire, poison,

⁵¹ S 26.

⁵⁰ S 2 (xxiii) of the Cape Provincial Ordinance. 66.

504 traps, artificial lights, weapons (such as bows and arrows), and certain calibres of firearms in 505 respect of specified species such as buffalo, eland, kudu and so on.

506 **Provincial reserves**

Each of the provinces has declared its own provincial nature reserves. KwaZulu-Natal, for example has a number of world-renowned reserves (such as the Umfolozi and Hluhluwe Game Reserves)⁵² which it administers under its provincial legislation. The Ordinances also provide for local nature reserves as well as private nature reserves. Where a landowner obtains approval for a private nature reserve on his or her land, he or she is generally afforded greater privileges regarding the conservation and utilisation of fauna and flora than otherwise would have been the case.

514 The Eastern Cape: The Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1987 (Ciskei)

515 In considering the Eastern Cape, one must also consider the Ciskei Nature Conservation Act 10 of 516 1987, and the Transkei Environmental Conservation Decree 9 of 1992 as these are still applicable 517 in that part of the province which constituted the former self-governing state of Ciskei and 518 Transkei respectively.

The Ciskei Nature Conservation Act deals with the conservation and utilisation of wild animals⁵³ and also establishes a coastal conservation area 1000 metres wide measured on the landward side of the entire length of the sea-shore. A series of prohibitions on certain activities in the coastal conservation area then follows which includes that no activity may be carried out which disturbs or may disturb the natural state of the vegetation, the land or waters.⁵⁴

524 <u>Legislative developments</u>

Although the Eastern Cape is still applying the Nature and Environmental Conservation Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape), it set in motion a number of public participation processes with a view not only to replacing the Cape Ordinance, but also to establishing its own statutory nature conservation board. To this end, it produced a Draft Green Provincial Environment Green Paper,

⁵² These must be distinguished from national parks.

⁵³ Ch 2.

⁵⁴ S42(2)

a decade ago,⁵⁵ which was followed by a departmental draft Nature Conservation Bill. This 529 530 welcome step will consolidate the nature conservation laws of the former Transkei, Ciskei and 531 Cape Ordinance into one comprehensive Eastern Cape nature conservation Act. The province 532 then published a White Paper on the Management of Tourism, Conservation and Protected Areas 533 in the Eastern Cape, which seeks to provide a more coherent approach to the development of tourism through conservation.⁵⁶ The province has also enacted the Eastern Cape Parks and 534 Tourism Agency Act 2 of 2010 (which repealed the Provincial Parks Board Act (Eastern Cape) 12 535 536 of 2003). The Act, inter alia, provides for the establishment of the Eastern Cape Parks and Tourism 537 Agency, which is responsible for the management of protected areas. This Act is discussed further 538 in chapter 12.

539 The Free State

- 540 The Free State still operates under the Nature Conservation Ordinance 8 of 1969. It has, however,
- published the Free State Nature Conservation Bill,⁵⁷ which is intended to repeal the Ordinance
 when it comes into force. No further action has been taken however. The Qwa-Qwa Nature
 Conservation Act 5 of 1976 is still operative in the Free State.

544 Gauteng

- 545 The Nature Conservation Ordinance 12 of 1983 (Transvaal) still applies in Gauteng. Like the other 546 provincial Ordinances, it includes chapters on the declaration of provincial nature reserves;⁵⁸ wild 547 animals;⁵⁹ professional hunting;⁶⁰ and problem animals.⁶¹ The "continued existence of the nature 548 conservation advisory board" is also provided for.⁶²
- 549
- ⁵⁵ Department of Economic Affairs, Environment and Tourism July 1997.
- ⁵⁶ In terms of PN 3 in *Provincial Gazette* 2277, 5 February 2010. The Agency replaced the Eastern Cape Parks Board established under the previous Act.
- ⁵⁷ In terms of PN 10 in *Provincial Gazette* 23, 7 May 2010.
- ⁵⁸ Ch 2 of the Transvaal Ordinance.
- ⁵⁹ Ch 3 of the Transvaal Ordinance.
- ⁶⁰ Ch 4 of the Transvaal Ordinance.
- ⁶¹ Ch 5. In addition, schedules also regulate fisheries; indigenous plants and endangered and rare species of fauna and flora.
- ⁶² Ch 1 of the Transvaal Ordinance.

