Opportunities and Constraints of Local Participation in Ecotourism. A Case Study of Kasanka National Park (KNP) Zambia

By
Twaambo Himoonde

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Norwegian University of Science and Technology

NTNU
Innovation and Creativity

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my loving husband, Choompwe Muzyamba. I remain indebt for the selfless sacrifice that you provided from the beginning to the end of this academic programme. Your encouraging words and endless support throughout the writing process provided me with the strength I needed to complete this thesis. Thank you for been my soul-mate. Only the almighty God can provide you with the appropriate reward that you dearly deserve.

Declaration

I, **TWAAMBO HIMOONDE**, hereby declare that the ideas and views expressed in this thesis are solely my own responsibility and not of anyone who participated in this research. In addition, any errors are mine and not theirs. All materials and sources of information used in this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Ecotourism may be regarded as a protected area management tool that aims to reconcile both conservation and development goals. Local participation is considered one of the main features of sustainable ecotourism development. This study was aimed at investigating how ecotourism provides a sustainable option for the local community in terms of local economic development opportunities. The study also sought to examine what local benefits accrue to the community and the level at which they participate in ecotourism. The study further identified alternative coping strategies that locals are engaged as a means of survival. Investigating the opportunities for and constraints on local participation, and how to draw benefits from biodiversity conservation in protected areas have been a primary concern of this study. This study also sought to examine the extent of stakeholder collaboration in the planning and management of ecotourism.

The study adopted a political ecology approach to understand the underlying power relations and resource-related conflicts that exist among local actors involved in biodiversity conservation. The study also applied participatory and community-conservation approaches to provide further understanding based on the shift in developmental thinking regarding protected area management from fortress conservation approaches to conservation and development approaches. This has entailed a shift from top-down planning to bottom-up planning for development. The current approaches to conservation place their focus on locals as instruments for sustainable conservation and use of resources such as wildlife. Local participation provides a means whereby local development can occur with community involvement in the conservation of natural resources. Its absence has meant that the wellbeing of the locals is therefore not supported. The lack of adequate local participation has continued to contribute to tensions and conflict among local actors in protected area management where biodiversity conservation is of concern. The study adopted a qualitative approach. The methods used included interviews, focus group discussion, direct observations and text analysis of documents.

This study identified several constraints that have limited active local participation in ecotourism such as local actor conflicts, capacity-building needs, inequitable access to benefits and use of resources, lack of land rights and others. The argument of this thesis is that while locals are encouraged to participate the means whereby this participation should occur should be well developed if the two-fold goals of conservation and development in ecotourism are to be achieved. The thesis argues for the need to increase opportunities for active local participation in protected area management. An increase in incentives, rights and local power to own, use, and control resources was identified as essential for the Kafinda community in order to participate actively in ecotourism. The Kafinda community may then also have an opportunity to realize the developmental potential that lies in the conservation of natural resources such as wildlife in the Kasanka National Park.

Key words: Ecotourism, Community, Conservation, Local Participation, Rights

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List of Acronyms

ADMADE	Administrative Management Design for Wildlife Management
BTL	Busanga Trust Limited
CBT	Community Based Tourism
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management
CF	Conservation Farming
CRD	Community Relations Department
DMC	Disaster Management Committee
DOT	Department of Tourism
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DSI	Development Services Initiatives
ECZ	Environmental Council of Zambia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMA	Game Management Area
GRZ	Government Republic of Zambia
HDI	Human Development Index
ICDP	Integrated Conservation Development Projects
IGA	Income Generation Activities
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
KCRB	Kafinda Community Resource Board
KGMA	Kafinda Game Management Area
KNP	Kasanka National Park
KTCP	Kasanka Trust Community Project
KTL	Kasanka Trust Limited
LIRDP	Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Programme

MAFF	Ministry of Agriculture Food and Fisheries
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MTENR	Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources
NEAP	National Environmental Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHCC	National Heritage Conservation Commission
OPEC	Organization for Petroleum Exporting Countries
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SLNP	South Luangwa National Park
SSI	Semi Structure Interview
UCZ	United Church of Zambia
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
VAG	Village Action Groups
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature
ZAFCOM	Zambia Forestry Commission
ZAWA	Zambia Wildlife Authority

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Tourism is generally considered as a panacea for development. It is also considered as one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world. In the same vein, ecotourism has been identified to be one of the fastest growing segments of the global industry. Many a developed nation such a France, Spain, and Italy largely depend on incomes earned through tourism. Practically all nations, big or small, practise tourism as a development strategy for its alleged economic benefits such as earning foreign exchange, generating employments opportunities, patching regional imbalances and building infrastructure (Singh 2003). Zambia equally recognizes tourism as one of the major foreign exchange earners on the basis of its contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the number of jobs it generates and the number of clients it serves. Similarly, ecotourism is seen as having the potential to earn large amounts of foreign exchange from ecotourist destinations. This introductory chapter begins by giving an overview of the global development of ecotourism and how it is considered as a tool for environmental conservation and development. The chapter further presents background information to the study, the research problem, objectives and questions of this thesis. The chapter concludes by presenting an outline on how this thesis is organized.

1.2 An Overview of Ecotourism Development

The most popular destinations in ecotourism have included countries such as Nepal, Kenya, Tanzania, China, Mexico, Costa Rica, Galapagos Islands and Puerto Rico (Whelan 1991, Honey 1999). Zambia is considered a potential ecotourism destination based on the abundant flora and fauna that the country possesses. Ecotourism has become one of the most rapidly growing and most dynamic sectors of the tourism market (Honey 1999, Hawkins and Lamoureux 2001). The rate at which it continues to grow presents both opportunities and threats for biodiversity conservation and social development. Hector Ceballos-Lascuráin, a Mexican architect and environmentalist is frequently attributed with first coining the term 'ecotourism' in 1983.

It was in the 1980s that ecotourism as a field had found common ground among researchers due to the expansion of global tourism, and the increasing interest in the natural environment (Page and Dowling 2002). It was during this period that the conservation community, people living in and around protected areas, and the travel industry witnessed a boom in nature tourism and realized their mutual interest in directing its growth (Drumm and Moore 2005). Page and Dowling (2002,56) argue that the 'phenomenon known as ecotourism was in existence long before the terminology began to be used within tourism studies though it was often called other things.' Similarly Beaumont (1998, 240) is of the opinion that,

> Ecotourism is not new to western society. It has been around since at least the 18th century but by a different name. The early geographers who toured the world in search of new lands, species and cultures were ecotourists … The establishment of National Park –Yellowstone in the US in 1872 and Banff in Canada in 1885 – is further evidence of the early interest in nature tourism … African wildlife safaris and Himalayan treks in the 1960s and 1970s were all part of this trend.

The concept of ecotourism which is relatively new has evolved over the last 20 years, and it is still often misunderstood or misused. 'In practice ecotourism has often been seized upon by opportunistic tour operators who merely relabel their products as a marketing ploy' (Cater 1994a, 4). Terms adopted to market their packaged tours include labels such as ecotour, ecovacation, eco (ad)venture, ecocruise, ecosafari. The lack of agreement on what the concept entails has led to many practices and interpretations among actors involved. Defining ecotourism has been a challenging task for practitioners in this field. In an attempt to unite the diverse definitions Ziffer (1989, 6) offers the following hybrid, and she states that this definition establishes tough standards for a program or destination to qualify as ecotourism.

> Ecotourism: A form of tourism inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its indigenous cultures. The ecotourist visits the relatively undeveloped areas in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensitivity. The ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labor or financial means aimed at directly benefiting the conservation of the site and the economic well being of the local residents. The visit should strengthen the ecotourist's appreciation and dedication to conservation issues in general, and to the specific needs of the locale. Ecotourism also implies a managed approach by the host country or region which commits itself to establishing and

maintaining the sites with the participation of local residents, marketing them appropriately, enforcing regulations, and using the proceeds of the enterprise to fund the area's land management as well as community development.

Ecotourism has been viewed as a way of ensuring environmental conservation while enabling economic development. Ecotourism is also seen as a vehicle to provide environmental, socio-economic benefits and cultural benefits at both local and national level. This has made ecotourism a more complex and multidisplinary phenomenon. It has been argued that the needs of conservation and development are essentially complex, which calls for comprehensive approaches if ecotourism is to be successful. Duffy (2002) points out that developing countries, in particular, are being encouraged by a set of diverse interest groups to consider ecotourism as a solution to their environmental and economic challenges. According to Western (1993, 7) 'the growing interest in ecotourism among governments of developing countries, commercial operators, aid organizations, and conservationists speaks to its enormous economic and conservation potential.' The challenge however lies in ensuring that both the economic and conservation objectives are attained.

The supporters of ecotourism as a development strategy have included international financial institutions, global environmental organizations, global tourism business, national governments and local community organizations, as well as individuals who regard themselves as ecotourists. Duffy (2002) further points out that in many ways ecotourism is being proposed as tool for negotiating complicated relationships between these potentially conflicting interest groups. For instance, ecotourism is often thought to provide a resolution to conflicts over the reservation of land for national parks, because it enables local communities and private businesses to derive financial benefits from engaging with conservation. It is for such reasons that ecotourism has become very important for potentially reconciling conservation and economic considerations and is viewed as a protected area management tool. Ecotourism is also seen as a platform on which to establish partnerships to aid collaboration among actors involved. One of the arguments for successful tourism has been the need to form strategic partnerships to ensure that the goals of conservation and development are achieved.

1.3 Background to the Study

The role of the community is considered cardinal to the success of the ecotourism industry and forms the basis upon which this study has been undertaken. Chapter three section 3.4.2.1 will discuss how communities have come to be considered co-partners in conservation development. Whelan (1991, 9) argues that 'one of the most egregious shortcomings of most ecotourism projects is that local people are not given any role in the planning process or implementation and are forced off lands that were traditionally theirs to use.' This has implied that local people have no influence in the planning and management of natural resources and are denied rights to access and control natural resources that at one point in time belonged to them. Most Third World nations are faced with the challenge of how to enhance the role of the local community in such initiatives that can foster a win-win situation for all stakeholders involved. In Zambia initiatives such as Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) Projects have been developed to increase local community participation. But the question still arises as to whether such projects are able to address and replace the local traditional means for survival.

The present study aims to depict how the Kafinda community surrounding the Kasanka National Park has been integrated into the development of ecotourism in the area. The study specifically focuses on establishing the extent to which the local indigenous people are benefiting and participating from ecotourism in the area. The study seeks to examine the initiatives that have been put in place enhance local community participation for sustainable development in the area. The study further focuses on examining interrelationships of stakeholders engaged in ecotourism and the areas of conflict arising among them. The thesis will also examine how the current legal policies and frameworks recognize the need to enhance the role of communities (with other stakeholders) in protected area management through ecotourism.

1.4 Research Problem

Ecotourism is viewed as a viable tool for attaining sustainable development. Proponents of ecotourism argue that it has since brought the promise of achieving conservation goals, improving the well-being of local communities and generating new business. Active local participation in the planning process and in operations management has been deemed essential to achieving conservation and sustainable development goals of ecotourism. The practice of ecotourism, however, leaves much

to be desired, especially with regard to the degree of social fairness and that of stakeholder involvement and control. In practice there is a critical lack of community participation in ecotourism projects despite the shift to new approaches in conservation which recognize the community as partners in development. In other words full and effective participation of local communities in the planning and management of ecotourism is rarely a feature of ecotourism.

The lack of effective and efficient collaboration among stakeholders can be seen as a cause of further alienation of the community from participation in ecotourism. Locals are rarely consulted about ecotourism development plans and benefits realized fall short of what they were led to believe. This has been a source of mixed feelings, negative attitudes and hostility towards protected area management by the community. It is based on such premises that ecotourism has been criticized for it inability to deliver on its promise. Bearing in mind the shortcomings of most ecotourism projects with regard to local involvement, the result has been that the local people are unable to attain full empowerment to manage and control such projects. Sustainable ecotourism development goals are left wanting as they do not live up to expectations.

1.5 Objectives of the Study and Research Questions

The study has focused on establishing the viability of ecotourism for the community, with a main emphasis on the social dimension of ecotourism. The following three objectives address the study's intention:

1. To assess whether ecotourism is a sustainable option for the local community.
2. To examine the level of local community participation in ecotourism.
3. To examine the extent of stakeholder collaboration in the planning and management of ecotourism.

Research questions were developed to seek a deeper understanding to the issues raised in the research objectives and therefore included the following:

1. What opportunities and constraints does ecotourism provide for local economic development?

2. What benefits have the community realized from ecotourism development in the area?

3. What coping strategies are locals otherwise engaged in as a means of survival?

4. How have the locals participated in ecotourism development in the area?

5. How has ecotourism fostered the development of partnerships among stakeholders involved in ecotourism?

1.6 Structure of Thesis

This thesis comprises eight chapters. Chapter one, the introductory chapter, gives an overview of the area of concentration of this thesis. The chapter introduces the topic and background, the research problem, the objectives of the study and the research questions.

The second chapter presents the country's profile and narrows down to describing the study area profile which provides an understanding to the context in which ecotourism development is undertaken. The presentation of the study area sheds more light on the status of the national park and the environmental and socio-economic characteristics of the area.

Chapter three presents the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study. Political ecology is the theoretical approach used with specific reference to the actor-oriented approach that discusses how actors engaged in ecotourism politicize the management and control of resources in protected areas. The concepts of 'participation', 'community' and 'ecotourism' itself are discussed to provide significant literature within which this study is done. The concepts provide relevant background information for understanding the shifting protected area management approaches in conservation development discourse.

The fourth chapter describes the research design and gives an outline and justification of the qualitative research approach taken for the study. The chapter discusses the different types of data collection methods used to collect and analyze the research data. The chapter further discusses the context in which the data was collected by outlining the limitations and challenges encountered in the field.

Chapter five provides an analysis of existing institutional and legal frameworks in place supporting ecotourism development. The chapter discusses the gaps and limitations in existing policies and legislation towards local community participation and stakeholder involvement in ecotourism where wildlife and natural resource management are of main concern.

Chapter six presents the research findings and interprets the results in relation to the information collected from respondents. The chapter further presents how the community has benefited and explores the alternative means of survival they have adopted. How the community participates in ecotourism initiatives is discussed in the same chapter.

Chapter seven provides a broader understanding of the opportunities and constraints that surround ecotourism development and local participation (with specific reference to the study area). The chapter also discusses the areas of collaboration and conflict that arise among actors as a result of ecotourism development in the area.

Chapter eight is the conclusion and gives a summary of the findings of this study. The chapter discusses constraints that lie in local participation in ecotourism. The theoretical approach taken by the study towards achieving the goal of sustainable ecotourism development is discussed and presented based on a model. The chapter ends by giving recommendations and suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA

2.1 Introduction

The Chapter gives background information to the study area. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section begins by giving an outline of the country's profile, which includes the climatic, physical and demographic characteristics. The second section presents the country's economic trends and land tenure system. The second section also gives a brief background to the development of tourism and ecotourism in the country. The last section describes the geographical location of the study area, the Kasanka National Park and the surrounding Kafinda Game Management Area (GMA) where the local community is located.

2.2 Country Profile

2.2.1 Geographical Location

Zambia is located in the Southern African sub-region and covers an area of 756,616 square kilometers (Km²).

Source: Ministry of Mines and Minerals Development (2007)

Figure 1: Zambia-Provinces and Location in Relation to Neighbouring Countries

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It lies between 8 and 18 degrees South, and between 60 and 35 degrees East of the Greenwich Meridian. Zambia is a landlocked country bordered by eight neighboring countries. It shares borders with the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Tanzania in the North; Malawi and Mozambique in the East, Zimbabwe and Botswana in the South; Namibia in the Southwest and Angola in the West. The country is divided into nine provinces namely, Copperbelt, Lusaka, Western, Luapula, Northern, Northwestern, Eastern and Southern. The provinces are in turn sub- divided into districts, which are currently 72. See Figure 1 below showing the geographical position of Zambia and its neighboring countries.

2.2.2 Climatic Conditions and Physical Characteristics

The whole country lies in the central African plateau with an altitude between 1000 and 1600 meters above sea level (MTENR 1997). The country is characterized by sub- tropical climate and three distinct seasons which are the hot dry season from August to October, when temperature range from 27 degrees Celsius to 32 Degrees Celsius; the warm wet (rain) is from November to April, when temperatures range from 20 degrees Celsius to 27 degrees Celsius; and the cool dry season which last from May to August when temperatures range from 15 degrees Celsius to 27 degrees Celsius. Mean annual rainfall ranges from 700mm in the southern part of the country to 1400mm in the north.

Zambia is divided into three major agro-ecological zones. The first zone covers the country's major valleys, accounting for about 23 percent of the country's total surface. The second zone covers the Sandveld plateau of central Africa which covers 27.4 million hectares, of which where 87 percent is used for agriculture purposes. The third zone is the largest zone with an area of 40.6 million hectares and lies in the central African plateau. Only 52 percent is suitable for cultivation due to the soils being highly leached. Figure 2 shows Zambia's agro-ecological zones.
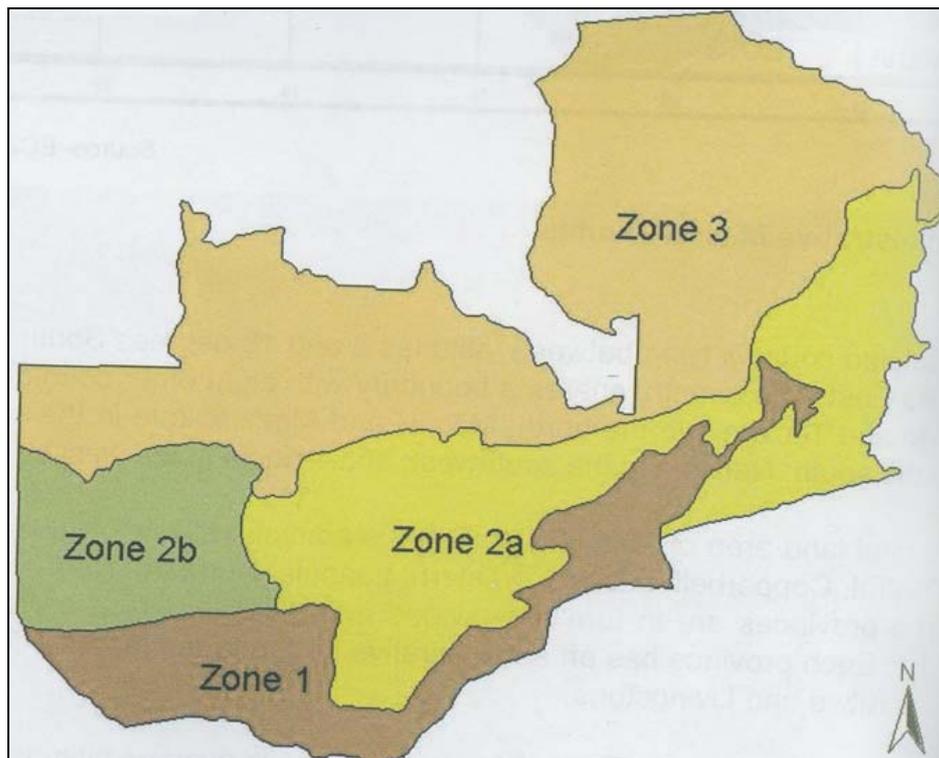
Source ECZ (2000, 2)

Figure 2: Zambia's Agro-Ecological Zones

2.2.3   Vegetation Type

The vegetation of Zambia is categorized into four main types: closed forests, woodlands or open forests, Termitaria and grasslands. Four types of woodlands are found in Zambia namely miombo, kalahari, mopane and munga. The KNP is incorporated in the area of miombo woodland. It is characterized by species of the bernea *Brachystegia, Isoberlinia* and *Julbernadia*. Miombo woodlands cover about 352 million hectares which is 47 percent of the total land area. It is the most extensive and economically important vegetation type. In urban areas miombo woodland is economically important for supply of timber, poles, firewood and charcoal. It is also the source of non-wood products such as honey, medicines, caterpillars and edible insects. It is estimated that 39 million people rely directly on miombo woodland for their livelihood, with a further 15 million city dwellers dependent on its products (Smith and Allen 2004).

2.2.4 Demographic and Population Characteristics

The population was 10.2 million in 2000 (MTENR 2004). The population is characterized by 70 percent below the age of 25 years. This shows that the population is extremely youthful and the demand for employment opportunities is high. About 62% of the Zambian population lives within the rural areas where dependence upon

natural resources for livelihood is on the increase (MTENR 2004). The population is growing at the rate of about 2.9 percent per annum which, without sufficient public awareness and control, contributes further to a vicious circle of increasing poverty and increasing depletion of natural resources (MTENR 2004).

2.2.5 Economic Trends

Zambia at independence in 1964 was one of the continents' wealthiest nations. When political independence was attained from Britain, the country inherited an economy that was heavily dependent on copper exports to create wealth. Copper mining was the country's main economic activity, accounting for 95 percent of export earnings and contributed about 45 percent of government revenue during the decade following independence from 1965 – 1975. The late 1970s saw the poor performance of copper on the world market. This resulted in a decline in copper prices and this lead to a decline in the country's economy. The sharp increase in oil prices in the 1970s further contributed to deterioration in the country's economy.

By the 1980s the first phase of the implementation of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) were implemented in Zambia and many other developing countries. They were designed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank and were imposed as a condition for further loans. SAPs were born as a result of a debt crisis that has hit especially developing countries since the 1980s. This debt crisis had its origin in the early 1970s when oil-producing countries that had united in the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) increased the oil price to gain additional revenue.

By the 1990s the performance of copper on the international market worsened and there was a general collapse in economic activity. By 1991 Zambia embarked on the second phase of SAPs that lead to liberalization of the economy. The introduction of a liberalized market-oriented economy saw the privatization or liquidation of most parastatals, hence ownership of these shifted to full time private business operators. The SAPs failed and had an impact on the economy which resulted in high poverty levels among the majority of the population. Zambia is now engaged in efforts of diversifying the economy from mining to agriculture, manufacturing and tourism. The country is in the process of implementing the economic recovery programme,

intended to promote economic growth, stabilize the economy, promote the private sector, privatize state owned activities and improve infrastructure and social services delivery systems. The county's GDP has fluctuated from 2.2% in 1999 to 3.6% in 2000, 4.9% in 2001 and 3.0% in 2002 (DSI 2004).

2.2.6 Poverty Situation

As a result of the poor economic performance and rapidly growing population, the current status of poverty in Zambia has worsened and is a worrisome trend. Rakodi et al. (2002) state that, 'households or individuals are considered poor when the resources they command are insufficient to enable them to consume sufficient goods and services to achieve reasonable minimum level of welfare'. Saasa and Carlsson (2002) indicate that 'the majority of people in Zambia suffer from weak purchasing power, homelessness and insufficient access to basic social services and necessities such as education, health, food and clean water'.

The World Bank Report (2005) shows that the poverty datum line for Zambia stands at 73% while the life expectancy is at 36 years and literacy levels are at 68%. The UNDP Report (2005) has ranked Zambia as number 166 on the Human Development Index (HDI) category in terms of its achievement in life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted real income. The current state of affairs has been exacerbated by lack of clear and strategic policies by government for economic growth, the prevailing menace of debt and the aftermath of the Structural Adjustment Programme.

2.2.7 Land Tenure System

Generally all land is vested in the President of the Republic of Zambia and has been enshrined in the Land Act of 1995. Zambia's land tenure is characterized by different land uses and systems. Zambia's land tenure falls into the following systems:

2.2.7.1 Stateland (Leasehold) Land Tenure System

This system stems from colonial land tenure where, title to land can be given to any one as long as land registration procedures are followed. Land holding in state land is based on renewable leasehold titles of up to 99 years. State land controlled by the State is largely used for urban settlement, mining and permanent commercial farming. In terms of coverage it forms the smallest form of tenure in Zambia of about 3.5% of the country.

2.2.7.2 Customary Land Tenure System

Most of Zambia land falls within this category, which covers about 96.5% of the country. The customary land is administered by traditional chiefs and their village headmen who control land allocation. However, land is held in common ownership by the community in perpetuity and is transferable following family traits but can not be sold. There is no formal system of land tenure, although small pieces of land can be alienated as 99 year leasehold following various permissions from the Chief, Council and Ministry of Lands.

2.2.7.3 Protected Area Land Tenure Category

The Government of the Republic of Zambia has set aside about 7.9% and 8.6% of the country as National Parks and Forest Reserves respectively which are managed and controlled by ZAWA and ZAFCOM.

Weak tenure has been identified as a serious constraint on economic development in Zambia (DSI 2004). This has resulted in confusion over land and resource rights especially in open access use regimes. This has further lead to low levels of responsibility and re-investment in the resource base.

2.4 Tourism Development in Zambia

As a result of the declining copper prices in the 1970s, Zambia's economy deteriorated. The government started looking for options for economic diversification. Tourism was recognized to be one of the sectors to provide economic diversification. In 1996 the government reclassified the tourism sector from a social to an economic category. This was recognition of the sector's potential to contribute to economic development in terms of *inter alia,* foreign exchange earnings, employment and income generation, contribution to government revenues, and promotion of rural development as well as performs the role of sustainable development catalyst (MOT 1999).

The government now sees tourism as a major contributor of economic diversification. By 1999, the tourism sector was accorded priority status the Government's development agenda together with agriculture, manufacturing and gemstone mining. In 2002, the tourism sector was accorded 2nd priority status on the Government's development agenda after agriculture, manufacturing and gemstone mining. The

government's commitment in creating an enabling environment is embedded in the mission for the sector, 'to contribute sustainably to the economic well being and enhanced quality of life for Zambians through government led private sector driven, quality product development that are consist with the protection of unique natural and cultural heritage' (MOT 1999, 4).

It is therefore the intention of the government to address the plight of rural Zambians through the provision of income to improve their standards of living. Tourism is recognized as a vital source of jobs for Zambians (MOT 1999). The policy focuses on the alleviation of poverty in rural areas of where much of the tourism resource is located. In this light that the tourism industry has a key role in the national economy as a source of economic growth, provider of jobs and incomes (MOT 1999). The policy also aims to encourage and assist Zambia to own and manage hotels, lodges and other tourist facilities. Government recognizes the need for local communities and local entrepreneurs to become more involved with tourism activities as owners ad partners.

2.4.1 Ecotourism Development in Zambia

The major resource base of ecotourism in Zambia is wildlife alongside the heritage of local communities. A key informant from the MTENR had this to say, 'the aspect of ecotourism in Zambia is in two streams: national parks and the local community have social business such as traditional ceremonies, ethno tourism.' The informant further stated that national parks as exclusively ecotourism zones, where non-consumptive tourism and other things related to ecotourism such as photographic safari occur.

Ecotourism which is focused on the community is mainly inclined to the local culture. This has been developed in different parts of the country with the 'highest concentration located in Southern Province, most and around the tourism capital - Livingstone (Dixey 2005, 30). Community Based Tourism (CBT) is considerably well developed in places like the Nakaplayo Tourism Project – NTP in Chiundaponde CRB of Lavushi Manda National Park (KTL promotes the project), Mukuni Development Trust (MDT) in Livingstone, Kawaza Village Tourism Project (KVTP) in Lupande GMA of South Luangwa National Park (SLNP) and other projects found in different parts of the country. According to Dixey (2005, 30) approximately,

'twenty-five CBT enterprises were identified across Zambia … 44% of the CBT enterprises are in GMAs as these border national parks which are tourism centers.' Other locations where CBT enterprises are found have included rural villages, urban areas and national parks. The study noted that the existing potential that lies in community ecotourism (related to cultural heritage) is yet be developed. In Kasanka Game Management Area (KGMA) the community faces various constraints that have hampered its development.

The Kasanka National Park where the present study was conducted is one such park where ecotourism is considered essential for sustainable development of the park and surrounding areas. According to WTO (2001) 'Kasanka was formed to bring effective management to Kasanka National Park, thereby protecting flora and fauna. By developing infrastructure and tourism marketing, it aims at making Kasanka self-sustaining and deriving benefits to the local community.' The Trust therefore aims to fulfill the two-fold objective of ecotourism that promotes wildlife conservation and rural development schemes in the community. The Trust has set up development strategies and plans to meet these objectives. Chapters six and seven present and discuss projects that have been put in place by the Trust towards the development of ecotourism and implementation of the stated objectives (in conjunction with the Kafinda community).

An official from the MTENR revealed that an overall ecotourism strategy has not been worked out by government though its supports ecotourism ventures (such as game farming that are upcoming with some operators and communities). The official further stated that ecotourism development is 'based on the Quebec Declaration on Ecotourism of 2000. This has not been internalized, and it is envisaged to take place in the new Act.' The lack of an ecotourism policy poses a challenge in attaining the goals of ecotourism. This poses a constraint on development of ecotourism as different forms of ecotourism are bound to arise within the sector where some will be purely as a marketing ploy, without addressing the principles governing ecotourism. An ecotourism strategy can provide an opportunity of forming a regulatory framework for effective implementation and management of ecotourism in the country.

2.5 Description of Study Area

2.5.1 Geographic Location

Kasanka National Park (KNP) is 420 kilometers square (see Appendix II showing a Map of KNP). The park is one of Zambia's smallest national parks. It measures some 15km from the North to South and 35kms from the West to East. The park is on the southern fringes of the Bangweulu Swamps, and about 30km from the border of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). The location of the park is found in the third agro-ecological zone as shown in Figure 3 which is one of Zambia's highest rainfall areas with nearly 1200mm recorded each year.
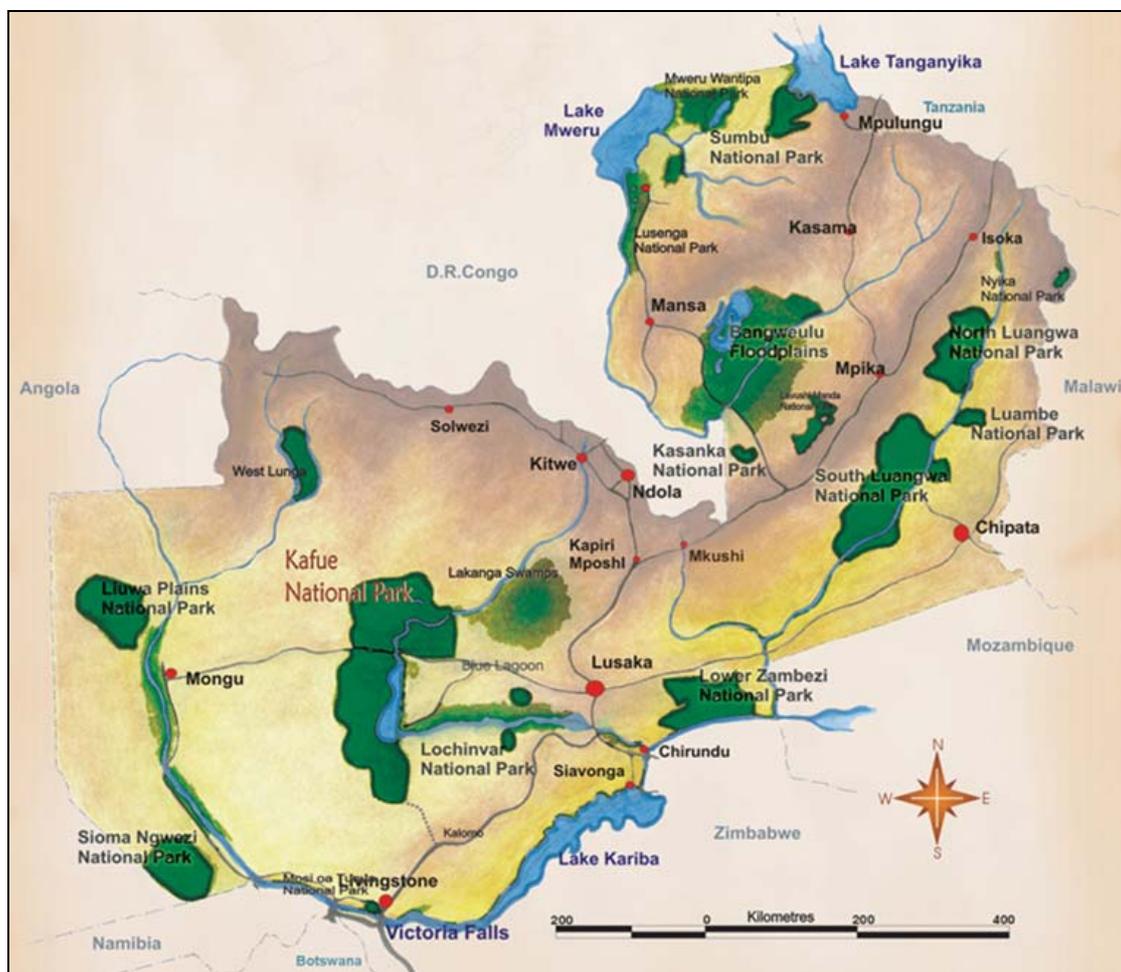
Source: MTENR (2004)

Figure 3: National Parks in Zambia-Showing Position of Kasanka National Park (KNP) in Zambia.

The park is located in the northern part of Central province of Zambia and falls within the Serenje district. The Kafinda GMA acts as a buffer zone between Kasanka National Park and the surrounding villages. Kasanka National Park is under Kafinda Chiefdom, which in under the traditional leadership of Chief Chitambo IV.

2.5.2 History of Kasanka National Park

In 1946, the area was established as a game reserve which lead to resettlement of the local community. In 1972 the reserve was made a national park, but years of neglected and uncontrolled hunting led to serious depletion of mammals. By 1985 Kasanka was in danger of losing its National Park status (Farmer 1992). In the same year a visit conducted by David Lloyd, a former District Officer, who was greeted by the sound of a poacher's gun, sparked interest, leading him to believe that some wildlife was in the park. David teamed up with Mkushi farmer Gareth Williams, and with the support of the local community and permission from the National Parks and Wildlife Services (NPWS), the two resolved to do what they could do to save Kasanka's precious animals, birds and trees at their own expense (Farmer 1992).

By 1990 the National Parks and Wildlife Department signed a management contract (subject to 10 year renewal) with the Kasanka Trust, giving the latter the right to manage the park and develop it for tourism in partnership with the local community (McIntyre 1999, 331). The Kasanka Trust Limited (KTL) Zambia has been charged with all aspects of management in the National Park. The contract was renewed in 2002, ZAWA granted exclusive rights to Kasanka Trust Limited to develop, promote and mange Kasanka National Parks subject to the terms and conditions of the agreement. The Trust is linked to a registered charity, based in the United Kingdom (UK). The trust relies on donors for financial support and tourism proceeds from the parks to fund its activities. KNP is now Zambia's first privately-managed National park.

2.5.3 Environmental Characteristics

Kasanka National Park is encompassed by a wide variety of flora and fauna. The park comprises vegetation zones from the dry evergreen forests to various types of moist forest such as the 'Mushitu' evergreen swamp forest, riverine fringing forests. The park has large tracts of miombo woodland and extensive papyrus swamps. There are eight lakes in the park, though seven of these are really permanently flooded dambos. The largest lake Lake Wasa wa Mkunyu, spans an area of 4 sq kms. The remaining seven are Lake Wasa, Kalambo I and II, Ndolwa, Chitwe, Chifunsu and Chisamba wamponde. Other features in the park include lagoons, alluvial plains and marshes.

The park is rich in flora and large mammals associated with the central African plateau, including some rare specialized species. The area has wildlife such as the Puku *(Kobus vardonii),* which is the most common large mammal in the park. The Sitatunga antelope *(Tragelaphus spekeii)* is an animal species that is concentrated in the Kapabi Swamp. Bush Buck *(Tragelaphus scriptus)* is an animal species found in the park. The Hippo *(Hippotamus amphinius),* Crocodiles *(Crocodylus niloticus)*, and Warthog *(Phacocheoreus aethipicius)* are relatively common in the KNP. Other animal species include smaller carnivores such as caracal, jackal, civet, genet and cape clawless otter. The KNP's most spectacular sight occurs around the start of the rain season when an enormous colony of straw-colored fruit-bats assembles from around central Africa too roost in an area of 'Mushitu' swamp forest. The rivers, lakes and wetland comprise a wide variety of bird species such as ibis, storks, herons, kingfishers and bee-eaters.

2.5.6. Socio-economic Characteristics

There are about 60,000 inhabitants in the Kafinda GMA and under the traditional leadership of Chief Chitambo IV. The chief oversees local traditional courts, deciding on unsolvable issues of the rural population. The chief plays an important role in directing land-use in the area granting permission for land clearing, logging and other such activities. The current Chief Chitambo the IV is the great grandson of the chief who received David Livingstone and it is in his Chiefdom that the missionary's heart was buried in 1873 in the village of Chitambo. The place has been protected as a heritage site with a monument in memory of the British explorer of Central, Southern and East Africa.

The inhabitants of this area are traditionally hunters, gatherers and fishermen. According to KTL (2007b), fishing and hunting are still an important activity for some, but the majority have shifted to agriculture. The local community is currently mainly dependent on basic subsistence agriculture that involves 'slash and burn' techniques to clear forests for cassava, millet, maize and groundnuts. This form of farming techniques have been proved to be unsustainable due to the fact that the locals cut down a piece of untouched forest, they burn the trees and plant crops for a

period of three to four years. Afterwards they move to a new piece of forest when the soil fertility is depleted[1].

Groundnuts are currently the major cash crops in their area, which brings in a form of income to the farmers. Few keep livestock and fish form the principal sources of protein (Farmer 1992). The population is highly dependent on natural resources for survival and this has increased pressure on existing resources.

2.6 Summary

The chapter has provided background information to the socio-economic and environmental situation of the country. The chapter discusses the development of tourism and ecotourism in the country. The chapter provides the objectives of ecotourism in relation to the study area. A description of the study area in to the historical background of the park under the KTL is discussed. The chapter also presents the environmental and socio-economic characteristics prevalent in the study area.

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[1] Also know as the *Chitemene* system which is a form of shifting cultivation which means cut over area, involves the cutting and burning of trees. The ashes that remain from the burnt trees are added as nutrients to the soils before the planting season begins.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is aimed at operationalizing the theoretical and conceptual framework that have guided this study. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section will focus on introducing political ecology as the main theoretical framework that has informed this research. Background information on the origins of political ecology will be discussed in the section. The section will further discuss the tenets and approaches in political ecology research. The next section will discuss the theoretical concepts and approaches that have formed the basis of the present study. The final section will present an analytical framework adopted to describe the status of ecotourism in the study area.

3.2 Origins of Political Ecology

Political ecology has been applied and practiced across disciplines such as anthropology, biology, geography and political science. From a geographical perspective, political ecology has significantly contributed to the 'understanding of nature and society relations' (Zimmerer and Bassett 2003, 1). The origins of the term political ecology have been traced back to the 1970s and 1980s. 'Political ecology is regarded to have been developed from a more narrow perspective offered by cultural ecologists, particularly the lack of attention given to the political and social context of environmental change ….' (Jones and Carswell 2004, 204). In other words, third world political ecology developed in part as a critique of cultural ecology (Bryant and Bailey 1997).

Political ecology has been viewed from the perspective of the First World and Third World. The latter according to Bryant and Bailey (1997), 'originated in the early 1970s at a time when human-environmental interaction was coming under close public and scholarly scrutiny, especially in the First World.' Bryant (1997) further indicates that '… it was not until the mid-1980s that the field took off.' Political ecology has had theoretical influences from neo-Marxism in the late 1970s and post-Marxist mixture of social movements theory in the early 1980s (Bryant 1997). Paulson and Gezon (2005, 17) state that 'Political ecology's originality and ambition

arise from its efforts to link social and physical sciences to address environmental changes, conflicts, and problems.'

3.2.1 Tenets of Political Ecology

Political ecology has been defined as a framework that integrates both the ecology and the political economy perspectives. 'The phrase "political ecology" combines the concerns of ecology and broadly defined political economy. Together this encompasses the shifting dialectic between society and land based resources, and also within classes and groups within society itself' (Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987, 17). This definition of political ecology is associated with studies conducted by geographers Piers Blaikie and Harold Brookfield in their classical text *Land Degradation and Society* of 1987. They are among the pioneers of the field of political ecology. According to Neumann (2005, 9),

> The central premise in this definition is that the human transformation of natural ecosystems cannot be understood without consideration of the political and economic structures and institutions within which the transformations are embedded. The relationship between nature and society is, in a word, dialectical.

Political ecology thus explores the political dimensions of human-environmental interaction. Neumann (2005, 120) further argues that 'a political ecology is a powerful way of examining both the ecological efficacy of this approach to biodiversity protection and of understanding the politics that produce and are produced by it.' Political ecology therefore aims at assessing the implications of a politicized environment. The underlying argument is that environmental issues are politicized by those who have power in society. This has implied that those who lack power are politically marginalized and are not able to participate fully over environmental outcomes that affect their livelihoods. Blaikie (1998, 14) describes this scenario as the 'battle of representation' where the environment is seen as an arena in which struggles over resource access and control take place. This has entailed that different world views over resource use exist and contribute to conflict amongst actors involved. Conflicts in this case arise out of the values that actors place on landscape resources. Jones (1993, 20) indicates that 'values lie within people or groups of people… landscape values depend on perceptions of the way in which landscape can serve or satisfy the needs and values of people or groups of people.' Jones (1993)

identifies three types of values: subsistence value, market value and utilitarian ecological value. He further argues that subsistence values are relevant to Third World countries where many people are still directly dependent on the landscape for their daily survival without going through the market. For a country such as Zambia, 'the savanna provides grazing; forest provides fuel wood, nuts, fruit and game and so on' (Jones 1993, 21).

The lack of effective representation of values has resulted in situations where locals are marginalized from the resources they once freely accessed. 'Particularly contentious are restrictions on hunting and trapping. Access to wild meat protein is a critical element in many African agrarian economies across the continent especially in time of dearth' (Neumann 2005, 134). Political ecologists discuss issues of how those who are 'politically marginalized (most local farmers, hunters and pastoralist who are resource users in the park) are criminalized and resort to poaching' (Blaikie 1998, 14). It is in this light that 'political ecologists reveal how these spaces of conservation become arenas of conflict that result in distinctive patterns of resource management' (Zimmerer and Bassett, 2003, 5). Neumann (2005, 120) states that 'parks and biodiversity conservation involve questions that are at the very core of political ecology. How is the relationship between society and nature defined and conceptualized, how is access to land and resources controlled, and how are the environmental costs and benefits distributed?' It is the intention of the present study through political ecology enquiry to explore on such related issues, with on-going biodiversity conservation in Kasanka National Park and the surrounding Kafinda GMA.

Through political ecology, Third World environmental problems are explored through political and economic processes. Bryant (1997, 8) argues that '… Third World's environmental problems are not simply a reflection of policy failure … but rather are a manifestation of broader political and economic forces associated notably with the global spread of capitalism.' Third World political ecology according to Neumann (2005,83) has addressed '… the struggles between local communities, the state and the capitalist enterprises over livelihoods, the structure and control over access to land and resources and the importance of local knowledge and perceptions of the environment….' Neumann (2005, 129) further maintains that 'a political ecology is concerned with the issues of

political conflict, social justice and ecological efficacy that surround state directed biodiversity conservation.' One can therefore argue that political ecology bears with it an ethical consideration for conserving the environment for sustainable local livelihoods. This is hoped to be achieved through the democratic access to use and control of resources by various actors.

'Some of the injustice stems simply from the costs of being neighbour to a protected area…the cost of conservation in protected areas include the obvious problems of eviction, the loss of home, the asset value of land or resources and the stream of benefits that derive from them' (Adams 2004, 115). The establishment of protected areas also brings a cost to local people in terms of non-use values, such as religious and cultural values (Adams 2004). Other costs include problems of crop-raiding wild animals such as elephants, buffalo, baboons and in extremely rare cases species such as gorillas which are destructive raiders of crops (Adams 2004). Political ecology tries to explore the justice struggles faced by displaced and impoverished groups in biodiversity conservation areas. Some of the issues it tries to address are the issues of land rights and resources access that are the fundamental source of conflict between biodiversity conservation and local communities (Neumann 2005).