550 KwaZulu-Natal

551 The KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Act 9 of 1997 established a new statutory 552 body, the Kwa-Zulu Natal conservation board⁶³ which replaced the former Natal Parks Board and 553 incorporates the former Kwa-Zulu Bureau of Natural Resources to form the KwaZulu-Natal 554 Nature Conservation Service. Despite the repeal of certain sections,⁶⁴ the Nature Conservation 555 Ordinance 15 of 1974 is still in place.

556 Limpopo Province

557 The position in the Limpopo Province was particularly complex because of the need to 558 consolidate the laws and institutions of four previous homelands which existed in its area, namely 559 Lebowa, Venda, Gazankulu and KaNgwane. This has now been done in the form of the Limpopo 560 Environmental Management Act 7 of 2003, which replaces the old Transvaal Ordinance.

561 Mpumalanga

562 After the advent of the new South Africa, but prior to the name change of the province, 563 Mpumalanga Province passed the Eastern Transvaal Parks Board Act 6 of 1995 which established 564 the Board and set out its powers, functions and related matters.⁶⁵ Although the title of the act refers to "Parks Board", the act encompasses nature conservation in the entire province, not only 565 in its protected areas. The objects of the Parks Board are stipulated as being "...to provide 566 567 effective conservation management of the natural resources of the Province, and to promote the sustainable utilisation thereof".⁶⁶ Similarly the functions of the Board are stipulated to include 568 "...inventorying, assessing and monitoring natural resources in the Province".⁶⁷ 569

570 This province has also passed the Mpumalanga Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1998 which is a 571 refinement of the previously applicable Transvaal Ordinance (12 of 1983), and in terms of which 572 the Transvaal Ordinance, the Bophuthatswana Nature Conservation Act 3 of 1973; and the 573 Lebowa Nature Conservation Act 10 of 1973 are no longer of any force or effect. The

⁶⁶ s 14.

⁶³ 5247 *Provincial Gazette Extraordinary*, 18 December 1997.

⁶⁴ In terms of PN 111 in *Provincial Gazette* No. 5265, 26 March 1998.

⁶⁵ Eastern Transvaal Parks Board Act 6 of 1995, N 41 (89) *Provincial Gazette Extraordinary*, 29 September 1995.

⁶⁷ S 15(1) (*a*).

574 Mpumalanga Nature Conservation Act also repealed the KaNgwane Nature Conservation Act 3 575 of 1981 in its entirety.

576 The North West

577 The North West has passed the North West Parks Board Act 3 of 2015, which commenced in 578 May 2015. The Act repeals the North West Parks and Tourism Board Act 3 of 1997. Its objects 579 include to manage and control protected areas in the North West and to provide for nature and 580 wildlife conservation in such protected areas, under the control and management of the North 581 West Parks Board⁶⁸. The focus of this act is on protected areas rather than on nature 582 conservation generally.

The North West enacted the North West Biodiversity Management Act 4 of 2016⁶⁹ (which replaced a draft bill published for comment in 2016).⁷⁰ It provides, *inter alia*, for the management and protection of protected areas, ecosystems, and threatened and protected species. This replaced the Nature and Environmental Conservation Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape) and the Bophuthatswana Nature Conservation Act 3 of 1973 (to the extent applicable in the North West Province).⁷¹

589 The Northern Cape

590 The Northern Cape previously applied the Nature and Environmental Conservation Ordinance 19 591 of 1974 (Cape), but this was repealed and replaced by the Northern Cape Nature Conservation 592 Act 9 of 2009.⁷² This act provides, inter alia, for the sustainable utilisation of wild animals,⁷³ as 593 well as the implementation of CITES.⁷⁴ It includes chapters on sustainable use of wild animals,⁷⁵ 594 wildlife operators,⁷⁶ and damage-causing Animals.⁷⁷

⁶⁸ North West Parks Board Act 3 of 2015, s 2.

⁶⁹ Provincial Gazette PG7721 NN3, 3 January 2017.

⁷⁰ In terms of PN 394 in Provincial Gazette No. 6719, 23 December 2009.

⁷¹ North West Biodiversity Bill, 2016, Schedule 1.

⁷² This Act came in to effect on 1 January 2012 in term of PN 10 in *Provincial Gazette* No. 566, 19 December 2011.

⁷³ As well as aquatic biota and plants.

⁷⁴ Northern Cape Nature Conservation Act 9 of 2009, long title.