Low and Gleeson (1998, 19) argue that 'distributional questions are fundamental to the politics of the environment….All actors involved have interests in the pieces of the environment. Proximity is at the heart of the struggle.' How the environment is managed is closely tied to the aspect of ethics and is connected to society and the person. Justice is therefore essential if the interests of actors involved are to be addressed for 'environments overlap and are *unavoidably* shared' (Low and Gleeson 1998, 19). Low and Gleeson (1998, 2) further point out that the struggle for justice is shaped by the politics of the environment that have two relational aspects: the justice of the distribution of the environments among peoples, and the justice of the relationships between humans and the rest of the natural world, which they term as aspects of justice: *environmental* justice and *ecological* justice. Based on both aspects of environmental and ecological justice, they view these aspects of justice as forming a dialectical relationship. The solution they argue lies in formulating a 'political ethic of justice' (Low and Gleeson 1998, 21).

3.2.2 Themes and Approaches in Political Ecology

In line with what has been discussed above, Robbins (2004, 83) illustrates that political ecology has been concerned with themes such as,

> producer livelihood adaptation and diversity; community and participatory development; state and international environmental conservation; intra–households divisions of labour and resources access; social versus official, state, or scientific knowledge; and social movements and group conflicts in resource use.

In line with the themes mentioned above, community and participatory development has been the main theme that has informed this study, alongside possible conflicts in resource use and access that exist in biodiversity conservation and development issues. Young (2003, 31) is of the view that 'the recurring theme in the political ecology literature addresses conflicts over land, flora and fauna, soils, water … especially those surrounding common pool resources.'

Bryant and Bailey (1997) discuss five main approaches that have been adopted by political ecologists in their field work research. These have included approaches based on the analysis of the environmental problems (such as soil erosion, tropical deforestation, water pollution or land degradation); concepts (such as sustainable or green development); ecological problems within the context of specific geographical regions; socio-economic characteristics (such as class, gender and ethnicity) and the actor-oriented approach. Despite the diverse approaches taken by political ecologists they 'appear to agree on two basic points … First, they agree that the environmental problems facing the Third World are not simply a reflection of policy or market failure …but rather a manifestation of broader political and economic forces' (Ibid, 3). Furthermore, political ecologists are known to combine these different approaches depending on the researcher's main area of concern.

The present study adopts an actor-oriented approach to address the research priorities. The actor-oriented approach places emphasis on 'the need to focus on the interests, characteristics and actions of different types of actors in understanding political-ecological conflicts' (Bryant and Bailey 1997, 23). 'The politics of global biodiversity conservation are driven by the interactions of these groups of actors: the state, international organization and institutions and society' (Neumann 2005, 120).

Through the actor-oriented approach political ecologists are able to investigate the different interests that are held by actors which have been sources of conflicts. Turner (2004, 864) argues that, 'conflicts can shed light on the divergent interest, powers, and vulnerabilities of different social groups. In these ways, resource related conflict has served as a major analytical and methodological focus of political ecology.'

Third World political ecologists also place emphasis on explaining the consequences of unequal power relations in human–environment interactions. Power they argue plays a role in conditioning patterns of human environmental interaction. Bryant (1997, 10) puts forward that,

> At the heart of political ecology reading of the Third World's environmental problems is the idea that the relationship between actors (i.e. states, businesses, non-governmental organizations, farmers etc) and the links between actors and the physical environment are conditioned by power relations.

Bryant (1997, 11) maintains that, 'power is thus for political ecologists a key concept in efforts to specify the topography of a politicized environment.' The role of various actors in relation to a politicized environment amongst political ecologist has been considered important. Neumann (2005, 7) points out that political ecology has been 'concerned with highlighting the differing and sometimes conflicting perspectives on the environment and environmental problems held among various actors operating at local, regional and global scales.' Third World Political ecologists focus on struggles between actors for control over the environment at different levels. It is from this perspective that political ecologists strive to understand how actors interact in a given locality.

Bryant and Bailey (1997, 39) pose three interrelated questions to the understanding of power that encompasses the material and non-material consideration as well as apparent fluidity of power itself, which include the following: What are the various ways and forms in which one actor seeks to exert control over the environment of other actors? How do power relations manifest themselves in terms of the physical environment? Why are the weaker actors able to resist their more powerful counterparts? These questions explore ways in which actors interact in relation to the

physical environment. Third World political ecologists try to explore the unequal power relations of actors in a politicized environment.

Scholars have undertaken studies where conflicts have been examined to understand power relations that prevail among and between different actors in society. In a study of recreational whale watching, Emily H. Young (2003) applied political ecology to assess the viability of this form of ecotourism for marine conservation and development. She probed into the interacting local and national politics of community-based conservation of common pool resources and their consequences for marine habitats and wildlife (Zimmerer and Bassett 2003). She further examined, 'how the inhabitants of both Laguna San Ignacio and Bahia Magdalena cope with conflicts over access[2] to common pool resources in recreational whale watching' (Young 2003, 31). Another study conducted by Turner (2004) explored farmers-herder conflicts in the Sahel Arid region. Turner (2004, 885) concluded by stating among other things that, 'a focus on resource-related conflicts has served as a powerful methodological tool for political ecologist to expose the range of interests and powers within local communities.'

3.4 Definition of Concepts and Approaches

3.4.1 The Concept of Participation

The concept of participation has been traced as far back as the 1950s in development discourse. A fundamental shift in development thinking according to Wainwright and Wehrmeyer (1998) occurred from the technology-dominated paradigm developed in the 1960s toward a more people-centered (less technocratic) approach of sustainable growth that saw the emergence of participation in development activities.

Participation like 'development' is viewed as having the capacity to bring about positive change and something which everyone has come to believe in and support. Participation has been viewed as a process that leads to empowerment. It can therefore be argued that the ultimate goal of participation is empowerment. Participation then is about power relations. 'This is based on the recognition that those

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[2] Conflict over access to and use of aquatic resources were inherently problematic among small scale producers along the pacific coast of the Baja California peninsula. As the tourism industry grew, so did conflicts among local and outside-based operators over the issues of access rights to water, whales, and tourists (Young 2003, 37).

who wield little power have limited opportunity to express their interest and needs and are generally excluded from key decision-making processes, and that their knowledge is considered insignificant' (Kothari 2002, 142). This has posed questions among participatory practitioners on what participation really entails and which approaches should be adopted to be able to ensure equality in participatory activities.

Table 1: Typology of Participation

Typology	Characteristics of Typology
Manipulative participation	Participation is simply a pretence
Passive participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. External agents define problems and information gathering processed, and so control analysis. Such a consultative process does not concede any share of decision making.
Participation for material incentives	People participate by contributing resources, for example labor, in return for food, cash to other material incentives.
Functional participation	Participation seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals. .People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation of strengthening of local institutions. Participation is seen as a right, not just the means to achieve projects goals.
Self-mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used.

Source: Pretty (1995, 1252)

Chambers (2005, 102) points out that persistent concern has been raised over 'who participates, where, when, with whom and with what equality. Who is excluded from participation, or marginalized in it, whether by gender, age, poverty, social group, religion, occupation, disability or other similar dimension….' Similarly Barrow and Murphree (2001, 28) argue that participation as a ' concept is very broad reflecting the differing interests people have in who participates, for what purposes and on what terms. Participation is known to take many forms. Pretty (1995) identifies seven categories of participation (See Table 1 above).

3.4.1.1 Participatory Approaches

In trying to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in participation, recent years have seen increased popular use of participatory approaches in development theory and practice.

'By the early 1990s, aid donors and development planners had committed themselves in attempts to adopt participatory approaches' (Hulme and Murphree 2001, 17). According to Kothari (2002, 142) 'participatory approaches to development research and planning attempt to challenge the apparent power relations in society by recognizing the control that certain individuals and groups have over others.' Participatory approaches are currently integrated in conservation of most protected areas in Third World countries. The IIED (1994, 18) illustrates that 'the range of different participatory approaches used in wildlife management can be viewed as a continuum ranging from limited input in decision making and control (passive participation) to extensive input in decision-making and control (active participation).'

As a result of the promotion by donors, governments have adopted participatory approaches in development activity. This is based on the increased recognition on the need to involve locals in poor rural communities. However the successes of participatory methods have been a source of concern among practitioners, donors and development workers alike. Limitations to participatory approaches have been recognized. Mutamba (2004, 106) points out that 'indicators and measurement of participatory process and levels at which participation should take place, are some of the difficulties that make the application of the concept less understood and sometimes confusing.' The challenge therefore lies to what extent and at what stage, to involve local people in implementation of projects related to conservation and development such as ecotourism. Brandon and Wells (1992) argue that 'community participation may lead the community to define a set of needs which are not linked to the conservation objectives….This issue has caused some projects to avoid including participation in the preliminary design phases, so they can identify direct linkages.' The challenge also lies on how to balance local participation and interest in conservation.

In his examination of participation issues, Chambers (2005, 104) concluded by stating that 'participation has no final meaning. It is not a rock. Its mobile and malleable, an amoeba, a sculptor's clay, a plasticine shaped as it passes from hand to hand.' He further maintains that 'participation is always something new. It is continuously improvised and invented through interactions and relationships … Good participation

is co-produced, a collective improvisation' (Chambers 2005, 114). In this regard participation can mean quite different things to many. It is also dependent on the focus of those involved and their development orientation. This may imply that flexibility in implementation of participatory approaches should be adopted. Participation may then require active participation of all players to constantly redefine the concept to suite their interests.

3.4.2 The Concept of Community

Community has been identified to be one of the elusive concepts in social sciences. According to IIED (1994) a community can be viewed in three different ways: spatial, social and cultural, and economic terms. IIED (1994, 4) further elaborates that,

> In spatial terms, communities are considered conventionally as groupings of people who physically live in the same place….In social terms and cultural terms, communities refers to groupings of people who are linked by ties of kinship and marriage, including tribes and clans…. In economic terms a community is composed of interest groups-groupings of people who share interest and control over particular resources.

The use of the concept of community and its applications has become a centre of debate. One of the main arguments impinges upon on whether a community can be considered as a homogenous group considering the varying interests within it. 'Donors and project managers have come to realize that it does not necessarily save time to group people together …. If the groupings within a community and the differences between groups are not taken into account, then conflicts emerge that are difficult to resolve' (Fabricius 2004, 31). In depicting the communities and their relationship with their natural resources Agrawal and Gibson (1999, 640) propose a shift in emphasis from,

> The usual assumptions about communities: small size, territorial fixity, group homogeneity, and shared understandings and identities. Instead we suggest a stronger focus on the divergent interests of multiple actors within communities, the interactions or politics through which these interests emerge and different actors interact with each other, and the institutions that influence the outcomes of political processes.

The three proposed foci (actors, interactions and institutions) in 'community-based conservation allow for a better understanding of the factors critical to the success or failure of efforts aimed at local-level conservation' (Agrawal and Gibson 1999, 636).

3.4.2.1 Community Conservation Approaches

'Following the ecological crisis of the 1980s, famine, and deteriorating wild animal populations and habitats, conservationists have been forced to reassess their ideologies and methods' (IIED 1994, 7). From a conservationists perspective, Adams (2004, 117) explains that '… different sets of ideas about the relations between people and protected areas began to develop, emphasizing not the threat local people posed, but the need to foster mutually beneficial relations between protected areas and their neighbours.' New and innovative programmes aimed at removing or reducing the conflict between protected areas and people was under consideration by the international community (Fabricius 2004). By the mid 1980s, there was the emergence of conservation and development projects in developing countries such as Integrated Conservation Development projects (ICDPs). According to Brandon and Wells (1992) the major objective of ICDPs is to reduce the pressure on protected areas. To accomplish this goal projects seek activities which generate benefits to local communities. Scholars have recognized such approaches as "community conservation" or "community based conservation," narratives where people are recognized as co-partners in protected area management.

The emergence of the community-conservation approaches was also a counter reaction to the "fortress conservation" or the "fence and fines" approaches to conservation (that had excluded people from participation in development issues). Adams (2004, 120) argues that 'the community conservation narrative became important in the 1980's, a time of significant shifts in the dominant discourses of development with a rejection of "top down", technocratic planning, … in favour of "development from below," "bottom up planning", and "participatory" development.' (Adams 2004, 120). This implied that the role of the state was under close scrutiny, due to its failure to deliver social and economic development in most Third World countries.

The community-conservation approaches places it focus on the role of the community is natural resource management. 'The involvement of local people in conversation have become a major feature of conservation policy, both in Africa and more widely' (Hulme and Murphree 2001, 9). The community conservation model is adopted by conservation authorities as a mechanism for providing local people with more rights to and responsibility for the natural resources. According to Barrow and Fabricius (2002) the community conservation model emerging in eastern and southern Africa embraced some of the following attributes:

- Allowing communities access to natural resources from which they previously had been barred;
- Sharing revenue from the use of natural resources with communities;
- Making conservation pay for the costs of management as well as community development;
- Involving communities in decision making;
- Recognizing communities' historical rights of tenure to resources and land; and
- Trying to ensure that benefits outweigh costs and support livelihood objectives

Three major types of community-conservation approaches are identified by Barrow and Murphree (2001) which include: protected area outreach, collaborative management and the community-based conservation. The approaches and characteristics are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Approaches to Community Conservation and Some Key Characteristics

	Protected area outreach	Collaborative Management	Community-based conservation
Objectives	Conservation of ecosystems, biodiversity and species	Conservation with some rural livelihood benefit	Sustainable rural livelihoods
Ownership/tenure status	State owned land and resources (e.g. national parks, forest and game reserves)	State owned land with mechanism for collaborative management of certain resources with the community. Complex tenure and ownership arrangements	Local resource users own land and resources either *de jure* or *de facto*. State may have some control of last resort.
Management characteristics	State determines all decisions about resource management	Agreement between state and user groups about managing some resources(s) which are state owned. Management arrangements critical.	Conservation as an element of landuse. An emphasis on developing the rural economy
Focus in East and Southern Africa	Common in East Africa, with little in Southern Africa	East Africa, with some in Southern Africa	Predominant in Southern Africa, but increasing in East Africa

Source: Barrow and Murphree (2001, 31)

In line with Table 2, Zambia like several other southern African countries has adopted community-based conservation approaches. Barrow and Fabricius (2002, 73) specifically state that 'governments and parastatals in Zambia, Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Mozambique switched to a more community oriented approaches.' This approach has placed emphasis on three particular areas, namely: economic incentives; devolution of authority and responsibility to communities and development of communal institutions and structures for the management of these entitlements (Barrow and Murphree 2001). Likewise, Worah (2002,88) argues that the basic principles of community-based conversation are to decentralize resource management to the local level, to put the appropriate system of incentives and the policy environment in place to enable this and to build capacity for local stewardship of natural resources.

One most popular initiative introduced under the community-conservation approach has been the Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) projects. In Zambia, the Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Project (LIRDP) and the Administrative Management Design for Wildlife Management (ADMADE) programme are among the pilot projects that have applied this approach. According to Wainwright and Wehrmeyer (1998, 933) 'these initiatives attempt to combine both conservation and development initiatives into an integrated approach, aimed at promoting rural development-based on natural resources as well as encouraging conservation awareness.' Despite the well intentioned goal of maintaining conservation and improving the well-being of local communities, CBNRM initiatives tend to fall short in delivering this target. For instance 'community participation forms the core of CBNRM paradigm' (Ibid, 933), but more often than not communities have not been able to participate effectively and efficiently in these project activities. Neumann (2005, 146) is of the view that 'the typical CBNRM project of today has not moved global biodiversity conservation very far beyond the fortress park model.' This has been one of the major critiques on community conservation approaches in development.

3.5 Ecotourism Theoretical and Analytical Framework

The concept of ecotourism is surrounded with much debate 'over what it is, what it should be and how it can work are all questions that continue to dominate literature'

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(Orams 2001). This is evident through the lack of consensus in defining the concept of ecotourism. Some scholars have considered the debates regarding the definition of ecotourism as being linked to a semantic debate (Orams 2001). It is therefore not surprising to note a 'great variety of definitions of ecotourism' (Orams 2001, 27).

The Queensland Government (2006) argues that 'despite the variety of definitions, some notable consistencies remain constant with most definitions describing ecotourism as: *nature based; ecologically sustainable; contributing to conservation and local communities; and involving education and interpretation of the natural environment.*' The definitions reflect the complexities and variations in defining the concept of ecotourism. Table 3, below, presents selected definitions on ecotourism and their areas of emphasis based on the common consistencies in definitions of ecotourism in general. Chapter one section 1.2 presents another definition by Ziffer (1989).

Table 3: Selected Definitions of Ecotourism

Source	Definition
Ceballos-Lascurain (1987,14)	Traveling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with a specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas … the person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in a way most people can not enjoy in their routine, urban existence.
The Ecotourism Society (2006)	Responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well being of local people
Honey (1999, 25)	Ecotourism is travel to fragile, pristine, and unsustainable protected areas that strive to be low impact and (usually) small scale. It helps educate the traveler; provides funds for conservation; directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities; and fosters respect for different cultures and for human rights

Duffy (2002) states that while the definition of ecotourism remains elusive, there is broad agreement on the types of impacts that environmentally sensitive tourism should have. In the same vein, Boo (1993) argues that the theoretical impact of ecotourism is well-known. She further indicates that the potential costs are *environmental degradation*, *economic in equity* and *instability*, and *negative socio-cultural* changes. The potential benefits are *generation of funds* for protected areas, *creation of jobs* for people who live near protected areas, and the promotion of *environmental education* and *conservation awareness*.

Against this backdrop what then does ecotourism entail? Ecotourism as a concept is seen as having the potential of reconciling both conservation and development (economic) considerations. Ross and Wall (1999b, 673) state that 'Ecotourism has been widely recognized as a form of nature tourism which is expected to contribute to both conservation and development.' Brandon (1996, 1) indicates that,

> claims of ecotourism potential are generally based on three key assumptions, that ecotourism can (a) offer a source of financing for development or maintenance of natural or culturally important sites; (b) serve as a catalyst for local economic development; and (c) provide needed foreign exchange and national level benefits.

In other words, ecotourism has a two fold objective of promoting conservation and development concerns in a sustainable manner. Figure 4 below, gives an illustration of the ecotourism concept.
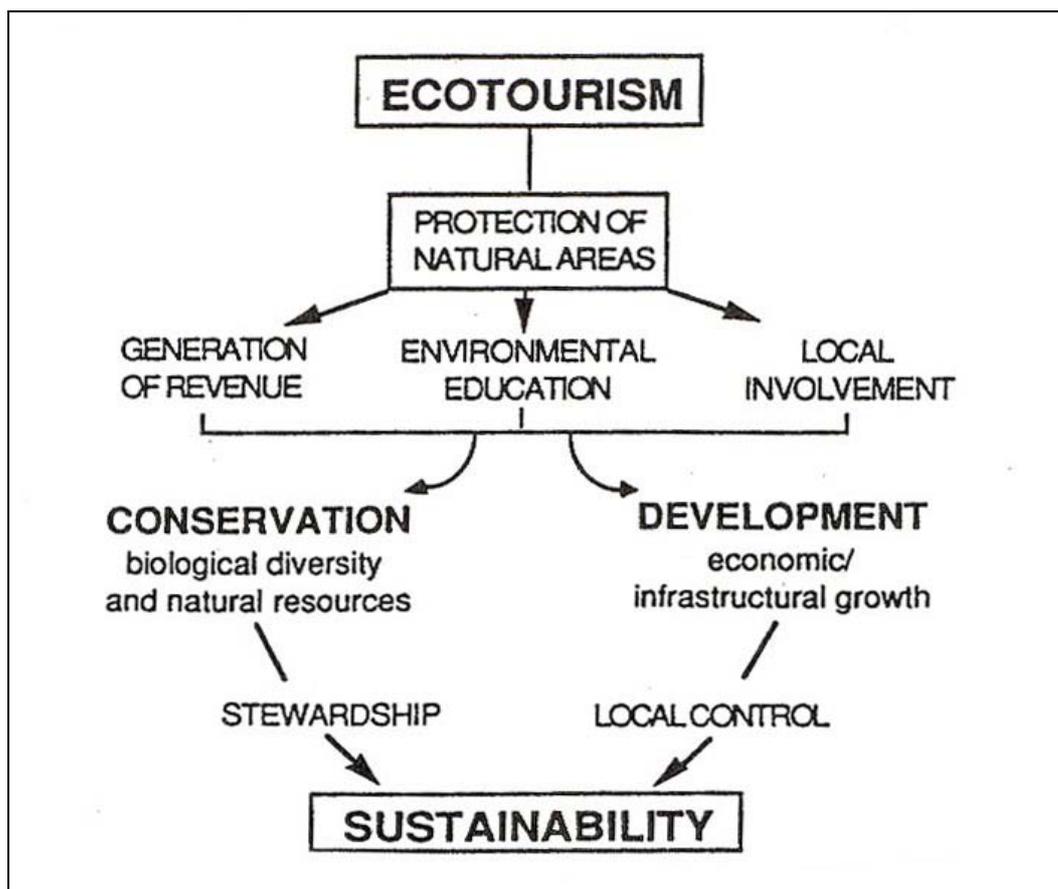
Source: Ross and Wall (1999a, 124)

Figure 4: Ecotourism Protects the Environment while Contributing to Socio-economic Development, and thus Strives for Sustainability.

The 'natural environment is central to ecotourism which has a focus on biological and physical features' (Wearing and Neil 1999, 5). Furthermore, 'ecotourism occurs in, and depends on, a natural setting and may include cultural elements where they occur in a natural setting' (Page and Dowling 2002, 66). One of 'the most obvious characteristics of ecotourism is that it is nature based' (Blamey 2001, 7). Scholars have argued that ecotourism is seen as a subset of nature-based tourism[3] (Brandon 1996, Duffy 2002, Orams 2001, Page and Dowling 2002, Wearing and Neil 1999, Weaver 2001). Activities grouped under nature tourism include 'adventure tourism, fishing, hunting, whale watching and ecotourism' (Page and Dowling 2002, 75). Ecotourism has a strong inclination to nature. 'The very incorporation of the 'eco' in its title suggests that ecotourism should be an ecologically responsible form of tourism' (Ibid, 66).