⁷⁵ lbid. Ch 2

⁷⁶ Ibid.Ch 3

⁷⁷ Ibid. Ch 4

595 The Western Cape

596 The Western Cape still applies the Nature Conservation and Environmental Conservation 597 Ordinance 19 of 1974 (Cape).⁷⁸ In addition, it has enacted a Western Cape Nature Conservation 598 Board Act, following the trend of establishing statutory boards initially set by KZN, Mpumalanga 599 and the North West.⁷⁹ The objects of the Board include "...to promote and ensure nature 600 conservation and related matters in the Province".⁸⁰

- 601 The Board does not have any environmental management functions, which have remained with
- 602 the Western Cape Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning, which is also
- 603 responsible for administering the environmental impact assessment regulations under NEMA.

604 <u>Conclusion</u>

The provincial ordinances all distinguish between activities on and off nature reserves. While 605 606 hunting occurs both on and off nature reserves, hunting is more restricted in nature reserves. 607 Landowners, their relatives and staff are exempt from some permit requirements when hunting 608 on their own land. A landowner may also obtain a permit to fence his or her land and then may 609 apply for exemption to hunt, capture and sell game in an approved fenced area. Historically, a 610 certificate of adequate enclosure in all provinces provided land owners with various rights not 611 usually afforded to other land owners. These rights included the hunting of a species of protected 612 wild animal specified on the permit, by any means specified in the permit, including the use of 613 some prohibited hunting methods, the right to keep animals in captivity and the right to sell or 614 donate any animal or carcass without a permit. However, the Threatened and Protected Species 615 Regulations⁸¹ (TOPS Regulations) now invalidate these permits to the extent that they apply to 616 listed threatened or protected species and restricted activities.⁸²

⁸⁰ S 3(a) of the Western Cape Nature Conservation Board Act.

⁷⁸ The province issued a Call for Expression of Interest regarding suitable persons in connection with the finalisation and promulgation of a proposed Western Cape Biodiversity Conservation Bill to repeal the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1974. This was done in terms of *Provincial Gazette* No. 6501, 15 February 2008 but nothing further appears to have been done. The Problem Animal Control Ordinance 26 of 1957 (Cape) which applied previously was repealed in 2009 in terms of PN 309 in *Provincial Gazette Extraordinary* No. 6653, 28 August 2009.

⁷⁹ Western Cape Nature Conservation Board Act 15 of 1998, *Provincial Gazette Extraordinary* PN 709, 30 December 1998, amended by Western Cape Nature Conservation Laws Amendment Act 3 of 2000.

⁸¹ Government Notice No. R152 published in Government Gazette No. 29657 dated 23 February 2007 (implementation date – 1 February 2008).

⁸² National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004: Threatened or Protected Species Regulations; Notice No. R. 152; 23 February 2004; published in Government Gazette No. 29657 on 23 February 2007.

617 Most of the provinces include the category of 'problem animals' or 'problem species'. However, 618 the definition of 'problem animal' varies from province to province. The TOPS Regulations apply 619 to the provinces that have problem animals that are on the TOPS list. Other species that are not 620 threatened or protected but are considered to be 'problem animals' will continue to be regulated 621 by the provinces until national legislation is enacted. Most provinces (Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Gauteng) allow the hunting of problem animals' without 622 623 a permit. In some provinces (Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, Western Cape and Eastern Cape) 624 problem animals can be poisoned or hunted by means otherwise prohibited. While the TOPS 625 Regulations prohibit some methods of hunting of listed threatened or protected species, for 626 other wild animals, the methods authorised for hunting or capturing is still regulated by the 627 provinces. However, as demonstrated in the summary table, this differs in each province.

To add to the complexity of this system, some provinces, such as Gauteng and the Eastern Cape have also introduced separate hunting legislation.⁸³ Hunters and compliance officials must not only be familiar with the relevant acts and ordinances, but also with the legislation and policies relating to hunting. Rather than providing clarity, these policies cloud an already confusing system.

633 Other legislation

634 The Animals Protection Act 71 of 1962

The Animals Protection Act 71 of 1962 defines an animal to include any wild animal, bird or reptile which is in captivity or under the control of any person. The act therefore applies to all animals, including wild animals held in captivity or under the control of any person. The act specifies various acts which would constitute an offence. Conversely, an act of cruelty carried out on a predator not captured or under the control of any person would not constitute an offence.