The WTO (2001) recognizes that 'ecotourism embraces the principles of sustainable tourism concerning, social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism.' Sustainable tourism is derived from the more general concept of sustainable development[4]. Weaver (1998, 5) is of the view that 'the concept of *sustainable tourism* is inextricably linked to the ethic of *sustainable development*, which in theory advocates that people strive to meet present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet there own needs.' Bearing in mind that ecotourism is linked to sustainable tourism, it must aim to achieve sustainable development. Wearing and Neil (1999, 6) point out that 'an essential feature of ecotourism is sustainability-and sustainable development by implication.' One would then argue that in its overall goal ecotourism strives to be sustainable socially, economically and environmentally (as illustrated in the Fig 4). Ziffer (1989) indicates that advocates support the concept of ecotourism as a forceful method of achieving the elusive goal of "sustainable development."

Ecotourism is therefore viewed as having the potential of sustaining the existence of protected areas and fragile ecosystems. In contrast, Page and Dowling (2002 , 68) argue that ecotourism 'is increasingly being adopted by protected area managers and conservation agencies as part of a political philosophy as a means of providing

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[3] Nature –based tourism is where viewing nature is the primary objective (Page and Dowling 2002,74)
[4] Sustainable development was as a result of the publication of *Our Common Future*, The Brundtland Report of the World Commission on the Environment and Development (WCED, 1987).

practical outcomes in the struggle to ensure a basis of continued protection for these areas.' However, proponents of ecotourism view ecotourism as more ecologically sustainable, culturally sensitive and economically beneficial and less likely to bring the negative impacts associated with mass tourism[5] (Brandon 1996, Duffy 2002). The interest in alternative forms of tourism (such as nature, cultural and adventure tourism) as opposed to mass tourism are on the increase. Ziffer (1989) indicates that ecotourism is by definition a planned approach which must carefully assess the impacts and benefits before development begins. If not well planned and managed ecotourism can fall into similar destructive effects as conventional mass tourism (especially on the resource that it tries to protect).

3.5.1 Principles and Characteristics Governing Ecotourism

Ecotourism is guided by specific principles which distinguish it from the wider concept of sustainable tourism (WTO 2002). Similarly to the definitions on ecotourism, the principles governing ecotourism vary slightly but exhibit the same characteristics. The principles act as a guide to ensure that ecotourism takes place to guide its development. Despite the varying set of principles shown in Table 4 similarities do exist. Page and Dowling (2002) outline five core principles that are fundamental to ecotourism, which recognize that ecotourism is *nature based, ecologically sustainable, environmentally educative, and locally beneficial* and *generates tourist satisfaction*. Based on the stipulated core principles, a summary of principles and characteristics on ecotourism in Table 4 is provided.

'Ecotourism principles have become part of many rural struggles over the control of land, resources, and tourism profits' (Honey 1999, 390). The conflicts in ecotourism have been related to issues regarding the distribution of benefits, access to resources and local participation in planning and management issues. Honey (1999, 394) states that 'at the core, ecotourism is about power relationships and on-the-ground struggles.' Bearing that in mind, conflicts in ecotourism development have at local level been related to the prevailing power relations among actors involved in ecotourism. Björk (2007, 25) also argues that 'non-realization of promised benefits, none or weak development and absence of management, have been attributed to a lack of co-ordination between stakeholders involved in ecotourism.'

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[5] Mass tourism development is a phenomenon that has been linked with negative environmental impacts. Its is "growth centered" rather than "people-centered" activity (Singh 2003, 30).

Table 4: Selected Set of Principles and Characteristics on Ecotourism

Wight (1994)	The Ecotourism Society (Lindberg and Hawkins 1993)	Honey (1999) Characteristics of real ecotourism
Its should not degrade the resources and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner	Prepare the traveler to minimize their negative impacts while visiting sensitive environments and cultures before departure	*Involves travel to natural destinations* The destinations are often remote areas … usually under some kind of environmental protection.
Its should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to the community and the industry	Prepare travelers for each encounter with local culture and with native animals and plants	*Minimizes impact.* Ecotourism strives to minimize the adverse effects of hotels, trails, and other infrastructure
It should provide first hand participatory and enlightening experiences	Minimize visitor impacts on the environment by offering literature, briefings, leading by example, and taking corrective actions	*Builds environmental awareness* Ecotourism means education, for both tourist and residents of nearby communities
It should involve education among all parties: local communities, government, non-governmental organizations, industry and tourists (before, during and after the trip)	Use adequate leadership, and maintain small enough groups to ensure minimum group impact on destination. Avoid areas that are under-managed and over visited	*Provides direct financial benefits for conservation.* Ecotourism helps to raise fund for environmental protection, research, and education through a variety of mechanism, including park entrances; tour company, hotels, an airline, and airport taxes; and voluntary contributions
Its should encourage all-party recognition of the intrinsic values of the resource	Ensure managers, staff and contact employees know and participate in all aspects of the company policy to prevent impacts on the environment and local cultures	*Provides financial benefits and empowerment for local people.* The local community must be involved with and receive income and other tangible benefits (potable water, roads, health clinics etc) from the conservation area and its tourist facilities
It should involve acceptance of the resource in its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involves supply-oriented management	Give managers, staff and contact employees access to programmes that will upgrade their ability to communicate with and manage clients insensitive natural and cultural settings.	*Respects local cultures.* Ecotourism strives to be culturally respectful and have a minimal effect on both the natural environment and the human populations of a host country
Its should promote understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could involve government, non-governmental organizations, industry, scientist and locals (both before and during operations)	Be a contributor to the conservation of the region being visited	*Supports human rights and democratic movements.* Ecotourism demands a more holistic approach to travel, one in which participants strive to respect, learn about, and benefit both from the environment and local communities.
It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviour towards the natural and cultural environment by all players	Provide competitive, local employment in all aspects of business operations	
	Offer sensitive accommodations that are not wasteful of local resources or destructive to the environment, which provide ample opportunity for learning about the environment and sensitive interchange with local communities.	

In practice conflicts that arise from the distribution of benefits tend to have an impact on ecotourism development. One of the common arguments is that if local people are

not able to realize the benefits derived from ecotourism they are less likely to support its development. Cater (1994b, 84) points out that 'conflicts are particularly evident in the case of ecotourism development, where not only may the local populations be denied any direct benefits, but may also be actively disadvantaged. They may well be physically excluded from the very resources on which they depend for their basic needs.' Ecotourism should be able to provide local socio-economic benefits such as employment opportunities; improved local infrastructure (transport communications, access to and provisions of goods and services); improved access to social benefits (e.g. health care, education); improved intercultural relations and appreciation (through positive interactions from host and tourist) and local capacity building towards self-sufficiency, decentralization or local empowerment (Ross and Wall 1999).

Further linked to the aspect of benefits is the sustenance of local livelihoods. More often than not when protected areas are gazetted locals lose their source of traditional livelihood strategies. The classic example of the Maasai pastoralists of Kenya and Tanzania illustrates this scenario. Weaver (1998, 219) argues that 'for local rural communities protected areas are often perceived as an alien concept, which deny them access to necessary resources.' The resources that provide a means of survival are withheld from the indigenous local community. Cater (1994b, 84) argues that 'if the traditional means of economic livelihood is being removed from a community, it must be replaced be an alternative.' The inclusion of the local people in planning and management has been one way of addressing conflicts at local level. The Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) of Nepal has been cited as one example of community involvement ecotourism.

One of the fundamental elements of true ecotourism is the participation and involvement of local communities and peoples in close proximity to a site. Drake (1991, 132) defines local participation as the 'ability of local communities to influence the outcome of development projects such as ecotourism that have an impact on them.' Local participation is a process that should go beyond, simply sharing in social and economic benefits but the participatory process should help people to have more substantial control over their own lives (Brandon 1993). Cater (1994b, 84) points out that this 'involvement must not only be in the form of hand-

outs or doles, or even the provision of schools, hospital and social services financed from tourism revenue.' Duffy (2002) points out that ecotourism is associated with allowing local communities a greater degree of participation in the planning and management of development in their areas. True local participation should involve effective ownership and control by the community. 'Key issues for indigenous involvement in ecotourism include land and resource rights and the equitable sharing of tourism benefits' (Zeppel 2007, 336). Drake (1991) views local participation as a necessary component of sustainable development generally and ecotourism specifically. Local participation in ecotourism entails providing a sustainable option for the social-cultural, economic and environmental well-being of communities.

The role of institutions or organization has been identified as playing an effective role in sustaining local participation than individual participation. Brandon (1993, 146) argues that 'local institutions act as a focus of mobilization among local people, a way of involving people directly in nature-tourism projects. Organizations can serve as a link between local people and external organizations.' The role of institutions is vital for fostering local communities to participate and influence decision-making in ecotourism projects.

Generally 'ecotourism is a complex and multidisciplinary phenomenon' (Ceballos-Lascuráin 1993, 13). Western (1993, 7) further points out that 'ecotourism is really an amalgam of interests arising out of environmental, economic, and social concerns.' Protected areas supporting ecotourism are often managed by a number of agencies with conflicting goals and objectives. This has made it virtually impossible to develop coherent management or ecotourism policy's for areas (Whelan 1991). The lack of consensus on definition and principles has not provided a homogenous picture of what ecotourism really stands for. This has caused problems in implementation and operationalisation of the concept itself. The unique nature of different ecotourism areas, regions and destinations around the globe has without doubt made this a difficult task (Björk 2007).

Bearing that in mind, ecotourism should be recognized as a collaborative effort that involves a range of different actors which include governments, conservationists, communities, tour operators and development agencies. The concept and practice of

ecotourism brings together different actors and has emerged as a platform to establish partnerships (Drumm and Moore 2005). Ceballos-Lascuráin (1993, 13) argues that 'only through intersectoral involvement will ecotourism truly achieve its goals. Governments, the private enterprise, local communities, and nongovernmental organization all have an important role to play.'

3.5.2 The Ecotourism Analytical Framework

The analytical framework on ecotourism as presented by Ross and Wall (2001, 271) 'provides both the means of articulating the relationships among key aspects of tourism as well as a pictorial means of indicating the status of ecotourism at particular sites.' The framework describes terms of policies, management strategies and the responsibilities of different actors in the ecotourism industry. Ross and Wall (1999a, 126) argue that 'although simple, the framework emphasizes the significance of fostering positive links between people, natural resources or biodiversity and tourism. The strength or weakness of any one link has implications on other links.'
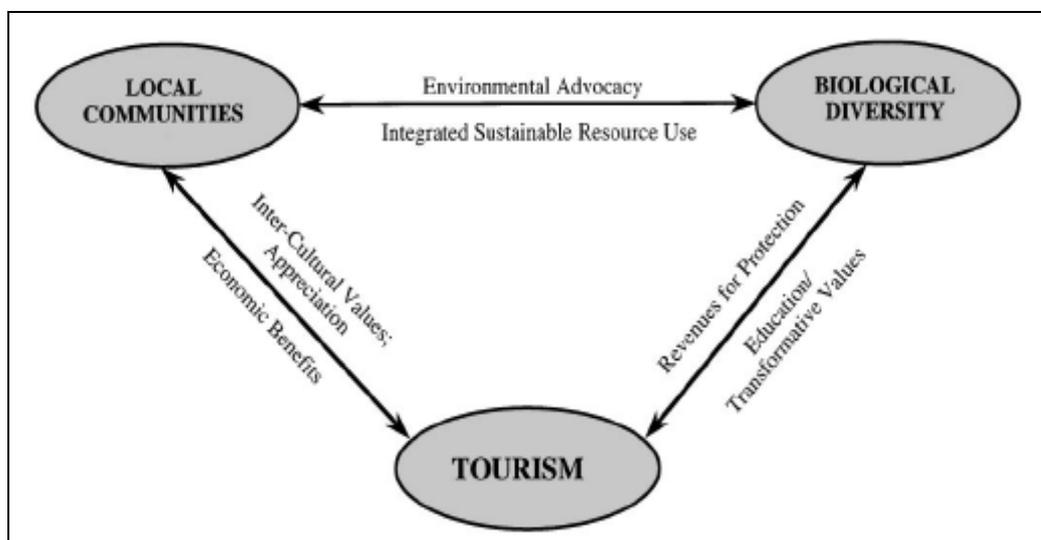
Source: Ross and Wall (1999a, 126)

Figure 5: The Ecotourism Paradigm: In successful Ecotourism, the Dynamics between People, Resources and Tourism are such that each makes Positive Contributions to the other.

In essence the framework is twofold in nature. Firstly it looks into the interrelationships among actors within ecotourism, for instance, the relationships between local communities and the resource use. Rural communities have used these resources to sustain their livelihoods through activities such as shifting cultivation,

'slash and burn agriculture, cattle farming, hunting, fishing, wood collection, timber harvesting and mineral extraction (water, trees, game, minerals and, most of all, land and soils) to sustain large populations' (Ross and Wall 1999a, 127). Through the framework positive synergistic links between people, biodiversity and tourism can be examined. Figure 5, presents the ecotourism interrelationships.

Secondly the framework further assesses the institutional arrangements and administrative commitments. Ross and Wall (1999a,129) argue that 'the development of positive relationships between people, resources and tourism is very unlikely to occur without implementation of effective policies, management strategies, and involvement of a wide range of organizations, including NGOs and, in developing areas, conservation and development assistance agencies.' The policies and management strategies developed have a significant influence on the success of ecotourism. Figure 6 presents the management roles in relation to other actors.
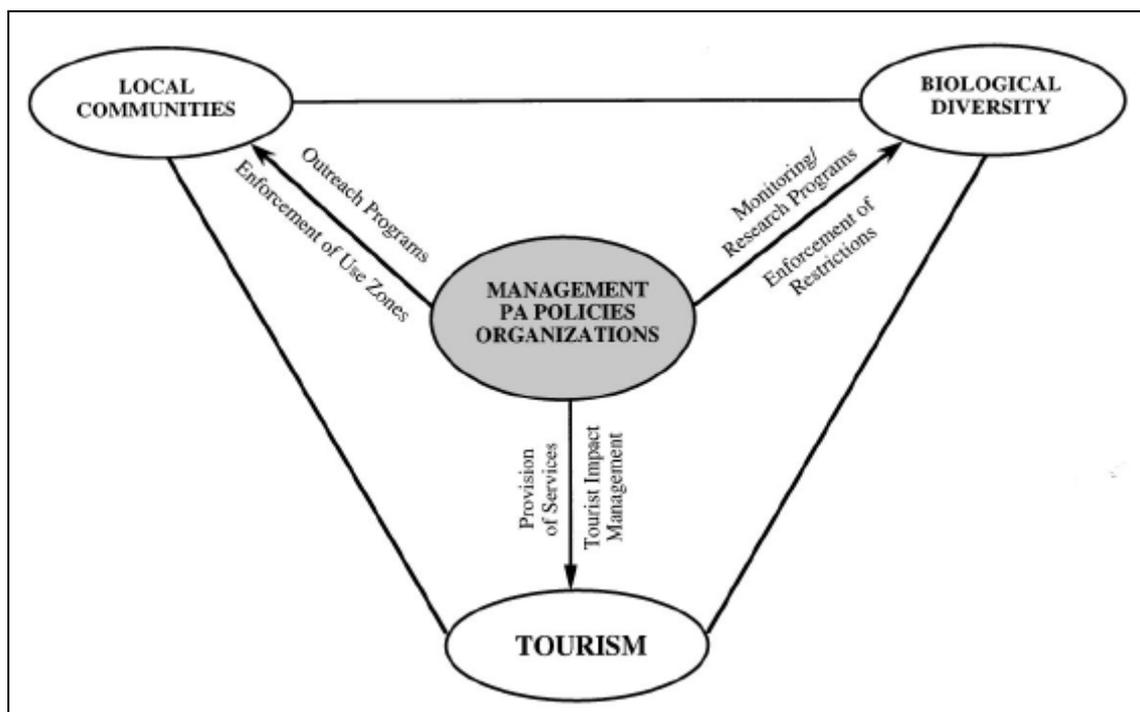
Source: Ross and Wall (1999a, 130)

Figure 6: Management Agencies, Protected Area Policies and other Organizations such as Local NGO's or Development Assistance Agencies Influence the Attainment of Symbiotic Relationships

Through the analytical framework on ecotourism the present study was able to assess the status of ecotourism at the case study site. By focusing on both the existing relationships among actors, the management polices and institutional organizations

the study was able to explore opportunities and constraints in the development of ecotourism at Kasanka National Park and surrounding areas.

3.6 Summary

The chapter has presented the main features of political ecology and the concepts forming the basis for this study, alongside their respective approaches. The concepts of 'participation', 'community' and 'ecotourism' are defined and explained. The main area of emphasis from political ecology in connection with the study has included examining the relationship of actors to their environment and among themselves. Through the concepts of 'community' and 'participation' and their approaches such Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM), the role of the community in ecotourism involvement and management is discussed. Through political ecology the study further discusses the common forms of injustices that actors encounter, such as the local community who live near protected areas set aside for ecotourism development. The chapter further discusses the ecotourism theoretical framework which has been adopted to examine the relationships among actors involved in ecotourism destinations and examining the status of ecotourism in the area.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The chapter will discuss the methods that were adopted to collect the empirical data during the field research. The chapter will further explain the criteria used to select the respondents and how the data collected was analyzed. The positionality taken by the researcher in relation to social, academic and background information related to the study will be discussed. The chapter will further discuss how the aspects of validity and reliability of data were dealt with during the study. The chapter will conclude with a discussion on the limitations and challenges encountered during the field work. The section that follows discusses the research design, and provides the background from which the approach and methodologies used during the study were chosen.

4.2 Research Design

The research design provided the basis for the researcher to decide on which research approach to adopt for the study. The approach could either be qualitative or quantitative or a combination of both, while the methods are determined by the approach taken. The research design further provided the basis for analysing the data collected. In other words, the research design can be seen as compass that aids the collection and analysis of empirical data. This aids the researcher to take into consideration the '… practical constraints relating to the size of the study, time availability, resource availability, and physical costs of undertaking the study' (Kitchin and Tate 2000, 38). Valentine (2001, 41) is of the view that 'a research design is a result of a series of decisions we make that emerge from our knowledge of the academic literature, the research questions we want to ask, our conceptual framework and our knowledge of the advantages and disadvantages of the different techniques.'

However, scholars have noted that there is no blueprint for how a research design can be developed. For instance Kitchin and Tate (2000, 34) are of the view that, 'It is difficult to provide a foolproof guide as to how to design your research strategy … there is no set way to conduct research – no magic or all pervasive formula.' Much of

the research design is dependent on the researchers' creativity and imagination (Ibid). This entailed that all aspects that refer to the decisions attributed to the methodological aspects of the study were addressed in the research design through the researcher's own judgment.

A literature review was conducted to gain further understanding into how the topic has been addressed in the past and present day. This provided a foundation upon which to undertake the present study. The literature review revealed that studies have been done on this topic in prime ecotourism destinations such as Costa Rica, Belize, Nepal, Kenya, Tanzania to mention but a few. I therefore contemplated exploring such a study from the Zambian perspective. This was with the understanding that Zambia is among countries with a growing potential for ecotourism development on the African continent and the world as a whole. To achieve this I adopted the qualitative research approach. The selection of the approach was entirely dependent on the nature of the study that focuses on drawing different thoughts, feelings and attitudes from actors involved in ecotourism development. According to Creswell (2003, 23), 'the choice of which approach to use is based on the research problem, personal experiences, and the audiences for whom one seeks to write.' Creswell (2003, 18) further states that:

> A qualitative approach is one in which the enquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e. meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e. political, issue oriented, collaborative, or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenemonologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies. The researcher collects opened-ended, emerging data with intent of developing themes from the data.

The research applied the case study strategy of inquiry in 'which the researcher explores in depth a program, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals' (Ibid). The case study approach was considered suitable for this study, as some scholars have argued that the success of ecotourism is relatively dependent on a country's social, economic and cultural situation. It was the intention of this study to investigate how actors in the locality engage in ecotourism issues in the area. The

generation of information involved the combination of both primary and secondary data collection methods.

4.3 Justification of Methodology Adopted

The choice of qualitative methods as opposed to quantitative was based on the nature of the study, which takes a social dimension. For this study qualitative methods were considered appropriate to investigate on how viable ecotourism is for the local community. Limb and Dwyer (2001, 6) argue that 'the emphasis when using qualitative methodologies is to understand lived experience and to reflect on and interpret the understandings and shared meanings of people of everyday social worlds and realities.' Further, Phillmore and Goodson (2004, 3) are of the view that 'qualitative methods are employed to collect data about activities, events, occurrences and behaviors and seek understanding of actions, problems and processes in their social context.'

Qualitative methods were further considered appropriate as the research intended to capture the different worldviews of stakeholders involved in ecotourism. Since ecotourism is characterized by a range of stakeholders with different interests, 'qualitative methods are a useful way of proceeding when we are interested in a multiplicity of meanings, representations and practices' (Limb and Dwyer 2001, 24). Qualitative methods were used to ensure that the research generated information that reflected the divergent knowledge of stakeholders involved in ecotourism in Kasanka National Park and surrounding areas. This gave me an understanding of how respondents viewed issues raised during the interviews.

Qualitative methods have, however, their own limitations. Qualitative methods have been criticized as having a form of bias: for instance the positionality of the researcher could have an impact on the research and therefore affect the findings. That being the case, different researchers conducting a similar study, where both use qualitative methods, are likely to have different interpretations. In the same vein, Kvale (1996, 64) refers to the claim that, 'qualitative research interview lacks objectivity.' Objectivity in this case implies simply a freedom from bias by the researcher. The critique of positivistic, qualitative social science methods maintains that no research can be value free. However, interviews that are either quantitative or qualitative should strive to free themselves from bias by asking about all sides of a question in a neutral manner.

Sofield (2003,103) is of the view that '… no researcher is entirely objective, devoid of feelings, emotions and ideology in pursuit of intellectual endeavors, but balance as a desirable trait is sometimes difficult to attain.'

Another criticism of qualitative research is that information generated from a relatively low sample of respondents is not representative of the population, and can therefore not be generalized. To address this critique the study adopted a case study for the research. Though information drawn from a case study can not be generalized, it is able to provide in-depth insight, richness and understanding to issues under investigation. The weaknesses and strengths of each of the qualitative methods are discussed under each of the data collection methods applied for the study.