640 The National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act 57 of 2003

It is increasingly accepted that the protection of species relies on the protection of the complex
ecosystems.⁸⁴ Wild animals that live in protected areas are afforded increased protection by
National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act 57 of 2003 (Protected Areas Act)

⁸³ Hunting Regulations in terms of the Nature Conservation Ordinance 12 of 1983 and the Eastern Cape Provincial Hunting Proclamation; published in Notice 22 of 2016.

⁸⁴ AB Rumsey; Terrestrial Wild Animals; Environmental Management in South Africa; Ch 112; p.403

644 which provides for the declaration and management of protected areas. Management is defined 645 to mean the 'the control, protection, conservation, maintenance, and rehabilitation of the 646 protected area with due regard to the use and extraction of biological resources, community-647 based practices and benefit sharing activities in a manner consistent with the Biodiversity Act.⁸⁵

National parks are managed by SANParks and provincial protected areas are managed by
 provincial departments responsible for environmental matters for each province, although some
 provincial parks are managed by independent statutory bodies.

In terms of the Protected Areas Act, the State acts as trustee of protected areas in South Africa.⁸⁶ The management of a protected area must be conducted in accordance with the management plan approved for the area by the Minister or MEC following the consultation with relevant organs of state, municipalities, local communities and other affected parties.⁸⁷ The object of the management plan is to ensure that the protection, conservation and management of a protected area is taking place in a manner which is consistent with the Protected Areas and for the purpose for which the area was declared.⁸⁸

Wild animals enjoy a measure of protection under the Protected Areas Act. Various provisions require the written authority of the management authority of the area, to: intentionally disturb or feed any species,⁸⁹ to hunt, capture or kill;⁹⁰ to possess or exercising physical control over any specimen;⁹¹ and conveying, moving or otherwise translocating any species.⁹² The maximum penalty is a fine or imprisonment for a period not exceeding five years or to both such fine and such imprisonment. The amount of the fine is not specified and will depend on the nature of the offence committed and the jurisdiction of the court where the matter is heard.

665

- ⁸⁵ Section 1 'management'.
- ⁸⁶ Section 3.
- ⁸⁷ Section 39.
- ⁸⁸ Section 41(1)
- ⁸⁹ Regulation 4
- ⁹⁰ Regulation 45(2)(a)(i)
- ⁹¹ Regulation 45(2)(a)(iv)
- 92 Regulation 45(2)(a)(vi)

666 The National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004

The National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004 (Biodiversity Act) provides
for the management and conservation of South Africa's biodiversity, including the protection of
certain threatened or protected species within the framework of the National Environmental
Management Act 107 of 1998 (NEMA).

571 Species that are considered to be of high conservation value or national importance that requires 572 national protection are listed as being a 'threatened or protected species'. The Biodiversity Act⁹³ 573 prohibits the carrying out of any restricted activity⁹⁴ involving a listed species without a permit. 574 The Minister may also completely prohibit any activity which may negatively impact the survival 575 of a listed threatened and protected species.

Although permits are issued to kill or otherwise control (or engage in any restricted activity) of species listed as threatened or protected, the issuing authority can issue the permit with onerous conditions and can also require that the applicant furnish to it in writing, at the applicant's expense, an independent risk assessment or such expert evidence as the issuing authority may determine necessary. The Biodiversity Act is framed in such a manner that the issuing authority can make it too expensive for an applicant to obtain and submit further information and reports that it may require, or too difficult to comply with the conditions of the permit.

The penalty for engaging in a restricted activity in respect of species listed on TOPS without a permit has been significantly increased.⁹⁵ A person who hunts, captures, kills, imports, exports, trans-locates, conveys, moves or sells or trades a listed predator without the necessary permit will face a maximum penalty of imprisonment not exceeding ten years or a fine not exceeding ZAR10,000 000. In addition, the court can order the person convicted to pay the reasonable costs incurred by the public prosecutor and the organ of the state concerned in the investigation and prosecution of the offence.⁹⁶

⁹³ Section 57 of the Biodiversity Act

⁹⁴ The definition section contains a list of 'restricted activities' and these include *inter alia* activities aimed at hunting, catching, capturing, killing, importing, exporting, having in possession or exercising physical control over, breeding, conveying, moving or otherwise translocating, selling or otherwise trading in, buying or in any way acquiring or disposing of, any specimen of a listed species.

⁹⁵ This is Schedule 3 offence in terms of National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998.

⁹⁶ S 34 (4) of National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998

690 Threatened and Protected Species Regulations⁹⁷

691 Introduction of a uniform permit system

The primary objectives of the TOPS Regulations are to: establish a permit system for nationally species that are listed as threatened or protected under the Biodiversity Act; provide for the registration of game farms; captive breeding operations and other facilities;⁹⁸ regulate hunting (which is a 'restricted activity'); prohibit certain activities involving specific listed threatened or protected species; and provide for the protection of wild populations of listed threatened or protected species.⁹⁹

The permit system applies to all restricted activities (including hunting) involving threatened or protected species. A permit is required to hunt, catch, capture, kill, import, export, be in possession of or exercise physical control over, breed, convey, move or otherwise translocate, sell or otherwise trade in, buy or in any way acquire or dispose of listed species.

When assessing an application for a permit, the issuing authority must considers factors such as the categorisation of the species listed,¹⁰⁰whether the species is listed on the IUCN Red Data List, whether the species belongs to a wild population; the biodiversity management plan for the species; any risk assessment report or expert evidence by the issuing authority; and whether the applicant has had other permits cancelled.¹⁰¹

707 <u>Regulation of the hunting industry</u>

Historically the hunting or ordinary game and threatened or protected species was dealt with by the provincial authorities. Inevitably, this lead to the inconsistent treatment of threatened or protected species and the standards of protection given to endangered species varied between provinces. The TOPS Regulations introduced uniform standards and prohibited methods that were considered inhumane and contrary to the principles of a fair hunt. However, these regulations only apply to the species listed as threatened or protected under the Biodiversity Act.

⁹⁷ Government Notice No. R152 published in Government Gazette No. 29657 dated 23 February 2007 (implementation date – 1 February 2008)

⁹⁸ All protected area managers and owners of game farms must hold a permit issued under the TOPS Regulations in order to carry out any restricted activity involving a species listed as threatened or protected.

⁹⁹ Threatened or Protected Species Regulations; Chapter 1, s2

¹⁰⁰ Whether the species is Critically Endangered, Endangered, or Vulnerable and Protected.

¹⁰¹ Threatened or Protected Species Regulations; Chapter 2, regulations 2-10

The hunting of ordinary game remains the responsibility of the provinces. If there is a conflict
between the TOPS Regulations and any provincial legislation, the national legislation (being the
TOPS Regulations) will prevail over provincial legislation.

717 In considering an application for a hunting permit, the issuing authority must take into account 718 factors such as whether the applicant is a member of a recognised hunting organisation 719 application and whether the application is for authorisation to engage in a prohibited method of 720 hunting.¹⁰² Importantly, the TOPS Regulations make provision for the recognition of hunting 721 organisations and the application of codes of ethical conduct and good practice. Hunting 722 organisations that have been recognised are required to ensure that their members comply with 723 the hunting regulations and must report any illegal hunting of species listed as threatened or 724 protected.¹⁰³

To a large degree, monitoring and control of hunting activities is exercised by self-regulation. The holder of the hunting permit is required to have all permit documents in his or her possession at the time of the hunt and to furnish a return of the hunt to the issuing authority within 21 days of the hunt specifying the permit number, date of issue, species, sex and number of animals hunted, location where the hunt took place.¹⁰⁴

The TOPS Regulations impose prohibitions and restrictions on certain hunting methods involving 'listed large predators', namely cheetah, spotted hyena; brown hyena; wild dog; lion and leopard. The regulations also prohibit hunting listed threatened and protected species with dogs, poison, snares and traps. Hunting with bright lights luring sounds, baits and use of vehicles is also prohibited as these offend the principle of 'fair chase'. However, these prohibited methods do not apply to threated or protected species that are damage-causing animals.

The TOPS Regulations allow the use of bait is allowed in hunting damage-causing animals that
are listed threatened or protected species. This includes lions, hyena and leopard and the use of
floodlights or spotlights is also permitted.

739

¹⁰² Threatened or Protected Species Regulations; Chapter 2, regulations 12 and 13.

¹⁰³ Threatened or Protected Species Regulations; Chapter 5.