4.4 Data Collection Methods

Primary sources included Semi Structured Interviews (SSI), tourist questionnaires, a focus group discussion and direct observation. In addition text analysis of secondary sources was undertaken. The data collection techniques applied to generate data are discussed as follows:

4.4.1 Semi–Structured Key Informant and Individual Interviews

Semi-Structured Interviews (SSI) were one of the primary data collection methods, used for both key informants and individual respondents selected to participate in the research. SSI were regarded as an effective tool to capture the opinions and feelings among the range of stakeholders on the topic. Limb and Dwyer (2001, 29) state that, 'qualitative methods are methodologically appealing because they allow a wide range of experiences to be documented, voices to be heard, representations to be made and interpretations to be extracted ….' In the same vein, Valentine (2001, 44) is of the view that the 'advantage of interviewing is that it generates a lot of information quickly, it enables the researcher to cover a wide variety of topics, it helps to clarify issues raised by the participant and to follow up anticipated themes as they arise.' Interviews are, therefore, 'suited for studying people's understanding of the meanings in their lived world, describing their experiences and understanding, and clarifying and elaborating their own perspective on their lived world' (Kvale 1996, 105).

On the other hand, in-depth interviews have been criticized as being highly dependent on the interpersonal skills and listening skills of the interviewer (Limb and Dwyer

2001, 29). This implies that it is mainly dependent on how the interviewer expresses oneself and interacts with respondents to ensure that the required information is obtained from the interviewee as planned. The chance of diverting the conversation by the interviewee (in most cases) has been identified as another disadvantage of interviews. Thus, the interviewer is faced with a challenge of keeping the interview on course to avoid omitting vital questions that will address the objectives of the study as reflected in the interview guide. Kvale (1996, 103) points out that, 'good interviews require expertise – in both subject matter and interaction.'

Against this backdrop, the interview process was carried out with caution bearing in mind the weaknesses and strengths that surround interviews. The key informant interviews were used to seek factual information while the individual interviews sought to obtain opinions, feelings and attitudes with regard to the development of ecotourism. Interviews conducted with key informants included an official from the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources (MTENR), officials from the Zambia Wildlife Authorities (ZAWA), Park Manager of Kasanka Trust Limited (KTL) and officials from the KTL Community Relations Department (CRD), Zambia Ecotourism Association (ZETA) and the Zambia National Tourist Board (ZNTB). Respondent interviews were undertaken with a representative of the Development Services International (DSI), Traditional Leader – Chief Chitambo IV at Chalilo, a member of the Chitambo Community Resources Board (CRB) and Community members from Chipundu, Misheshi and Mpelembe.

Interview guides were formulated to conduct the above mentioned interviews. The questions were open ended in nature and similar for the key informants and respondent interviews respectively. This provided a basis on which to compare responses and to understand the different views and opinions over issues raised in the interview guides. Several questions were formulated and rephrased in the field. This provided me the opportunity to probe upcoming issues as encountered in the field. Inaddition informal interviews were also conducted with selected respondents to clarify and confirm on issues raised during the main interviews.

4.4.2 Tourist Questionnaire Guides

A questionnaire was administered to tourists with open-ended questions through a research assistant who was an employee of the national park and had easy access to the target. I personally was limited regarding access to the tourists due to the fact that as I was lodging at the research centre which was 8 km away from the tourists' lodges. To this effect a tourist questionnaire guide was administered based on the interview guide. A sum of seven questionnaire guides were administered to generate primary information towards the study. The questionnaire guide introduced the main purpose of the study and other issues of concern were explained on the cover page (See Appendix I for tourist questionnaire). It was envisaged that the tourists would be able to supply vital information to express their feelings and expectations with regard to the status and development of ecotourism in the KNP and surroundings areas. However based on the analysis of the tourist questionnaires it was observed that not all the questionnaires were answered adequately by respondents. This can be mainly attributed to the fact that an interview with the tourist would have been most appropriate (as initially planned) as this would have provided an opportunity to probe further on issues raised in the questionnaire guide.

4.4.3 Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussions were also considered as one of the effective techniques to generate information on ecotourism since it involves a range of stakeholders. For instance, Bedford and Burgess (2001, 124) are of the view that 'focus groups are especially useful when you want to compare the 'worldviews' of different sectors or groups of people in an efficient way.' In a similar way to Semi-Structured Interviews, (SSI) focus group discussions 'are ''semi- structured,'' since the interviewer's skills are used to introduce a list of topics, to encourage wide discussion and to learn about the concerns and opinions of community members' (Nichols 2002, 19). This entails that the full control of the interviewer is required to ensure that relationships between group members are managed and the outlined topics for discussion are dealt with by members of the group. In the same vein, Kvale (1996, 101) argues that 'the group interaction, however, reduces the interviewer's control of the interview situation and the price may be a relatively chaotic data collection, with difficulties for systematic analysis and intermingling voices.' Group control is therefore cardinal when using this approach.

The focus group discussion provided an opportunity to observe the power relations that prevail among actors involved in ecotourism at community level. The focus group comprised community members at a co-operative based at Njelele. A total of 10 members from the cooperative comprising both the men and women (the latter in the majority) were present. An interpreter from CRD assisted in simplifying the questions to ensure that they were well understood by the group. The presence of the Chairperson and Vice Chairperson was given due recognition by the group members and the interpreter. This resulted in topics of discussion been directed to the Chairperson and Vice Chairperson only through the interpreter. I got the impression that the group and interpreter felt that these two persons were more capable to articulate on issues raised. The other members, especially the women, did not engage in the discussion. To capture the women's views I requested that they be given an opportunity to discuss issues raised. Despite the domination of the elite community leaders in the community, the discussion shed light on how the community was engaged with ecotourism issues in the area in conjunction with other actors, such as the park management (KTL) and the local wildlife authorities (ZAWA).

4.4.5 Direct Observation

Field observations were another method applied to shed more light on the status of issues under investigation in the study area. The observations helped to verify information and compare responses gathered from the interviewees. For instance, through interviews with respondents, it was learnt that physical infrastructure such as a clinic and schools had been built for use by the community. Furthermore, observations were applied in the community to assess what kind of strategies the locals were engaged in to sustain their livelihoods. Photographs were taken of some of the types of income generating activities. Site visits of proposed areas for the community ecotourism projects at Chipundu (near the David Livingstone Memorial) and a proposed campsite for tourists were among the observations made.

Inaddition, a guided tour of the park with one of the park guides was conducted and observations over what the park had to offer in terms of ecotourism were carried out. The guided tour provided information on the various types of flora and fauna found in the park. Photographs were taken of the unique papayras vegetation and the puku (*Kobus vardonii*) one of the dominant animal species in the park.

4.4.6 Text Analysis of Secondary Data Sources

The use of secondary sources played a major role in the field work research, especially at the study area. The resource material analyzed include policy and legal documents supporting ecotourism development namely, the Tourism Policy of 1997, National Parks and Wildlife Policy of 1998 and the Zambia Wildlife Act No.12 of 1998. The data collected was reviewed, analyzed and provided a basis for further enquiry and investigation. The documents shed light on the extent of stakeholder collaboration in the sector and the level of community participation in ecotourism.

Through the Kasanka National Park Management and its Community Relations Department, annual and field reports were analyzed for further insight and understanding into the programmes and projects that have been promoted to engage the local community into various conservation programmes and livelihoods strategies. Upon reading the text, I gained background knowledge on the how the park was privatized and the commencement of community projects in the area. Further analysis of texts, gave me insight into the challenges experienced in the implementation and management of ecotourism in Kasanka National Park and the surrounding communities. For instance, the aspect of poaching was one on the issues that resurfaced in documents and reports. It was identified as one of the major threats to the development of ecotourism in the area. This brought to light arguments put across by political ecologists with regard to conflicts over access and use of resources that reflect power relations within communities. However, not all the material collected was analyzed immediately due to limited time in the field coupled with delays in access of information from respondents. The analysis of documents had to be further carried out during the writing of the thesis to help in the consolidation of both the primary and secondary data collected in readiness for interpretation.

4.5 Selection of Respondents

The respondents were selected using purposive sampling to address the research questions and objectives of the topic under study. Creswell (2003, 185) points out that the 'idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and research question.' For instance, the key informants were selected based on their professional capacity to articulate on issues of concern raised in the study. The community was another target group selected both purposefully and on the basis

of convenience and accessibility to their respective villages. This entailed that communities living within the vicinity of the park were mainly approached to participate in the study. The nearest communities gave easiest access due to the fact that the transport network in the areas was poor. Other respondents such as the tourist, who participated in the study, were selected randomly and with their consent to participate in the study. Snowball sampling was also applied and provided insight into the dimensions of ecotourism development in the country.

4.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation

The analysis of data was guided by the theoretical themes and the actor-oriented approach in political ecology, and the objectives and research questions that this study aimed to address. Community and participatory development, and group conflicts in resources use were themes from political ecology that provided a basis for analysis of data. The concepts and approaches of participation and community-conservation formed the basis of further data analysis. Data was also analyzed using the ecotourism theoretical framework which provided a descriptive framework for analysing the data collected in the case study area. The case study method provided a detailed description of the setting and individuals involved in ecotourism in the locality.

From interviews conducted in the field, data were transcribed and coded into themes in relation to the theory, concepts and the interviewees' responses and researcher's observations. According to Creswell (2003, 190), 'the process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data.' The transcribed interview data is organized into categories and themes and interpreted in line with the theoretical themes. In the analysis of secondary data, text analysis is applied (as discussed in section 4.4.6). The analysis of findings drawn from observations is equally linked to the interviews and to, secondary data collected and analyzed in the field. In other words, observations are related to the analysis as they provide a basis for confirmation of what was recorded in the interviews and discoveries made in secondary sources of data. Finally, once the data is coded into themes or categories, making an interpretation or meaning of data can be based on the

researcher's personal interpretations, enquiry or from meanings drawn from the literature or existing theory (Creswell 2003).

4.7 Positionality and Reflexivity

The role of the researcher as the primary data collection instrument necessitates the identification of personal values, assumptions and biases at the outset of the study, (Creswell 2003, 200). The positionality of the researcher in relation to the researched and the research topic has been argued as having the potential to influence the outcome of the study. Scholars have argued that knowledge is situated and, therefore, researchers should aim to neutralize subjectivity through critical reflective analysis. For instance, in feminist research studies it has been emphasized that a critical reflective analysis on the use of all methods is required, as the researcher's positionality is likely to affect aspects of the research process and this determines what counts as knowledge and how that knowledge is produced. The researcher also needs to bear in mind the power relations encountered in the field with the researched to ensure that data collected is both valid and reliable.

Much of the interest and motivation to carry out this study emanated from the literature reviewed that impinged on the challenges of conservation and development in protected areas in Africa and most third world countries (upon my commencement of the current masters programme). This provided the foundation of establishing my thesis research topic. Issues of conservation and development have been a source of concern among stakeholders involved in this field. There have been controversies, critiques and debates surrounding conservation and development approaches. Critiques have questioned whether the alliance between conservation and development is an attainable goal. Tourism comes in as one of the aspects that most third world countries engage in to ensure that both conservation and development are achieved.

I am an employee of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources (MTENR) under the Department of Tourism (DOT) as a Tourism Development and Research Officer. This background has to some extent played a role in my choice of study exploring issues of conservation and development from a tourism perspective. I must, however, clarify that much of the information generated in the field was hardly

based on my professional position. On the contrary, I had a lot of lessons to learn through the interviews conducted with those who participated in the study and this provided another dimension over how I currently view issues on conservation and development, particularly in tourism. This entailed that I had to set aside much of the tacit knowledge I had acquired from my profession and listen to what the respondents had to say on the topic. Through these encounters I learnt to reflect on the issues discussed to avoid personal biases on my part over the data collected. It is, therefore, the intention of this study to present the views, feelings, thoughts and suggestions of those who participated in the study as a true reflection of what was researched and not my individual ideas.

4.8 Validity and Reliability of Research Findings

Most research studies, either qualitative or quantitative, strive to attain validity and reliability. 'Validity concerns the soundness, legitimacy and relevance of a research theory and its investigation…. Reliability refers to repeatability or consistency of a finding…' (Mikkelsen 1995, 34). Triangulation[6] was the approach taken to ensure that both validity and reliability of the research findings was ascertained. Through triangulation different sources of information are adopted. Triangulation provided a basis to 'overcome the problems that stem from studies relying upon a single theory, single methods, single set of data and single investigator' (Mikkelsen 1995, 5). Since the methods adopted had limitations, it was anticipated that through triangulation the weaknesses that prevail in each method would be addressed. Kvale (1996) points out that the same phenomena can be investigated from different angles, by including different informants and methods to determine the precise meaning and validity. The use of multiple methods or different sources of information allowed the study to address the research questions and cross-check information exhaustively.

Though efforts were made to ensure that both validity and reliability of the empirical data was taken into consideration, I cannot dispute the fact that all information collected was not completely perfect. Challenges encountered in the field were unavoidable and could have to some extent contributed to the limitations in the generation of credible empirical data.

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[6] The process of drawing on different sources or perspectives is known as triangulation (Valentine 2001, 45)

4.9 Limitations of the Study and Challenges Encountered

This section will aim to shed more light on the context in which the data was collected, accessed and analyzed during the field work research. The time set aside for a qualitative study is cardinal for the study to ensure that the target group is met. As I had limited time in the field, targeted respondents, such as some of the development agencies and donor organizations engaged in community projects at Kasanka, were not able to be interviewed to get their perspectives on the support they render to the KNP and the surrounding communities living adjacent to the parks.

I therefore had to concentrate my focus by contacting and interviewing the key informants that were directly involved in the park. These included KNP, ZAWA and MTENR to ensure that specific and detailed information with regard to how the park is managed, alongside how the local community participates and benefits was sought.

Another main limitation was at Kasanka National Park where I needed to visit different communities to assess how they were participating in ecotourism through CBNRM projects in the area. Villages that were within reach were visited. The lack of a good transport network in the area was the main limitation in accessing the communities. Out of the 14 Village Areas Groups (VAG's) in the area only 5 were visited. This limited some of the collection of information captured; for instance, I was unable to reach some villages that were claimed to have been successful in income generating activities such as bee-keeping at Mapepala VAG. This is when I fell back to the secondary data and examined the progress reports of the various activities that the other villages I could not access were engaged in. Due to the same limitation, focus groups discussions could not be conducted with all the communities. Only one focus group was conducted and this was with the nearest community to the park. Efforts to conduct focus groups with other communities were limited by communication efforts. This also coincided with the season when the locals paid tribute to their chief who at the same time was conducting village inspections of the chiefdom. In addition, a focus group discussion could not be conducted with the Community Resource Board under ZAWA as the board was dissolved when I arrived at the park (the new board had to be officially appointed following the CRB elections in the area). As a result, individual interviews were conducted in other communities through the Chairpersons of the respective VAGs and co-operatives. An individual

interview was also conducted with an outgoing member of the CRB in the area. Although the focus group discussions were not conducted as planned, the individual interviews were equally beneficial as respondents were able to express themselves on a one on one basis and they brought out issues that provided in-depth information for the study.

As a result of the poor transport network in the area, I had to use different means of transport such as a motor bike (through the help of the park management) and this meant that I had no research assistant to accompany me at times to assist in recording of interviews. The use of the tape recorder was not possible as it had a faulty battery system. This meant that all interviews had to be hand noted and vital information could have been lost both during the questioning sessions and writing up of responses from the interviewees.

To access the communities I linked up with KTL Community Relations officers from time to time as they went about conducting their community duties. The officers were well placed for supplying background information on the locality of most communities and the activities the locals were engaged in. Their presence could have to some extent had an impact on how the respondents answered questions. Where I observed the effect of power relations on the interviewees I asked the respondents to express themselves and assured them that this study was purely for fulfillment of my academic programme. This made most respondents relax during the interview. Some respondents felt that their opinions were a true representation of what was prevailing and were not intimidated by the presence of any park official. I got the impression that it was an opportunity for some respondents to make known their views to the park officials. Against this backdrop, I was able to capture the general feelings, opinions and thoughts of those I interviewed in relation to the questions posed in this study.

4.10 Summary

This chapter discusses the practicalities, processes and challenges that were encountered during field work. The chapter has emphasized that data was collected using the qualitative approach through the triangulation of methods. The same data was transcribed into themes and categories for further interpretation based on the research questions posed and the theoretical approach taken. The transcription and

interpretation of data was conducted in the field and continued during the further analysis of the findings. This was intended to ensure that data was cross-checked and verified to guarantee validity and reliability of collected data.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS TOWARDS ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the existing institutional policies and legal frameworks that have been put in place to support the development of ecotourism in the country. The major policies and legal instruments supporting ecotourism in Zambia include the Wildlife Act (ZAWA 1998), National Park and Wildlife Policy (MOT 1998), Tourism Policy (MOT 1999) and the forthcoming Community Based Natural Management Policy (ZAWA n.d). The chapter will discuss how the existing policies and legislation have made provisions for community benefits, local participation and devolution of power at local level. The chapter also seeks to identify limitations and gaps in existing legal instruments in relation to the areas of discussion.

5.1.1. Institutional Policies and Legal Provisions Supporting Ecotourism in Protected Areas

Institutions involved in execution of the policies related to ecotourism in national parks include the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources (MTENR) through the Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA). The MTENR plays an advisory role and coordinates the functions of the ZAWA and legislates on matters pertaining to the Wildlife Policy. The MTENR through the Department of Tourism (DOT) has a responsibility for formulation, and analysis of policy framework in the development, product quality, promotion, diversification and marketing of the tourism industry. The DOT therefore facilitates the management and implementation of the tourism policy. The Department is also responsible for the implementing of regulatory and legislative frameworks for tourism development. The Tourism Act of 1979, as amended in 1985, is the principal Act governing the industry, which sets out the terms and requirements for licensing all tourism enterprises. The Act is in the process of been replaced as a new Tourism and Hospitality Bill is currently before parliament

The Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA) is a semi-autonomous statutory agency mandated to manage the conservation and utilization (both consumptive and non-consumptive) of wildlife and national parks. The ZAWA has additional

responsibilities for regulating the formation and operation of Community Resource Boards (CRBs) in Game Management Areas (GMAs) and other open areas as well as a duty to devise and implement sustainable management plans for national parks. See Appendix III for institutional arrangements for protected area management of national parks and game management areas in Zambia.

The Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998 provides for the current management of Zambia's protected areas that is national parks. In addition it also provides for protected species, licensing, entry in wildlife protected areas, management plan retirements for national parks and game management areas and the enforcement of wildlife related for compliance with international agreements. The Wildlife Act further provides for the formation of GMAs where both the state and the rural communities contribute to wildlife management. Appendix III also shows that Community Resources Boards (CRB) which are local institutions have a significant role towards the implementation of sector policies at local level. The Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998 provides for the establishment of the CRBs located in GMA's.

5.1.2. Policy and Legal Provisions for Community Benefits

One of the main principles of ecotourism is in the provision of local community benefits for the sustainable protection of national parks and pristine areas. The Tourism Policy of 1999 supports the need for communities to access and benefit from tourism growth. With regard to ecotourism activities located in national parks, surrounding areas and game management areas ZAWA collects revenues through park entry fees, vehicle and aircraft landing fees, tourism concession agreements, bed night levies and hunting licenses. From the revenues collected by ZAWA the distribution criterion is not standardized. In other words there are no guidelines on how revenues generated from such activities are to be equitably distributed among stakeholders.

Whilst the Tourism Policy (MOT 1999) identifies the need by the community to access benefits it is silent on the distribution criteria, the percentages are not stated. Likewise, The Wildlife Act (ZAWA 1998) and the National Parks and Wildlife Policy (MOT 1998) are also silent in this regard. Percentages on how profits are to be distributed are not provided for in both of the legal instruments.

Table 5: Focus Areas Needing Alignment between the National Parks and Wildlife Policy and the Zambia Wildlife Act in Relation to Protected Area Management

Main Focus Area	National Parks and Wildlife Policy	Zambia Wildlife Act
Mission Statements	• To encourage tourism promotion and development	• To control and management the wildlife estate
Main Objectives	• No objectives set	• Objectives set
Planning for Wildlife Areas	• Very detailed; should form part of planning procedures manual	• Planning procedures need to be elaborated
Local Level Institutions	• Integrated Resources Development Boards (IRBD) as institutions to facilitate stakeholder and local level participation	• Community Resource Boards (CRB) are provided for.
GMA Management	• Need to describe include a description of the purpose and objectives; • Management of sanctuaries omitted	• Objectives and purpose clearly articulated
Mechanisms for Revenue Sharing	• All revenues and benefits from GMAs to the IRDB/CRBs • Funds to be controlled by IRDB/CRBs and report to ZAWA on the use of funds • *No percentage shares detailed*	• *Act not specific on percentage of revenues accruing to CRBs Chiefs or ZAWA*
Host Ministry	• Policy refers to Ministry of Tourism	• Act refers to the Ministry of Tourism Environment and Natural Resources
Principles of Ownership, User rights and management	• These principles need to be firstly agreed on and consequently outlined in both the Policy and Act	
Regulatory and procedural provisions	• Ill-placed and needs relocation	• Requires the elaboration of subsidiary legislation

Source: ZAWA (2002)

According to ZAWA (2002) it identified that mechanisms for revenue sharing between the National Parks and Wildlife Policy of 1998 and the Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998 have not provided much detail on revenue sharing percentages. Table 5, above, on the mechanisms for revenue sharing (in italics) shows a comparison of the policy and Act. Based on both instruments the percentage mechanisms for revenue sharing have not been addressed. Hence, the criteria for distribution of benefits remains weak. There is still need for more transparent methods in revenue sharing to enable a more just distribution of costs and benefits associated with ecotourism to be born by every actor involved.

The draft CBNRM Policy (n.d) recognizes the need to enhance revenue benefits that can accrue to communities living with wildlife and has taken a step further to address revenue sharing mechanisms. The Draft CBNRM policy (n.d) states that 'ZAWA shall facilitate the holding of regular meetings to discuss sharing ratios and responsibilities by the CRBs.' Similarly the draft CBNRM policy has no specific

percentage guidelines on how revenues will be shared. Though not adequate the policy provides an opportunity for stakeholders to discuss and decide on the sharing ratios of benefits to be accrued. However the danger lies on the effect that power relations can have on revenue sharing decision making process. There is a higher possibility that ZAWA or local elites can have an upper hand in influencing decision-making towards revenue distribution. This entails that locals will still lack the opportunity to have a fair share of benefits. The policy does not state specifically which actors are to be involved in the revenue sharing meetings. The meetings need good local representation to ensure a more democratic out come of decisions on revenues distribution mechanisms. Local representation in this case maybe be based on the representative's status from different local groups within a community such as the women, disabled, farmers, youth, local leadership and other.