¹⁰⁴ Regulation 21)

740 *Damage-causing animals*

741 Prior to the enactment of the TOPS Regulations, the hunting of damage-causing animals was 742 authorised by the provincial authorities. This resulted in many species being hunted without 743 restriction, often resulting in non-target species being killed and inhumane methods being 744 utilised.¹⁰⁵ The TOPS Regulations introduced a requirement that a listed threatened or protected 745 species can only be deemed to be damage-causing if there is substantial proof that the animal 746 causes losses to stock or wild animals; excessive damage to trees crops or other property; 747 threatens human life; or materially depletes agricultural grazing. This requires the provincial 748 authority responsible for conservation to determine whether a listed threatened or protected 749 species is in fact a damage-causing animal.¹⁰⁶

The TOPS Regulations provide various options for controlling a damage-causing animal if it emanates is from a protected area: capture and relocation; culling by the provincial authority; or capture and relocation by a person authorised by the provincial authority (other than a hunting client). In determining which option to authorise, the regulations provide that killing the animal must be a 'matter of last resort.'¹⁰⁷

A landowner is entitled to kill a damage- causing animal in self-defence where human life is threatened - however this does not extend to killing an animal to protect livestock or domestic animals. If a damage-causing animal is killed in an emergency situation, the landowner must inform the relevant issuing authority of the incident within 24 hours after it has taken place. The issuing authority is required to evaluate the evidence, and if it finds that the killing was justified, it must condone the action in writing or if necessary, take appropriate steps to institute criminal proceedings if not justified.¹⁰⁸

A permit holder can be authorised to hunt a damage-causing animal by the following means:¹⁰⁹ poison (provided this is registered for the poisoning the species involved and is specified in the permit); bait and traps (excluding gin traps), where the damage-causing animal is in the immediate vicinity of the carcass of domestic stock or wildlife which it has killed; the use of dogs,

¹⁰⁵ The provincial Ordinances generally did not require permits for land owners and hunting clubs

¹⁰⁶ Subregulation (1)

¹⁰⁷ TOPS Regulations, s1

¹⁰⁸ Subregulation (3)

¹⁰⁹ Subregulation (4). The methods must be specified in the permit.

(for flushing the damage-causing animal or tracking a wounded animal); darting (for the subsequent translocation of the damage-causing animal); and the use of a rifle (or firearm suitable for hunting purposes). The permit may also authorise hunting a damage- causing individual by luring by means of sounds and smell,¹¹⁰ and may also hunt a damage-causing animal by using a vehicle and floodlights or spotlights.¹¹¹

Certain hunting methods are also prohibited. This includes hunting by poison, traps, snares, automatic rifles, darting (except for veterinary purposes), shotgun, air gun or bow and arrow¹¹².
The use of floodlights or spotlights, motorised vehicles or aircraft for hunting is also prohibited unless this is required to track a predator over long ranges or to cull and is specifically authorised.¹¹³

The failure to be in possession of a valid permit is a criminal offence, the penalty for which is a fine of R100 000 or three times the commercial value of the specimen in respect of which the offence was committed, whichever is the greater, or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding five years or both.¹¹⁴

780 Draft Norms and Standards for the Management of Damage-Causing Animals

In terms of the Biodiversity Act, the Minister may, by notice in the *Government Gazette*, issue norms and standards to manage and conserve of South Africa's biological biodiversity and its components or to restrict activities which impact on the biodiversity.¹¹⁵ In announcing the draft Norms and Standards, the Minister responsible for Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries, Mr Senzeni Zokwana, revealed that losses caused by predation to sheep or small stock sectors eclipsed losses attributed to stock theft.¹¹⁶ The Minister also stated that the loss of livestock "is contrary to the objectives of the Africa Livestock Development Strategy if left unattended."¹¹⁷ It is against this

- ¹¹⁰ Subsection (5)
- ¹¹¹ Subregulation (6)
- ¹¹² Regulation 26(1)(a)
- ¹¹³ Regulation 26(5)
- ¹¹⁴ Regulation 74
- ¹¹⁵ In terms of section 9 of the Biodiversity Act
- ¹¹⁶ Media Statement 18 November 2004
- ¹¹⁷ Media Statement 18 November 2004

backdrop that the draft Norms and Standards was published by the Department of
 Environmental Affairs in November 2016.¹¹⁸

The purpose¹¹⁹ of the draft Norms and Standards is to set national standards:

a. for a uniform approach to the application of management interventions in order to
 prevent or minimise damage to livestock or wild animals; cultivated trees, crops or other
 property; or to prevent imminent threat to human life, with minimum adverse effect to
 the damage-causing animal;

- b. appropriate and effective management interventions or equipment which should be
 implemented by adequately trained persons, organizations, registered business,
 practitioner, conservation authority or issuing authority; and
- 798 *c. minimum standards*
- 799(i)to assist the issuing authority in the development of legislation and/or polices to800regulate the management of damage-causing animals; and
- 801 (ii) for the lawful use of methods, techniques or equipment to manage damage802 causing animals.

The draft Norms and Standards only apply to wild vertebrate animals that are regulated either by the TOPS Regulations or by provincial legislation. The draft Norms and Standards do not apply to vertebrate animals not listed on TOPS (such as bush pigs and baboons), or to non-vertebrate predators and do not apply to domestic animals that have become wild.¹²⁰

A practical difficulty is that the draft Norms and Standards apply to damage-causing animals that "causes substantial loss to livestock or to wild animals"¹²¹. This determination will depend on the assessment of an official of the issuing authority who is required to determine the severity of the damage caused by considering the following criteria:¹²²

¹¹⁹ Paragraph 2

¹²⁰ Section 3

¹²¹ Section 1

122 Section 5

¹¹⁸ *Government Gazette* No. 40412 dated 10 November 2016, under General Notice No. 749. This was to correct the publication of the unsigned General Notice No. 512 of 30 August 2016

- 811 (a) actual loss of life or serious physical injuries;
- 812 (b) imminent threat of loss of life or serious physical injuries;
- 813 (c) actual loss of livelihood, revenue or property;
- 814 (d) potential loss of livelihood, revenue or property.

Following the assessment of the severity of damage caused, an inspection report must be 815 816 compiled¹²³ and based on the information contained in the report, the issuing authority must 817 propose the most appropriate management intervention to minimise the damage which can 818 include live capture and killing. The norms and standards set out parameters for translocation 819 and deterrent measures such as fencing, the use of collars, herding techniques, repellents¹²⁴ and 820 the minimum requirements for restricted methods¹²⁵. These regulate the use of cages, poison collars, darting, call and shoot, foothold traps, the use of hounds, the use of poison firing 821 822 apparatus and denning (the removal of pups and/or adults from black-backed jackal dens).

Methods of controlling damage causing animals under the draft Norms and Standards that are in conflict with the Animals Protection Act 71 of 1962 and will be unlawful, for example, hunting with dogs, the use of traps, poisons lures and denning. In addition, other provisions are unlawful in terms of certain species listed in the TOPS Regulations, from being hunted through luring methods such as call and shoot hunting, dog hunting and gin traps.

828 The draft Norms and Standards imposes significant administrative burdens on the issuing 829 authority which will be unworkable in practice. For example, the damage caused by the predator 830 must first be assessed and then an inspection report complied before appropriate measures to 831 control predator can be authorised. In addition, the draft Norms and Standards contemplate 832 that any authorisation will be subject to various conditions that must be complied with. Many of 833 the provisions are impractical. For example, a person who is lawfully authorised to use a cage 834 trap must be adequately trained - but there is no guidance as what training must be carried out 835 or how this will be assessed. A cage trap must be set in the shade and as close as possible to

¹²³ Section 5(2)

¹²⁴ Part 2

¹²⁵ Part 3

836 where the damage was caused and the trap must be inspected and approved prior to the 837 placement of cage trap being set.

To implement the draft Norms and Standards, the Provincial Authorities will have to employ sufficiently trained officials to assess the damage to livestock caused by predators, compile the necessary inspection report and then process and issue the authorisation and then also monitor compliance. There are no time periods within which applications must be processed and permits issued. The inevitable delays in issuing the required authorisation will only lead to an increase in tension between livestock farmers and the authorities and result in livestock farmers taking matters into their own hands.

The draft Norms and Standards contemplate that a conservation authority may develop a compensation strategy for the payment of compensation to a person who has suffered loss or damages caused by a damage-seeking animal.¹²⁶ Although the payment of compensation will be encouraged by livestock farmers, the manner in which this is calculated should be easily determined and quantifiable if this is to in any way benefit livestock farmers. However, even if a practical and workable compensation process is implemented, it is unlikely that the provincial authorities will have sufficient financial resources to properly compensate livestock farmers.

A case-by-case approach to dealing with individual damage causing predators will not address the challenges faced by stock farmers. It could take at least thirty days for the evaluation report and permit to be issued to control a specific predator. If there is no efficient system for permits to be issued to regulate and control predators, this will inevitably result in livestock farmers taking matters into their own hands and adopting unregulated measures to kill or otherwise control predators.