The lack of specific details on the distribution of benefits generated from concessions fees, licenses, use of wildlife and other services reflects the limitations of legal instruments towards addressing the rights of locals. The lack of clear distribution mechanisms on revenues generated tends to built mistrust, suspicion and contributes to conflicts among actors. In addition, the lack of effective means for the equitable distribution of revenues does not provided sufficient and adequate incentives for locals to participate in ecotourism conservation and development activities. This further poses a constraint for the sustainable development of the ecotourism industry in Zambia.

5.1.3 Policy and Legal Provisions for Local Community Participation in Protected Area Management

Ecotourism has been identified as a protected area management tool that aims to achieve both conservation and active local participation for sustainable development. Local community participation is a relatively recent phenomenon in Southern Africa. Zambia is one of the pioneer countries in Southern Africa to pilot approaches involving communities in natural resource management mainly the wildlife sector. Other countries in the sub-region that support similar initiatives at the same time include Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia. The inception of these programmes followed concerns over excessive wildlife resource degradation resulting from commercial hunting with no benefits going to the communities living with or affected with wildlife. While commercial hunting proliferated, so did illegal hunting with

much of it attributed to local communities (WWF 2004). In Zambia the LIRDP was initiated as a tactic to reduce poaching and this was an opportunity to conserve natural resources outside existing protected areas. Another prominent project adopted was the ADMADE which was a framework for bringing people to the fore of protected area management.

The model that exists for Zambia for community involvement is in the form of Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) approach. The CBNRM programmes as discussed in Chapter three, section 3.4.2.1, arose out of reactions against the 'fortress conservation' approaches to wildlife management. Fabricius (2004, 13) argues that 'the pressure to promote natural resource-related development in rural areas, and the need to diversify the economy to include tourism and the commercial use of biodiversity, gave further impetus to this shift in approach.' Despite the acceptance of CBNRM in Zambia, the lack of a policy on CBNRM has had an effect on coordination and communication among stakeholders. The lack of a policy on CBNRM has also contributed to the unsustainable use of land within most GMA in the country (WWF 2004). Likewise there is also impact on protected areas where by local communities encroach on national parks through activities associated with cultivation, livestock grazing and deforestation. The Zambia Wildlife Authority with the support of WWF is in the process of drafting a CBNRM policy which started in 2006. It is anticipated that the policy will 'provide the framework which will guide the participation of various stakeholders in wildlife management in GMAs and Open Areas' (Draft CBRNM Policy n.d). It is further anticipated that the policy should further address the devolution of rights to the community to participate in wildlife management.

In the recent past Zambia has been moving away from "command and control" conservation policies towards more encompassing incentive-based conservation approaches (WWF 2004). The lack of provision within early legislation for community participation in wildlife conservation was of concern to the first republic government. According to WWF (2004) early pieces of legislation prior to colonization did not provide for community participation in the country, perhaps with the exceptions of the western province, where traditional institutional arrangements

allowed the *Litunga*[7] to manage wildlife through the institutions of the Baroste Royal Establishment (with little interference from the colonial government).

The National Parks and Wildlife Policy of (MOT 1998) pioneered community participation in natural resource management in Zambia by empowering local level wildlife management institutions to redistribute revenues from wildlife in their localities. The WWF (2004, 27) points out that 'innovation within the provision of National Parks and Wildlife Act was spurred by public debate (including parliament), on the participation of local communities in wildlife conservation.' Currently the Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998 provides for the formation of Game Management Areas where both state and rural communities contribute to wildlife management. Furthermore, as earlier alluded to the Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998 provides for the setting up of Community Resource Boards meant to 'facilitate active participation of local communities in the management of wildlife estates.' The CRBs as local level institutions responsible for decision-making on behalf of the local residents. The views of the local community are taken on board through Village Action Groups (VAGS) and further presented to the CRBs.

In addition the current Policy for National Parks and Wildlife (MOT 1998) includes objectives for wildlife management entity, a planning framework and local level institutions for community participation in game management areas. The Tourism Policy (MOT 1999) also aims to provide opportunities for community participation in tourism. The Tourism Policy (MOT 1999, 9) also 'recognizes the need for local communities and local entrepreneurs to become more involved with tourism activities as owners and partners.' However communities lack the power to control and own these projects. One respondent ironically stated that 'there are certain things not good for Zambians in Zambia.' More often than not the locals tend to be passive beneficiaries to projects located within the areas. One respondent gave this illustration that some 'communities are asked by private investors to do some dances, involvement is at low key and then they are paid minimal allowances for performances.'

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[7] Litunga is the Paramount Chief of the Lozi Tribe in the Western Province of Zambia

Whilst the existing legal instruments support community participation, they have not been able to state explicitly the roles and responsibilities that communities have with regard to natural resources management. For instance, the role of the chief in the National Parks and Wildlife Policy of 1998 is identified as that of being a patron of Integrated Development Resources Boards has not been explicitly clarified. Chiefs lack information on their jurisdiction over natural resource management and have in some instance used their power to acquire benefits at the expense of his subjects. Chiefs also tend to dominate the decision-making process over revenues and demand larger shares than community development. The influence of chiefs has also lead to projects been rejected that never benefit them or are not developed around their palaces. The WWF (2004) recommends that chiefs should be encouraged to play an advisory role and patronage role other than implementing projects. As regards land uses, chiefs should be made to consult with local communities. Where revenues are being generated, they should be lobbied that the money goes back to the communities. Other local interests need to be carefully considered in natural resource management.

The role of communities and chiefs in management of conservation and development activities such as tourism is not effectively addressed. This has also disadvantaged the local communities into securing a fair share of benefits. The draft CBNRM policy (n.d) identifies the absence of community participation in the decision-making process and sharing of benefits in wildlife management as one of the contributing factors to increased illegal harvesting of wildlife. It is for this reason that one of the objectives of the CBNRM policy (n.d) is to ensure the full participation of local communities in managing wildlife in the GMAs and Open areas. However, this study argues that communities are still excluded for active and effective participation in the planning and management of natural resources (that is wildlife resources) in national parks. Local participation in wildlife management is aligned to GMAs with a passive recognition of their essential role in national parks. Locals are neither fully engaged in wildlife planning and management in both GMAs and national parks. Policy and legal instruments do not provide clear description of their role in GMAs or national parks. Despite the fact that locals are encouraged to create GMAs, their role in landuse planning is not recognized by ZAWA. ZAWA assumes this role, while the community is further alienated from use and access to their resources both in the national parks and protected areas. It is therefore not surprising to note that the

increasing levels of poaching of wildlife in the country. The MENR (1994) the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP) identified poaching as one of the main environmental problems facing Zambia.

This study notes that though communities are recognized as potential stakeholders in protected area management. Guidelines for community participation (and other relevant stakeholder) are not available to enhance their full participation. A key informant had this to say on community participation in the tourism policy: 'No one has defined what participation means in the policy; is it ownership, control?' The lack of a firm position by government on how the local community should participate continues to place the latter on the losing end with regard to rightful ownership, control and management of tourism activities within their respective localities. As earlier stated, legal instruments tend to associate local communities with GMA. In other words communities are to participate and draw benefits from natural resources such as wildlife through GMAs that locals are encouraged to form by ZAWA and not necessarily from protected areas. This study identified this as a gap in policy which limits the capacity for active local participation in wildlife management in national parks. WWF (2004) illustrates that CRBs are sidelined in terms of quota-setting as well as the awarding of hunting licenses for the special hunting area or selection of safari operator in the area. In this regard, locals lack the power to manage activities occurring in both national parks and game management areas within their locations. With lack of power, locals are unable to negotiate access to and gain control over resources and benefits that have a significant bearing on their survival and livelihoods.

5.1.4 Policy and Legal Provisions for Decentralization and Devolution of Power at Local Level

The government defines decentralization as the transfer of responsibilities, authority, functions, as well as power and appropriate resource to provincial, district and sub-district levels (GRZ 2002). Decentralization in Zambia has taken four forms namely: deconcentration, devolution, delegation and privatization. In protected area management decentralization has taken the form of devolution where there is transfer of some powers and authority, function and resources by legal and constitutional provisions to lower levels. The transfer is within formal political structures and is institutionalized by constitutional means (GRZ 2002). Decentralization and

devolution of protected area management responsibility through CBNRM approaches have been discussed and piloted in parts of Zambia with a hope of improving biodiversity management in protected area (WWF 2004).

In the previous section 5.1.3, it has been identified that legal instruments have not made adequate provision for active local participation in protected area management. However, it is government's vision to ensure effective community participation in decision-making, development and administration of their local affairs while maintaining sufficient linkages between the center and periphery (GRZ 2002). The setting up of CRBs provides for the devolution of rights and responsibilities over natural resources under the Wildlife Act No. 12 of 1998. However the question is to what extent has power been devolved to the local levels for effective community participation to occur? Based on the legal instruments for protected area management, proprietorship over wildlife and resources at community level is still not appropriately addressed. Locals lack clear rights to resources in question such as wildlife or forest resources within their localities. Locals further lack legal provisions addressing their rights over wildlife regarding whom they decide to sell to and for how much.

Furthermore locals also lack the right to benefit from resources. It has been identified that locals bear direct and indirect costs of living together with wildlife. Locals continue to face challenges of animal-wildlife conflicts, which at times has led to loss of life and destruction of crops and harvest. The draft CBNRM (n,d) argues that the problem of animal wildlife conflicts is recognized by law and provisions of problem animal control have been provided for but local communities have continued to insist that the measures and response from ZAWA are inadequate. This study notes that both the National Parks and Wildlife Policy of 1998 and Wildlife Act No. 12 do not provide sufficient means for protecting and providing for such losses from wildlife destruction and damage affecting local communities. However the Wildlife Act Section 78 and 79 contains provisions that allows for a person to kill an animal in self defense or land owners and their workers to kill animals in property defense. It can be argued that in reality the communities may not be aware of such legal provisions and most of them continue to suffer the consequences of loss of life and crop destruction. Moreover they may not have the means to defend them selves from such danger.

Locals also lack user rights in the parks and face restrictions in GMAs to carry out activities related to their traditional livelihoods such as fishing, gathering of wild fruits, mushrooms, caterpillars, herbal medicines and other. In this regard they are not able to draw equitable benefits for their survival. This has meant that locals lack the power and legal provisions fall short of addressing their rights to access resources for their survival and livelihoods. The Tourism Policy (MOT 1999) tries to ensure that tourism development does not deprive local communities of access to those resources along banks or shores of rivers, dams, lagoons, lakes needed for their livelihood. It is however worth noting that the policy leaves much to be desired for it only mentions water bodies and excludes areas, where the community's major source of livelihood is concentrated. It is from natural resource products such as firewood, medicines, wild fruits, herbs, animals and others, in GMAs and national parks that locals are highly dependent for their daily survival and livelihoods. The policy lacks a firm position over access to land-based resources located in national parks and GMAs. The right to use and own resources have not been adequately addressed and locals have no power to access or benefit from these resources.

Where revenue generation is concerned, this study has identified in section 5.1.2 of this chapter that distribution mechanisms have not been adequate for equitable distribution of profits to communities. Locals therefore lack the power to decide on distribution mechanisms of proceeds from both national parks and GMAs. The Wildlife Act No 12 (ZAWA 1998) and the Tourism Policy (MOT 1999) does not empower local communities with adequate rights to influence planning and decision-making at management level. Local communities continue to be sidelined in the planning of natural resources in GMAs and National Parks and this has been a source of conflict in the area of resource access and use among stakeholders. Legal instruments have also not clarified how responsibilities and authority will be shared in wildlife management in protected areas and GMAs among stakeholders.

Locals lack well-defined rights to enable them to participate and influence decision-making at management level. In this regard policies and legislation need to provide guidelines for the design of transparent, accountable institutional linkages so that stakeholders can negotiate access and gain rightful control over resources. Local institutions (that is CRBs) do not have the power to make effective representation of

community decisions and aspirations. Dixey (2005,24) argues that 'the name "Community Resource Board" is misleading as the CRB has no legal rights in connection with resources other than wildlife….As such most people are of the opinion that a CRB cannot own land or carry out trading activities.' This further implies that local communities lack the legal means and capacity to be active participants in protected area activities that have a potential for improving their local economy.

The decentralization and devolution of functions towards the management, conservation of natural and wildlife resources is still limited by the absence of power and authority for local communities to actively participate. Participation needs to be viewed as a right to be embedded in existing legal instruments if local communities are to be involved in the management and control of resources. However, not until local level institutions such as CRBs have the authority to make decisions at higher level (and have access to information), can effective lower level resource management in PAs be realized.

5.2 Summary

The chapter has sought to discuss the gaps and limitations in policy with regard to community involvement in protected area management. This analysis has identified that the existing legal provisions have not been able to address fully the issues related to community participation and the devolution of power to the community in the management and control of resources in the GMA. Though the Wildlife Act of No. 12 1998 has devolved some forms of rights and authority, or proprietorship, over wildlife to local institutions – CRBs, it does not address the roles and responsibilities of actors. How actors are to be involved and take responsibility over their actions is lacking. Whilst the forthcoming CBNRM policy provides a framework for the devolution of power to local levels in wildlife management, well articulated guidelines for stakeholder participation would be required. Clarifying the roles, rights and responsibilities will provide the essential foundation for effective collaboration and conflict resolution among actors. This study notes that protected area natural resource legislation still faces the challenge of taking into account the complex relationships between people and nature that was typical of the culture of most African communities before colonial rule.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 LOCAL DEVELOPMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM

6.1 Introduction

One of the principles of ecotourism is in the provision of benefits to local communities, resource conservation and the industry. The chapter presents the benefits that the community has realized through ecotourism and which have contributed to local economic development in the area. One of the research questions asked by the present study was what benefits the locals have realized from ecotourism. The chapter will look into how these benefits have been distributed among actors involved in ecotourism in KNP and surrounding areas. As a means of further addressing this research question, the chapter will look into the alternative coping strategies that the Kafinda community is engaged in for survival. It is the intention of this chapter to also discuss and examine the extent to which the Kafinda community participates in ecotourism development in the area where wildlife is the major economic resource.

6.2 Local Community Benefits from Ecotourism

The generation of socio-economic benefits to the Kafinda community from ecotourism in KNP comes in various forms. Four Village Action Groups (VAGs) were visited, namely Njelele, Misheshi, Chipundu and Mpelembe to determine the benefits that locals have come to realize through ecotourism. It was gathered that the major source of socio-economic benefits from ecotourism to the community is in the form of tourism revenue, employment opportunities and the provision of social services. The participants were interviewed to get their views on the distribution of benefits and to what extent they have provided a means to improve their welfare. Further enquiry was sought from the four VAGs to specifically establish the various activities they were engaged in for their continued survival.

6.2.1 Local Economic Benefits from Tourism Revenues

Through the tourism revenue generated from non-consumptive tourism activities in the park, benefits have been distributed between KTL, ZAWA and the Kafinda Community Resource Board (KCRB). According to the Memorandum of

Understanding (MOU) between ZAWA and KTL of 2002 it states that 'KTL shall pay to ZAWA and Kafinda Resource Board (KCRB) at quarterly intervals and within 30 days of the end of the quarter an amount equal to 10% and 5% respectively of its gross income from tourism inside Kasanka National Park.' The KNP park manager stated that the remaining funds are channeled back to support conservation efforts in the park and daily management requirements of the park. With regard to revenue distribution mechanisms for KNP and surrounding communities an officer from the ZAWA explained that,

> Nowhere in national park policy is revenue shared with a surrounding community. This was a landmark decision that was meant to overflow to the communities around KNP. This was factored in to aid the community to realize the benefits of conservation and later conservation in the Game Management Area. This has been the major justification at hand.

This implies that most communities that live around protected areas (in Zambia) do not benefit from such arrangements. However, other communities are able to generate direct revenues from hunting in GMA such as the Lupande community of the South Luangwa National Park (SLNP). Since, the KGMA is under-stocked there has been non-generation of economic benefits from safari hunting and hunting concessions. The decision to allocate 5% of the park revenue to the KCRB was also based on these reasons. The KCRB further redistributes the money within the community, where a certain percentage is given to the chief, community projects and for administration costs of the institution. One might ask to what extent the money made available to the community is able to reach the wider population in KGMA? The chief expressed concern on the amount of revenue generated by KNP, and strongly stated that 'they are making millions for nothing ….' It was a general concern among respondents that the financial and infrastructural benefits from the park to the KGMA are still not sufficient to meet the essential needs of the community in comparison to the imagined revenue that KNP generates. It has been argued that when members of the community are not able to access these benefits they are likely to resort to unsustainable utilization of resources such as wildlife, trees and others resources. In this regard, the lack of sufficient benefits tends to contribute to the illegal utilization of natural resources both within the KNP and in the Kafinda GMA. This then poses problems concerning the communities' welfare and the resources upon which ecotourism

depends such as wildlife, swamps, rivers and other resources in the park and surrounding KGMA.

Despite the 5% received by the KCRB, it lacks sufficient funds to operate effectively and meet the financial needs of community projects that locals find themselves engaged in. A respondent from the Community said that 'most people need help when they form clubs … The only problem is that the support they get is very little.' The respondent further clarified on the support, saying that the community needs financial support alongside infrastructure, maintenance of roads, school and hospitals. The study established that most community members run out of cassava food supplies in the month of December when the rainy season begins. The majority of respondents suggested that farming inputs such as fertilizers were needed to allow the locals to grow other crops to see them through the next farming season. Based on this concern it can be observed that the community is in need of inputs to farming to enable them diversify their food resources, to see them through the next farming season. From the community's suggestions it can be argued that the community would prefer that their daily needs for survival (such as food) are met and other infrastructural needs can follow.

It was a general concern among participants interviewed that there was mismanagement of funds in the KRCB, which has led to conflicts among board members and within the community as a whole. This misapplication of funds has also in turn affected the development of community projects as resources have not reached the intended target. In addition it has to some extent contributed to the lack of active local participation and positive response to on-going community projects. One respondent who referred to the out-going board members said that 'some members were very very selfish … money was mismanaged… if money is allocated to a particular community people in charge would misuse it.' The respondent gave a simple example of where some board members would claim to incur fuel costs, but would be seen using bicycles while on duty.

6.2.2 Local Economic Benefits from Employment Opportunities

The presence of ecotourism in KNP has generated employment opportunities from which the Kafinda Community accrues benefits. It has been established that tourism is

the largest private sector employer in the district. It is estimated that about 90 locals have been employed by the Trust (WTO 2001). According to the ZAWA (2002, 4) MOU relating to management of KNP section 4.5, KTL has been mandated to 'employ staff including antipoaching staff to carry out the tourism development and wildlife protection of Kasanka National Park.' The Park Manger stated that 'the community has been employed to carry out conservation work in the park.' For instance, the community has been employed as scouts to patrol and apprehend poachers. Other workers have included laborers, guards, administrative staff, maintenance workers, drivers, cooks and other support staff. The extent to which the community benefits from individual employment opportunities is minimal. Based on the informal discussions held with individual workers in the park, most said that the income was not sufficient to meet long term future investments such as their children's education. The income was merely for survival and not much more. It has been argued that the impact of benefits to the community through individual employment has not been sufficient.

However, some workers clarified further by stating that individual incomes did not sufficiently address their household needs. This entails that the community's socio-economic status remains static. This then raises concerns as to whether ecotourism has the potential to bring about local development to host communities. In this regard alternative forms of income sources are required to supplement the existing sources of income and enhance local economic development in the area.

6.2.3 Local Social Benefits through Provision of Social Services

The provision of community social services within the KGMA has been another way from which the community has drawn benefits. The services have included sponsoring of local students to high school for further education. The Trust further provides financial and technical assistance for the rehabilitation and general development of schools within the KGMA.

Other services have included the provision of a health care centre through the Chalilo Health Care Project. The work which was done through a self help project invloved community members providing their labour. The materials were supplied through a grant from the German Embassy and the States of Guernsey Development Fund that paid for the equipment in the clinic. The Trust supports the clinic with salaries for the

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watchman and an assistant health worker for the health centre. The Trust further provides transport for the continued delivery of medical supplies to the clinic from the Serenje District. Kasanka Trust also assists the health department with transport every year to reach the rural communities around the park to carry out immunizations for polio and measles.

During one interview, a respondent stated that 'we appreciate that they provide transport but we are yet to see much of the benefits.' It can be argued that there are general feelings of dissatisfaction toward the infrastructural benefits provided and the economic revenue received in the community. It could be that locals would like other needs to be met other than those related to infrastructure. This gives the impression that the forthcoming benefits are insufficient and better benefits are anticipated. Interviews held with the local community reflected that they are highly suspicious of the revenue generated from KNP. As earlier mentioned it is a general thought among the majority of participants that the KNP was generating substantial revenue from tourism in the park. It is for such reasons that the community feels that the Trust can do better in providing benefits that will meet their interests and needs. More dialogue and collaboration between KNP park management and the wider community is required.

6.2.4 Potential Economic Benefits from Safari Hunting

Unlike the Lupande community of the Luangwa Integrated Development Project (LIDRP), the Kafinda community has not realized benefits through safari hunting. Safari hunting is one of the emerging avenues in KGMA from which the community expects to receive economic benefits. In July 2005 ZAWA, the Kafinda Community and Busanga Trails Limited (BTL) signed a hunting concession agreement for safari hunting rights in the under-stocked KGMA. The local community anticipates that this will be a major source of revenue that will improve local development in the area. It is the intention of the BTL to restock the GMA before it starts operating. According to the ZAWA (2005, 11) hunting concession agreement the following community benefits are outlined as targets made by the company:

a)   Engage at least 80% of its labour force from within the said GMA
b)   Engage a minimum of fifteen (15) villages scouts, from within the local community (by January 2007)

c) Purchase, when available materials and produce from adjacent communities

d) Distribute free of charge to the community and ZAWA field staff not less then 50% of the meat of every edible game animal hunted and killed.

Based on the agreement it is envisaged that the community will draw from the above-mentioned benefits. The 80% labour force will increase on the number of locals employed in the district. Further employment will be generated through the village scouts who will be on a full time basis. The community will have an opportunity to supplement their protein intake from 50% distribution of meat that will be supplied to the community and ZAWA staff. It can be suggested that to avoid conflicts the agreement should have gone a step further to state the distribution mechanisms for the meat between the two parties. To bring these above outlined benefits into existence, BTL made the following pledges to the Kafinda Local Community, based on Hunting Concession agreement (ZAWA, 2005):

1. To contribute an amount of US$ 5,000.00 to the community, for their local projects, beginning 2006. This amount to be paid as follow 50% (US $2500) be paid at end of August and the remaining 50% at end of October.

2. To employ five village scouts, from the community, as from October 2006 and salaries to be pad at each end of each month.

3. To employ the community Liaison Officer as from June, 2006.

From the interviews held with participants it was noted that BTL had not yet started fulfilling these pledges to the community. It was gathered that no benefits had been received by the community according to the 1st pledge by BTL. Based on the 3rd pledge, it was further gathered that the Community Liaison Officer had not yet been employed (at the time the fieldwork for the present study was conducted in July, 2006). From the respondent's remarks and what I observed it can be stated that there have been delays in execution of pledges. One respondent ironically said 'now the N.N man has come in to help we are yet to see the benefits.' The delays in implementation of pledges makes the community wonder when or if ever they will realize any real benefits, as ironically expressed by the respondent.

6.2.5 Potential Economic Benefits from Community-Based Tourism

Community Based Tourism (CBT) is argued as having the ability to create entrepreneurial opportunities for the poor and act as a catalyst for rural development. Another avenue from which the community hopes to gain revenue is through the

David Livingstone CBT Project. The project is located at the David Livingstone Memorial site, which is a heritage site owned and managed by the National Heritage Conservation Commission (NHCC).

Source: Field Work Photo, Himoonde, T. (2006).

Figure 7: Abandoned Chalets of Proposed CBT Project David Livingstone Memorial Site

Plans are underway with the Chipundu Ecotourism Committee which is spearheaded by the KTL to develop community tourism around the site. The study established that David Livingstone project has taken long to take off due to the conflicts in land tenure issues surrounding the memorial site. The community embarked on building chalets near the site (Figure 7 shows chalets), but had to put the project on hold as they had no legal rights to the land.

The land where the site is situated is owned in close proximity between the National Heritage Conservation Commission (NHCC) and the United Church of Zambia (UCZ). Based on interviews held with park management, it was found that efforts have been made to visit the two parties to ensure that a decision is made to allow the community to embark on the project. It was noted that there has been delay in making

this decision, which has in turn affected the Chipundu community to go ahead with the project. 'A significant issue in CBT is that CRBs cannot obtain land title deeds and thereby own tourism infrastructure' (Dixey 2005, 24). This has further deprived the community of the extra income that is needed to supplement their survival requirements. Based on a CBT feasibility research carried out for KGMA, Hawkins (2005) states that CBT in Chipundu is possible provided it meets tourist demand. It will never provide huge incomes for those involved or provide large-scale community development: what it can offer, however, is an alternative source of income and chance to learn business skills for some.

6.3 Local Community Survival Strategies and Alternative Initiatives

The community is poor and dependent on their own initiatives for survival, as well as initiatives made by the Trust for sustainable alternatives to illegal hunting. Among the initiatives that the locals engage in are some based on their traditional ways of survival. These have included the use of forest products for firewood, fruits and local medicines. Generally, the miombo woodland where the Kafinda community is located is a source of raw materials used for the manufacture of medicines, furniture, canoes, carvings, building timer, pestles and mortars, tool handles, fishing nets and cloth (Smith and Allen 2004). The woodland is well known for producing a rich harvest of edible caterpillars[8] which the locals collect for consumption. Fishing is another activity that locals have turned to in order to sustain their livelihoods through intake of protein. Hunting is one of the major traditional survival activities that the locals have been involved in and is still practiced through poaching.

Based on interviews conducted with the locals it was noted that the community is faced with restrictions in access of resources such as caterpillars, fish, wild animals and land. In this regard the community feel deprived of vital resources for their survival and continued livelihoods. Despite the restrictions locals continue to extract resources illegally and through unsustainable means. The manner in which these resources are extracted has been a major concern for the Trust, ZAWA and other stakeholders (such as the forestry, fisheries and agricultural departments) involved in natural resource management.

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[8] Are a great delicacy and an important source of protein for the locals living within the district

The Trust on the other hand has established alternative initiatives for the locals that have received donor support through technical assistance and financial means. A Community Relations Department (CRD) through the IUCN support program to KNP has been put in place. The department works with the community to provide technical assistance in community projects that the Kafinda community is involved in. One of the significant initiatives developed by the Trust is the Kasanka Trust Community Project (KTCP).

6.3.1 The Kasanka Trust Community Project (KTCP)

The KTCP project is dedicated to reducing poaching in the area by providing sustainable alternatives to increase the amount of protein available for the local community. The activities have also been one way of providing other sources of income for the local community. The initiatives of providing sustainable alternatives from poaching has been encouraged through income generating activities (IGAs), self help projects, conservation projects and environmental education programmes taking place in the KGMA.

Source: Field Work Photo, Himoonde, T. (2006).

Figure 8: Fish Farming Ponds in Kafinda GMA

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From the 5% allocated to the KCRB a certain percentage goes into various community projects. Donor funds have also been received to finance various community projects in the KGMA. One respondent a member of the KCRB Board said that 'we encourage people to form meaningful groups that they get money instead of poaching.' The local community is encouraged to form groups such as clubs or cooperatives to help them generate income and improve on their protein intake. Activities that the communities are involved in have included the growing and harvesting of crops (such as groundnuts, cassava, soya beans, cowpeas and other), vegetable gardening, livestock rearing (such as chicken, rabbit, pigs and goats), bee-keeping and fish farming (Figure 8 shows fish farming ponds in KGMA). Women have also been encouraged to form cooperatives where they are engaged in the growing and grinding of sunflower for oil (Figure 9 shows the sunflower-seed press project).

Source: Field Work Photo, Muzyamba, W. (2006)

Figure 9: Oil Press Project, Chitukuko's Women's Cooperative, Njelele VAG.

Respondents were asked to comment on whether these projects they were engaged in were able to generate the required income that they anticipated. Most respondents

stated that they did not generate sufficient income apart from that which they sold to the local community. The respondents further stated that the products were mainly for household consumption. They expressed concern on the lack of markets, transport facilities (to take them to potential market places) and the required equipment to improve effectively their projects. In the area of bee-keeping the respondents expressed the lack of protective clothing, while in the area of fish-farming the locals expressed the need of treadle pumps to help them in maintenance of their fish ponds. It was the general concern among respondents expressed in individual interviews and the focus group discussion that capacity-building and financial assistance for the local community was inadequate and therefore necessary if their projects were to be successful.

According to KTL Community Relations Department (CRD) Staff the Trust has been instrumental in initiating projects and in encouraging the locals to compile project proposals to access donor funds. It was noted that some donor funds have required the community to show their capacity to manage the project through various skills such a book-keeping. Furthermore donor requirements have called for projects that will ensure that conservation practices are taken on board, with minimal impact to the environment. With such conditions some local community groups have been unable to access funds or meet the requirements. The CRD indicated that the local community is currently working on an initiative to create a revolving fund where locals could access finances for their projects.

The MAFF agriculture extension officer indicated that the projects experienced shortcomings in the areas of management by the community. Generally, most projects were collectively owned by the community. The projects have not been sustainable due to the lack of strong leadership qualities among the members. He further stated that there have been mysterious deaths of livestock and petty stealing. One would argue that there is a lack of commitment and organization within some groups, which can in turn be attributed to the lack of profitability in such activities. This has resulted in the abandoning of projects by some community groups. The MAFF extension officer stated that one community project involved in livestock rearing came to a sudden end after they decided to slaughter all the animals. Another village involved in

bee-keeping abandoned the project claiming that the bees in the hive had had a big fight which resulted in the death of most bees.

Respondents stated that there were efforts made to empower households with livestock. Households that had no livestock were lent young animals that they would rear. When the animals produced young they would pass them on to the next household. The young livestock which are shared helps other households to get started with rearing animals and later supplement their diets with protein. Due to the fact that a considerable number of community members are not yet benefiting from livestock rearing, the level of protein requirement within the community's diet is still not sufficient. The locals clearly indicated that they had just begun the livestock projects with only few animals and few households involved.

6.4 Local Community Participation in Ecotourism

It has been argued that community participation in ecotourism is considered essential if it is to provide equitable distribution of local economic benefits that leads to the sustainable conservation of natural resources. According to Kiss (2004, 234) 'ecotourism can generate support for conservation among communities as long as they see some benefit (or maintain a hope of doing so), and it does not threaten or interfere with their main sources of livelihood.' In the area of community involvement Kasanka Trust Limited (KTL) has been mandated through the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) of 2002 to collaborate with the Community Resource Board (CRB) in order to enhance the management and development of KNP. This entails that KTL will work in close partnership with the local community on ecotourism development issues in KNP and surrounding areas.

6.4.1 Local Participation in Tourism Revenue Distribution

Benefit distribution arrangements have proved to be a challenging and painstaking process in ecotourism initiatives. Similarly assessing the magnitude of distribution of benefits poses a challenge for ecotourism planners and managers. At community level, identifying the rightful beneficiaries of resources is a challenging task, as the community is not a homogenous group. The needs of the community vary depending on the needs of members, status, sex, age and other factors. Moreover the actors engaged in ecotourism have different agendas.

The involvement of people in making decisions on how the ecotourism costs and benefits are shared among different stakeholders is important. Based on the field interviews the criterion for distribution of tourism revenues between ZAWA, KTL and the locals leaves much to be desired. It is worth noting that the community was technically not part of the distribution arrangement. One respondent from the community had this to say, 'no members are involved in the management of the park … even the 5% we are getting we do not know which amount they are calculating from.' According to the draft CBRNM Policy of (n.d) 'the reward to communities through the CRBs for co-managing wildlife is participation in sharing the benefits generated from the utilization of wildlife.'

The approach taken to distribute the tourism revenues generated from the park as mentioned in section 6.2.1 of this Chapter was based on a landmark decision taken by ZAWA and the KTL to assist the local community. Based on Pretty's (1997) typology of participation this level of participation can be characterized as passive participation where information mainly belongs to the professionals. In this particular situation the decision to allocate revenues was made by ZAWA in conjunction with KTL and the community was informed accordingly. According to Jones and Murphree (2004, 79) 'most CBNRM areas of Botswana and Zambia, communities tend to be passive recipients of income from wildlife, without engaging in active management, partly because the state retains considerable management authority itself.' As passive recipient of benefits one would argue that some of the real needs of the community are not addressed. As earlier alluded to communities are not a homogenous group which entails that their needs within the community will vary. Therefore, community benefits can be effectively distributed if locals participate in the planning and management of ecotourism.

6.4.2 Local Participation in Conservation

Based on interviews conducted with respondents in the area, the community is claimed to be involved in unsustainable extraction of resources such as caterpillars, firewood, fish, mushroom, honey and animals. For instance in the area of fishing the local community has been seen to adopt unsustainable fishing methods which involved the use of poison *Ubuuba.* In relation to wildlife utilization, it was a held view by most actors from the ZAWA, KTL and the community, that poaching is still

a problem in the park. The fact that poaching still occurs is reflected in the state of the KGMA which is currently under-stocked of wildlife. Continued poaching places pressure on wildlife resources in the KNP. This further poses a threat to both local development and conservation efforts in the area. It poses a much greater constraint to the sustainable development of ecotourism in the area. The community participates in wildlife conservation through their involvement in the KTCP, which provides alternatives to illegal hunting. It can be argued that the community participates indirectly in wildlife conservation through CBNRM projects as promoted by the Community Relations Department (CRD) under the KTL park management. The implementation of CBNRM programmes has come in the form of Conservation Farming (CF) projects, conservation awareness projects and involvement of the local community and village scouts in wildlife management (who are part of park enforcement patrols).

The implementation of CBNRM projects aims to address the unsustainable utilization and extraction of resources. For instance, conservation awareness programmes have involved educating the community on the importance of natural resources conservation for their own benefit and that of future generations. These programmes have included sensitization of the locals on the dangers of unsustainable harvesting of wildlife, caterpillars, fishing, cutting of trees for fuel wood, burning down of trees for honey and other similar activities. The Trust works with local conservation groups and women's clubs to enhance conservation awareness. School children participate by revamping their *Chongologo* conservation clubs. These clubs educate the students on the need of conserving natural resources which they share with other community members. Educational drama tours are also conducted to carry the message to all areas (KTL 2007a).

The community projects dealing in CF activities have been intended to guide the local community to appreciate the importance of adopting sustainable methods of farming as opposed to *Chitemene* the traditional slash and burning farming practices (that are seen as one major contributor to environmental degradation in the area).Through the KTL Community Relations Department and the Ministry of Agriculture Food and Fisheries (MAFF) - extension office, the local community has been sensitized and oriented into Conservation Farming (CF) practices. Conservation farming in the area

discourages the burning of fields in readiness for the farming season as with the *chitemene* system. The idea of CF has entailed the growing of a variety of crops using crop rotation methods. Planting of nitrogen fixing plants such as *Ubuuba*, pigeon peas, Sun hemp and other leguminous plants are encouraged to bring fertility to the soils. During the focus group conducted with the Njelele VAG, the respondents stated that from conservation farming, 'we learn not to destroy the land. We are encouraged not to use chemical fertilizers. We have plant fertilizers.' Sun hemp, for instance, is planted among other crops to bring back the required fertility to the soils. Figure 10, shows a field school at Njelele VAG with sun hemp. Other forms of manure have included green manure, saw dust, ash and leaves to bring back the coils fertility.

Source: Field Work Photo, Muzyamba, W. (2006)

Figure 10: Field School Showing Nitrogen Fixing Plant - Sun Hemp

By applying CF techniques' such as pot-holing, agro-forestry, crop rotation, mixed farming is able to ensure that minimal pieces of land are used sustainably where minimal tilling is carried out. Through the MAFF extension office, trial field schools have been put in place where the community learns various practices of CF. I further made an enquiry to establish how the locals have responded to conservation farming.

The local MAFF extension officer said that, 'the response to conservation is fair. They take up the practice in the fields of the clubs, not in individual fields but still learning.' It was observed that despite efforts to get the locals involved they have shown reluctance to practice CF farming techniques on their individual farms. This tends to suggests that locals are still engaged in unsustainable farming practices. Community conservation that contributes to sustainable resources-use is yet to be realized in the Kafinda area.

The KTL Community Relations Department (CRD) staff and the local ZAWA office were asked to shed more light on how the local community has responded to conservation projects. One respondent stated, 'slowly they are responding, but they are quiet adamant about other things … the rate is quiet slow and varies from place to place.' Further enquiries were made with the local community on their response to projects. Respondents from one VAG group expressed concern on the response of their fellow community members with regard to community projects promoted by KTL. The respondents said, 'when we teach the people, they think we are their enemies … working as spies for KTL. It is difficult for a person to move away from what they are doing, some locals continue to poach.' One respondent stated that 'when you go into the community to stop things you need to give them something to keep them going.' Local response to community projects has been erratic from one VAG to another and from certain individuals and groups within community. One would therefore argue that the 'sustainable alternatives strategies' to survival such as IGAs and CF that have been implemented have not yet been able to fully replace the 'unsustainable traditional' means of survival. As long as the organization of income generating activities is weak, and no real benefits accruing, communities will continue to engage in illegal unsustainable activities (WWF 2004).

One of the areas in which the community has been quiet adamant is in the area of fish poisoning which is a source of living. It was claimed that locals felt that there was nothing wrong with fishing using *ubuuba* and *kanyese* (local fish poison) which they have used from time in memorial. The CRD staff stated that the 'myths held by locals are hard to break' and this has resulted in their limited participation in conservation projects and some IGAs such as bee-keeping.

It was gathered from the informal interviews held that there has been a considerable decline in the caterpillars in the area. Locals have attributed this to the manner in which locals have harvested the caterpillars, as traditional rituals have not been observed by the community. It is a held myth by the locals that the first caterpillar harvest should be done by the *Chipupilas*.[9] The *Chipupilas* first bring in the harvest to the Chief to cook, put salt in and eat. Thereafter, the *Chipupilas* announce, only then will the forest be open to the community to collect the caterpillars. The locals have not followed this ritual and therefore the traditional respect has been lost which the community claims has contributed to the decline in caterpillars.

Source: KTL Community Relations Department (2006)

Figure 11: Showing the Effects of Caterpillar Harvesting On the Local Miombo Forests

Based on an informal interview, one *Chipupila* stated that 'our forefathers have been upset the tradition has been broken, locals do not wait for the *Chipupilas* to be sent by the Chief. The locals wash the caterpillars in the rivers and put salt to them. When harvesting the caterpillars they do all sort of things like quarrelling, fighting and having sex in the bush.' It is based on such myths that locals are claimed to not

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[9] Chipupila are traditional leaders who have been given control over particular areas and they try to ensure that the rituals are observed by the community. They are individually empowered by honor, to a portion of land or natural resources.

understand the consequences of their actions to the forests and the environment as a whole. Such myths have been viewed as a factor that limits the community's need to participate in conservation projects and to further reflect on their unsustainable methods of extracting resources. However, the local community is sensitized on the consequences of caterpillar harvesting which involves the cutting down of trees as depicted in Figure 11. Harvesting of caterpillars has resulted in the damage of some forests in the miombo woodland of the KGMA. The CRD staff pointed out that local's usually find it hard to comprehend the consequences of tree-cutting on the environment.

Income Generation Activities (IGAs) involving bee-keeping projects have been viewed with varying responses within the local community. One respondent stated that 'the community has not yet accepted bee-keeping, but some villages have taken it up as a pilot project.' In the area of bee-keeping the community equally holds myths. I learnt that one Village Action Group (VAG) group strongly felt that bee-keeping was not worthwhile. One respondent gave a narration saying that usually women in the community prepare cassava meal by pounding it in a mortar which is later dried in the sun. The locals feel that when bees come around their homes they pick and take their cassava meal to their hives. This has raised concern among locals with regard to bee-keeping in their villages. Locals assume that their cassava meal will be finished and they would have nothing left to eat.

The general view from some respondents was that low literacy levels within the community contributes to the locals inability to comprehend issues (such as the use of chemical fertilizers on the environment or cutting down of trees for access of caterpillars). One CRD staff member stated that they have had to face the challenge to 'overcome the lack of understanding. There is a lack of belief in the educators' within the community. Another challenge that the CRD staff faces in the rainy season is a general trend among the locals of not showing up for meetings as locals prefer to work in their individual fields. It was noted that limited financial support, equipment, transport to markets and skills development has equally contributed to the reluctance in some community members to respond positively and participate in community projects.

6.4.3 Local Participation in Planning and Management

As earlier discussed there has been resistance by some community members towards participation in KTCP such as IGAs, conservation awareness and CF projects. It can be argued that this is a reflection of a lack of involvement by the community in the planning and management of community based projects. The fact that some locals (mostly male) are not attracted to these projects points to the need for community participation in local planning and management. It has been argued that active community participation in planning can be able to address the needs of the locals and create projects that will meet their specific interests. It was a general concern among respondents that the community lacks the capacity to participate effectively in ecotourism development. Communities are therefore seen as lacking sufficient or required knowledge and skills to make decisions on tourism issues.

The KNP is managed by a committee which is in partial fulfillment of the MOU between ZAWA and KTL (See Appendix IV of committee board members). The committee meets bi-annually, where progress reports from KTL on activities carried out in the park and plans for future activities in respect of park management and community relations are discussed and approved. With regard to community representation in park management where planning and approval of park activities are carried out, the Chief said,

> The chiefdom is not involved in the management of the park, KTL works alone especially after the renewal of the contract. I have not been involved as a trustee. Meetings used to take place before renewal of the contract with the MP[10], District Council Secretary and other trustees. Now we are not called and we do not sit on those meetings.

Sentiments expressed by the Chief are an indication of the minimal level at which the community is represented at management level where decision-making on park activities is carried out. Similarly a respondent stated that, 'no members are involved in the management of the park … even the 5% we are getting we do not know which amount they are calculating from.' The impression that both respondents expressed points to the general lack of representation and information-sharing among actors in the area. In this regard the Kafinda community has minimal control and ownership in

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[10] Member of Parliament

park development and management despite the fact that they are recognized as relevant stakeholders. A key informant had this to say, 'communities have not had any say and control of ecotourism zones which are national parks.' The need to fully recognize local communities as legitimate stakeholders, who have rights to resources and decision-making, as much as any other actor is essential for the success of ecotourism development in the area.

According to the draft CBNRM Policy (n.d) 'the absence of community participation in decision making processes in wildlife management has been cited as one of the contributing factors to increased illegal harvesting of wildlife.' More often than not communities living in close proximity to national parks are denied rights to participate in decision-making on national parks. This has resulted in feelings of alienation by the community from their traditional sources of survival. It can be argued that feelings of alienation are echoed in the local respondents concern over lack of community representation at park management level. This is a feature that has been associated with early approaches to park management, the 'fortress style' of conservation of biodiversity. Following the new approaches to conservation, communities are now given an opportunity to participate in the planning and management of parks and to make decisions over issues that affect their livelihoods. The fact that the Kafinda Community continues to poach and are reluctant to participate in conservation initiatives and IGAs can be attributed to the lack of community participation in planning and decision-making processes as cited in the CBNRM draft policy. It can be further argued that community members who are not interested in CBNRM projects may be among the would-be poachers.

6.5 Summary

The chapter has discussed the various areas from which the Kafinda community draws socio-economic benefits through ecotourism. The chapter also discusses the alternative survival strategies that the local community is engaged in for survival. The chapter further discusses how the local community participates in ecotourism.