The South African Game Conservation Association has called for wildlife to be managed on an ecological, systems based approach that assesses the causes of conflict between livestock farmers and predators.¹²⁷ This eco-system approach¹²⁸ requires an assessment of all wildlife in

¹²⁶ Section 19

¹²⁷ Farmers Weekly; 22 May 2017.

¹²⁸ The Convention on Biological Diversity describes an ecosystem approach as "a strategy for the integrated management of land, water and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way. Application of the ecosystem approach will help to reach a balance of the three objectives of the Convention. It is based on the application of appropriate scientific methodologies focused on levels of biological

a particular area, including predator behaviour caused by environmental changes.¹²⁹ Provincial
 authorities, in consultation with affected livestock farmers should define a geographical area for
 the management of predators at a local level.

A management plan for each identified geographical area¹³⁰ should be drawn up with input from 864 865 livestock farmers and other interested and affected parties. The plan should identify and list all 866 the predators that cause damage to livestock and to determine (a) the number of predators of a 867 damage causing species and their vulnerability as determined by the IUCN classification; (b) the 868 degree to which they are considered to cause damage to livestock; (c) the food sources of the 869 predators; (d) the range of responsible measures that could be employed by livestock farmers to 870 control the predators without a permit (including the number of that may be culled in a given 871 period; and (e) the reporting requirements of livestock farmers. The plan should also assess 872 whether income can be generated through consumptive use, for example by professional 873 hunting.

The management plan, together with the list of species and range of measures should be revised on an *ad hoc* basis when necessary to ensure that the plan is kept updated and in line with relevant best practice.

877 If appropriate management plans for the control of predators are developed with input from 878 livestock farmers, it is likely that livestock farmers would accept the plan and only implement 879 approved measures to control predators. Routine inspections should be carried out by Provincial 880 authorities to monitor and enforce compliance.

A management plan for the control of predators developed for local geographical areas with proper consultation from livestock farmers will reduce the administrative burden on provincial and national authorities as well as reduce the detrimental impact of unlawful measures, such as poisoning, from being implemented.

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organization which encompass the essential processes, functions and interactions among organisms and their environment. It recognizes that humans, with their cultural diversity, are an integral component of ecosystems."

¹²⁹ The South African Hunters and Game Association supports A ecological systems based approach is

¹³⁰ In terms of section 3(b) of NEMBA, Norms and Standards can be applied nationwide, in a specific area only, or to a specific category of biodiversity.

886 CONCLUSION

887 In terms of the Biodiversity Act,¹³¹ any person, organisation or organ of State desiring to 888 contribute to biodiversity management may submit to the Minister for his or her approval, a draft 889 management plan for an indigenous species listed as a TOPS species. Management plans for the 890 control of predators should be developed on an eco-system based approach for local 891 geographical areas with proper consultation from livestock farmers and local communities. The 892 draft Norms and Standards should be comprehensively revised to allow for permits to be 893 efficiently issued for the control of damage-causing animals. This will reduce the administrative 894 burden on provincial and national authorities as well as minimise the detrimental impact of 895 unlawful measures, such as poisoning, from being implemented.

896 The Protected Areas Act, Biodiversity Act and TOPS Regulations do not address the issue of 897 ownership of escaping wild animals, nor does it provide a mechanism for dealing with the 898 financial implications of damage caused to livestock by escaping predators. This legislation 899 should be amended to provide that where no specified measures are taken to control the movement of damage-causing predators, the State should be responsible for all damage caused 900 901 to livestock by predators escaped from protected areas, and the owners of private land who have 902 introduced wild animals should similarly be responsible if they have not taken prescribed 903 measures to contain these animals.

The provincial authorities, which are responsible for implementing the TOPS Regulations as well as provincial legislation, must bring the provincial legislation into line with the Protected Areas Act and the Biodiversity Act to ensure a cohesive legislative framework.

At present, contraventions of South African environmental legislation are primarily criminal offences which require an offender to be prosecuted and if the commission of the offence is proved beyond a reasonable doubt, the court will impose an appropriate fine, or even imprisonment.¹³² This places an undue strain on an overburdened criminal justice system which does not have a high prosecution success rate. To encourage compliance, particularly with the Biodiversity Act and relevant provincial legislation relating to wild animals, the legislation should

¹³¹ Section 43 of the Biodiversity Act

¹³² How Civil and Administrative Penalties can change the face of environmental compliance in South Africa; Melissa Fourie

- 913 provide for an administrative penalty system for the contraventions and for the determination
- 914 of a monetary penalty (having regard to a range of factors).

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