The chapter firstly established that the community accrues economic benefits from tourism revenues generated from national park of which 5 % is channeled to the Kafinda CRB to fund community projects within the GMA. Other forms of benefits to

the community have included employment opportunities in the national park and the provision of social services such as health and education. Potential economic sources in safari hunting and Community Based Tourism (CBT) are yet to be realized in Kafinda GMA. The Kafinda local's are passive recipients of benefits generated from ecotourism in the KNP. Secondly the chapter further established that the community is also engaged in sustainable alternative projects (from illegal hunting) through the KTCP. Community projects have included Income Generating Activities (IGAs) and CF programmes meant to supplement protein intake and to generate incomes for locals. It can be concluded that the alternative survival strategies that have been put in place for the community have not fully addressed the local's daily needs for survival. The local community continues to practice unsustainable utilization of resources within the national park and KGMA. Lastly the chapter established that local community participation in the planning and management of ecotourism in KNP remains inadequate and leaves much to be desired. The community lacks adequate opportunities for active participation in planning and decision-making on wildlife management.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 OPPORTUNITIES AND CONSTRAINTS OF ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT

7.1 Introduction

The ecotourism industry in most developing nations is faced with both opportunities and constraints with regard to achieving the goal of sustainable development, which promotes social and economic development of local communities. It is the intention of this chapter to bring to discussion the opportunities and constraints towards ecotourism development. The chapter will seek to answer the objective which examines the extent of stakeholder collaboration in the planning and management of ecotourism in the protected area. The analysis of the interrelationships among stakeholders will also provide insight to areas of collaboration and conflict that exist within and among actors in ecotourism. Specific reference will be drawn from actors where the present study was conducted, which include ZAWA, KTL park management, Kafinda CRB and government authority-MTENR. This chapter will further discuss the major opportunities and constraints that the Kafinda community encounters in an effort to benefit and participate in ecotourism. Overall the chapter will answer the first research question that sought to find out what opportunities and constraints ecotourism provides for local economic development. Based on the opportunities and constraints discussed the chapter will conclude by presenting an analytical framework describing the status of ecotourism at KNP.

7.2 Stakeholder Collaboration and Conflicts in Ecotourism

Proponents of ecotourism argue that 'ecotourism must be seen as a collaborative effort between local people and concerned, informed visitors to preserve wild lands and their biological and cultural assets through support of local community development' (Horwich et al. 1993, 152). Stakeholder collaboration is viewed as an essential component for effective planning and management of the tourism industry. It can be argued that much of the observed areas of conflicts that have arisen between and among actors in KNP are linked to how actors collaborate and are involved in planning and decision-making. Through the actor-oriented approach political

ecologists assess different types of actors in relation to their interest, actions and their political strengths and weaknesses.

7.2.1 Stakeholder Collaboration in Planning and Management

According to Wall and Mathieson (2006, 293) 'planning is the process of making decisions about future desired results and how to attain them.' Lack of effective representation of actors in planning can pose constraints on the development of ecotourism. The reasoning is that actors should be involved in planning of affairs that concern their future development. Likewise, there is increasing realization that, in order to manage protected areas effectively, there is need to emphasize working collaboratively with local communities and other interested actors. As earlier mentioned in section 6.4 of chapter six, the ZAWA (2002) MOU relating to management of KNP identifies the need for KTL to collaborate with the CRB in order to enhance management and development of the park.

Monthly meetings are held by the Community Relations Department of KTL park management, ZAWA and the Kafinda CRB to discuss the use of village scouts. However, the local ZAWA office is suspected of misusing patrols. One respondent stated that the local ZAWA office 'claims to meet poachers and are seen coming with animal meat when on duty.' In addition the respondent further stated that 'the watch formed by ZAWA seems to incorporate poachers … authorities contribute to high poaching in the area.' From the interviews conducted this has been one major source of conflict between ZAWA and the KTL park management. Another respondent stated that ZAWA has not been fully involved in conservation and they are not working to full capacity. Due to the inactive role by ZAWA, some actors claimed that scouts have not been able to curb poaching. The KTL Park manager stated that 'no ZAWA officers sit with KTL scouts to monitor poaching activities.' In addition the KTL park manager stated that the 'local ZAWA personnel are controversial.' The park manager expressed hope that the local office will be more involved with the coming of the new area warden, who he said looks promising and helpful.

The local ZAWA office stated that they have limited resources during their patrols which have hindered their operations. Poachers have taken advantage of this in the rainy season, as officers do not have the appropriate resources to carry out patrols

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effectively. The scouts lack equipment such as uniforms, boots and tents. The local ZAWA office indicated that only food and bicycles are provided. The local ZAWA office criticized KTL management for its tendency to make more use of scouts hired by the Trust, rather than those from the local ZAWA office. The respondents further stated that outsourced scouts are paid better allowances than the local ZAWA scouts. This gave the impression that there is partiality in the treatment of scouts hired by the Trust and those trained by the local ZAWA office. It was noted that local ZAWA office feels excluded from KTL management of scouts and patrols. It was further noted that this has caused conflict and tension between KTL and the local ZAWA office (especially at park management level).

A quarterly report by KTL (2006) states that 'cooperation between ZAWA officers and KTL scouts remained disappointingly low with 60 man days of ZAWA officers patrolling with KTL scouts during the whole quarter….ZAWA continues to do their own patrols sometimes with CRB scouts inside and outside the park rather than joining up with KTL scouts.' The lack of a common vision has not enhanced effective collaboration and co-management of the park between both actors. Scouts from both sides have their own objectives and therefore implement their own agendas. This has resulted in continued suspicion and tension. From the interviews it was noted that there has, however, been more collaboration with the ZAWA head office than the local one.

Another meeting that has provided an opportunity for actors to plan and collaborate is through the KTL management committee for the park. The chief in the previous chapter expressed concern for not been part of the management committee meetings. As the political ecology approach suggests, it can be argued the community has been politically marginalized in this regard. Lack of local representation in park management affairs has resulted in unequal power relations with regard to environmental decisions made at management level. Moreover, the composition of the KTL management committee only includes the local elite from the community (See Appendix IV), who are most likely not able to represent the best interests of the local community. Communities, it has been argued are not to be thought of as a homogenous group. Usually affluent community members are more influential in the development process and may therefore benefit more than others.

It can be argued that the lack of effective community representation at management level, where planning and decision-making concerning park resources are made, has contributed to the initiation of community projects in which some members of the community have shown themselves as uninterested. Kiss (1999) supports the need of an approach to ecotourism which starts from the needs, concerns and welfare of local host communities. Proponents of ecotourism have identified a lack of integration of local needs and preferences into the planning process (Brandon 1993). One can therefore argue that centralized top-down planning is still alive in protected area management strategies, despite the shift towards decentralized bottom-up approaches to protected area management. This has in turn posed constraints on the devolution of power to the local level. With such a scenario the opportunity for local people to participate in decisions concerning tourism and local development in their area remains minimal.

Findings have shown that some local community members are reluctant to get involved in ecotourism activities for lack of interest. It was also found out that some locals (especially the males) are simply not attracted to the projects so they do not get involved. It was noted that women participate more actively than their male counter parts in community projects. All VAGs visited had a membership list with women in the majority. Projects promoted by the Trust have also been treated with suspicion by some locals and this has created tension between locals who are actively involved and those who oppose these ideas. Locals not participating in community projects have not appreciated the need to participate in ecotourism and have resorted to other means of survival such as illegal poaching and unsustainable use of other natural resources, which is in conflict with ecotourism objectives in the area. Such illegal exploitation of environmental resources is described by political ecologists as patterns of resistance by grassroots actors. Political ecologist view such resistance as ways in which weaker actors are able to resist their more powerful counterparts.

It was a general concern among a majority of respondents interviewed that the presence of the government (MTENR) has not been felt on the ground. Lack of government presence and interaction with stakeholders in the field has constrained progress of the sector. Other respondents were of the opinion that government has

been unable to plan and regulate tourism on the ground. And as a result there has been inadequate direction to the sector. One respondent stated that the Tourism Policy exists, but there has been no public awareness on the same. In addition, one respondent explicitly stated that a supportive ministry should be able to fight the causes of tourism such as prices of fuel (which have doubled in the last one year), currency instability and exchange rates. The respondent concluded by stating that government needs to do more to facilitate, support and get involved in tourism. From the interviews it was gathered that government continues to adopt a top-down approach to planning and decision-making in the tourism industry. As discussed in Chapter five, though policy documents recognize the importance of local participation, there has been more rhetoric than reality in government developmental approaches. Bottom-up approaches that gives power to locals to plan and make decisions has not yet been realized by the Kafinda Community.

From the interviews it was observed that the relationship between KTL park management, ZAWA and the community was not sound for effective ecotourism development. One key informant had this to say, 'for better management KTL, CRB and ZAWA need to work in co-operation with the community so that poaching can be eliminated.' One respondent was of the view that the 'relationship between KTL and ZAWA is sour.' The interviews further suggest that actors mistrust each other and are suspicious of one another's activities. This has also been a result of the lack of information-sharing among actors. The lack of information-sharing can be seen as a reflection of limited collaboration in planning and management of the sector. Due to lack of information on what is going on, locals argued that they are unable to have any say on decisions that are made by the Trust or ZAWA. With minimal influence in planning and decision-making locals still lack the power to exert control over their environment. This has in turn led to tension and various conflicts between actors. According to the political ecology framework, such conflicts are a consequence of unequal power relations in human-environment interactions at local, regional or global levels.

7.3 Conflicts in Ecotourism Development
The lack of effective collaboration and participation in planning and management is one area that has posed constraints and conflicts toward ecotourism development in

KNP. This section discusses and identifies other areas of conflict that have arisen as a result of ecotourism development in KNP. Factors that contribute to tensions and conflicts among actors in ecotourism development are discussed in the same section. This thesis argues that addressing these conflicts may address constraints in ecotourism and be able to provide increased opportunities for local economic development for the Kafinda community and sustainable development of ecotourism in the area.

7.3.1 Lack of Rights for Equitable Access to Economic Benefits

One core question posed by political ecologists focusing on parks and biodiversity is on how environmental costs and benefits are distributed (Neumann 2005). Political ecologists have assumed that costs and benefits associated with environmental change are for the most part distributed among actors unequally. They also assume that an unequal distribution of environmental costs and benefits reinforces or reduces social economic inequalities (Bryant and Bailey 1997). Such inequalities have also been a source of potential conflicts in ecotourism development.

Under the Wildlife Act No. 12 1998 (see chapter five Table 5), mechanisms for revenue-sharing have not been specific on percentages accruing to CRBs, chiefs or ZAWA. Likewise the National Parks and Wildlife Policy of 1998 has no percentage shares detailed. This shows that legal instruments do not make provisions for the equitable access to and distribution of economic benefits to local communities. Moreover, local communities are rarely consulted and are not part of revenue-sharing from tourism activities in national parks. Research findings in section 6.2.1 of the sixth chapter show that the Kafinda community was not part of the decision to allocate 5 % of the tourism revenues generated from the park to the CRB. It can therefore be argued that the interests of ZAWA and KTL preceded those of the local community. This level of participation in wildlife management at KNP can be described as passive, based on Pretty's (1995) typology of participation. Locals are informed of what had already been decided or what is going to happen. It is from such a perspective that political ecologists have emphasized the role that power plays in conditioning who benefits, and who loses from the Third World environmental crisis (Bryant and Bailey 1997).

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It was established that the lack of involvement of the Kafinda community in revenue sharing has made them more suspicious over where the rest of the money is taken. Respondents from the local community strongly feel that 5% should be revisited as it is not sufficient for all to access. One respondent indicated that at local level conflicts have arisen within the CRBs and VAGs over financial management and distribution of meager resources in the community. Money and finances are identified as critical elements in dividing a community. Fennell (1999, 217) suggests that 'there is need to be open about expenditures and to share information in an attempt to dispel feelings of mismanagement or corruption is to be transparent in one's approach to management.' Therefore, at whatever level money is managed, there is need to take up a more transparent and accountable approach in its distribution. At the local level the CRD at KTL tries to impart skills within the CRB to help locals resolve such financial conflicts. The CRB members are further required to impart this knowledge to Village Action Groups (VAGs) in the community. However, it is not soo much on how locals are able to resolve these conflicts but, more needs to be done on how locals are able to be guided on equitable sharing of resources.

The research findings further suggest that the existing economic benefits from tourism revenue in the park allocated to the community (as discussed in Chapter Six) have not being able to out-weigh the cost that the locals have had to endure. It is not enough merely to allocate a fixed proportion of wildlife revenues to community development activities – the level and types of benefits provided must be tied closely to the magnitude of wildlife costs accruing to the communities (Barrow and Fabricius 2002). Similarly, Emerton (2001, 226) argues that,

> Community approaches to wildlife conservation can be judged to be economically successful if they not only generate benefits but also ensure that these benefits are of a sufficient value, and accrue in an appropriate form, to offset the costs that wildlife imposes on the communities and to make wildlife an economically viable land use compared with other wildlife-displacing livelihood alternatives.

Research findings point to the fact that tourism profits from wildlife resources in KNP have not be equitably distributed and locals have had to bear the major costs of loss of access to a major protein supplement of wildlife meat. At local level the meager resources have reinforced conflicts within the community. It has further created a

situation where there are the 'have' and 'have not's' within the community. Therefore closer assessments of the costs and benefits that locals have forgone would be required to determine the rightful percentage to be allocated to a community such as Kafinda. The next section further discusses and identifies how locals in Kafinda GMA have endured some of the costs of restricted access to traditional natural resources such as wildlife, a major protein supplement.

7.3.2 Lack of Land Rights and Access to Traditional Natural Resources

Another core question posed by political ecologists focusing on parks and biodiversity is on how is access to land and resources controlled (Neumann 2005). Land rights and land based resources are among the main features of political ecology enquiry. Land ownership translates to power. The absence of clearly defined traditional land rights gives locals little control over development of their homelands. For instance the Kafinda CRB is unable to develop their Community Based Tourism initiative owing to lack of rights to land at the proposed David Livingstone memorial site. Drumm and Moore (2005, 41) argue that 'where communities are well organized and have title to traditional lands they have been more successful in capturing a greater share of tourism spending in natural areas.' The Kafinda community has not been able to realize this opportunity.

On the other hand Jones and Murphree (2004) argue that the lack of exclusive group rights over land remains a crucial constraint to the promotion of sustainable use of natural resources. The lack of a landuse plan in KGMA has deprived the local community to access, use and own land. This has also made them less responsible in management of natural resources. It has also contributed to the lack of stewardship among locals with regard to the sustainable utilization of resources in the study area. With no rights to land the local community lacks the power to control land-use and access to land-based resources. The chief of the area expressed concern on the manner in which land in the GMA was been utilized without his knowledge and approval. He had this to say,

> There is lack of information on what is going on. The clinic was built without my knowledge;
> KTL came into my chiefdom without my permission to build. The land in the chiefdom is
> under the chief. But I do not know some of the things that are taking place in my chiefdom. If

I am asked by foreigners I would not be able to answer well on the same or know what to tell
them.

It was observed that the lack of recognition of the chief's authority in the GMA has in
a way contributed to conflicts between the KTL and the chief. Some respondents also
indicated that new Mulaushi Research Centre, which is currently under construction
by the Trust, was started without the prior knowledge of the chief and this brought
conflict. The chief, who felt that the centre was built without his knowledge,
threatened to set the place ablaze.

The lack of clearly defined tenure rights for locals has further contributed to
restrictions on control of resources. The above mentioned conflicts and tension point
to the fact that the Wildlife Act of 1998 has not been explicit on granting local
communities legal rights to control and access natural resources. Most indigenous
people are marginalized by their national governments in this regard. Development
Services Initiatives (2004) identifies that local communities in Zambia are usually
denied the right to benefit; the right to manage the resources (including setting offtake
quotas and protecting the resource) and the right of disposal (which includes the right
to decide what is to be done with the resource and also to whom they can be sold or
given, and in what manner). Conflicts therefore arise due to restrictions resulting from
the loss of right, to access land and use of other resources in the park and GMA. With
lack of rights ZAWA and KTL tend to have an upper hand in landuse planning and
management of the GMA than the locals would have in the area.

In KNP restrictions have been placed on resources such as wildlife. In the focus group
discussion held, certain members of the group identified animals as one major natural
resource that they recognized as important for their survival. On the same point one
participant boldly stated that 'you have stopped eating those things.' It was observed
that restrictions have been placed on the community to access wildlife in the GMA.
Restrictions on access to wildlife from a political ecology viewpoint can be argued as
ways in which an actor may seek to exert control over the environment of other
actors. Bryant and Bailey (1997) argue that power manifested as control over access is
linked to marginalization of weaker grassroots actors. It was noted that the
community has not fully accepted the idea that legally they are not to hunt animals in

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the park. The denial of traditional hunting rights has resulted in conflicts over continued poaching in KNP and other parks in Zambia. Such conflicts have posed a danger for conservation of wildlife (as some disgruntled locals have resorted to poaching) and other resources in the area. Other locals continue to use natural resources unsustainably through slash and burning farming mechanisms, cutting down of trees for access to caterpillars or the use of traditional poison for fishing as has been discussed in the preceding chapter, in section 6.4.2.

Another factor that has caused conflict from restricted access to resources based on interviews conducted with respondents has been on the state of existing park boundaries. One respondent stated that 'the local community has been forced to book on false allegations.' Another respondent stated that the park has no beacons, while another said some parts of the park boundaries are marked by natural features such as rivers or by imaginary lines. A respondent said it is at such places that locals have been caught and charged for trespassing, illegal fishing, picking of mushrooms or other activities. This has in turn contributed to conflicts between KNP management and the local community. The KTL park manager however indicated that the park was demarcated and park boundaries were available. One respondent suggested that the Ministry should come in and work on KNP park boundaries.

The lack of a fence in certain parts of the KNP has led to elephant raids which have damaged 13 hectares of arable land in nearby villages. According to Namaiko and Chama (2005, 18) 'human wildlife conflicts is very serious in the chiefdom. The notable game animals that are of great danger include elephants, hippos and monkeys.' The draft CBNRM policy recognizes the potential costs that communities living side by side with wildlife face. The policy states that this has continued to pose challenges of animal wildlife conflicts, which at times has led to loss of life and destruction of crops and harvest. The Kafinda community continues to be a victim of such raids and has had to face the cost of being a neighbour to the park.

Further enquires were made on what measures have been put in place to address the destruction of crops and harvest by elephants. The KTL Community Relations Department stated that relief food has been brought to affected communities through the Disaster Management Committee (DMC). Respondents expressed concern on the

relief food supplied as it was not sufficient to address the damage caused. Respondents felt that locals will soon run out of this food. This meant that relief food supplied is not sufficient to sustain locals to the next farming season. The use of dried chilli fences are some long terms measures which the CRD is working on to deter elephants from following a local *mpundu* tree that attracts them in the rainy season. The chilli fences are still a pilot project and poles have been placed at regular intervals at Mulaushi and Mulembo.

The denial of traditional land rights and hunting rights are some of the justice struggles that the local community have had to face. Locals have had to forgo opportunities to generate income and access to natural resources that provide a basis of survival and a livelihood. Crop raiding by elephants in the Kafinda GMA is also a cost that the locals have had to bear for being a neighbour to KNP. Locals lose their seasonal harvest and the relief food provided is usually not sufficient to see them through to the next farming season. The Wildlife Act of 1998 does not provide sustainable solutions to animal-wildlife conflicts. In this regard it can be argued that locals are impoverished as a result of wildlife conservation in the area. Its on such grounds that political ecologists have argued that weaker actors are marginalized and hard hit by the costs, while the more powerful actors are able to capture disproportionately any benefits that come from the resource in question (Bryant and Bailey 1997). The solution for equitable distribution of benefits and resources may lie in the formulation of a 'political ethic of justice' as suggested by Low and Gleeson (1998).

7.3.3 Appreciation of Local Cultural Values

It has been argued that recognition of local cultures and traditional authority is good for conservation. It is local tradition that the chief is recognized and respected. An official from ZAWA had this to say: 'the chief's position as a VIP can not be dealt with by KTL.' He further went on to say: 'KTL management has capitalized on the excessive demands of the Chief.' It is tradition that a gift in the form of tribute is paid to the Chief when a visit is made to the palace. Items can include livestock, agricultural products or other items. Chiefs are regarded as Very Important Persons (VIPs) and therefore their presence requires recognition in the local Zambian culture.

However, most conservation projects tend to undermine the traditional authority of the chief and this has led to conflict and constraints in management and implementation of ecotourism activities. An informal interview held with one of the locals revealed that it is tradition that when animals are killed by poachers, the chief has to have the meat. However in such instances one respondent indicated that, the Trust has deposed all meat into the rivers. This has also created conflicts due to the lack of observation of local customs by the Trust. As earlier stated DSI (2004) proposes that local citizens be given the right of disposal, which includes the right to decide what is to be done with the resource. This right is lacking and locals have no power to oppose this decision made by their counterpart actors. This has posed a constraint on development of the sector as some locals remain disgruntled and continue to poach and use other resources in an unsustainable manner.

7.4 Opportunities and Constraints of Local Participation in Ecotourism

Participatory approaches have meant that people are now getting involved in the planning process of their local development. Local participation in the development of protected areas is able to function as an early warning system which could help managers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the local population. This will entail that conflicts would be brought out in the open and resolved during the planning process (Drake 1991). Local participation, as described by Cernea (1991), has entailed giving people more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. It means empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions, and control the activities that affect their lives.

One key element to successful participation is the devolution of rights to the local communities. In other words participation also entails scaling down by developing strong use rights to the lowest levels. Most local communities in developing countries lack the legal power to own, use and manage resources which provide a basis of their survival and livelihood (as discussed in the three preceding sections). The lack of active participation has denied locals the full realization of benefits entitled to them. It has been established that, when locals participate in decision-making and planning over natural resources such as wildlife management, they will have the opportunity to earn greater revenues from their area and tourism itself. The revenues will also

provide an incentive for locals to conserve wildlife in the area. Participation should therefore strive to address rights and responsibility to secure and manage natural resources by the locals. This process cannot proceed successfully unless the indigenous community has legal control over land and full legal rights to protect any business that they may establish (Wood 2002). The lack of tenure is one major factor that has a significant influence on local participation, which has been discussed in previous sections of this chapter. The research also identified other factors constraining local participation in ecotourism at KNP and surrounding areas, which are discussed in the following sections.

7.4.1 Lack of Local Capacity Building

Training of the community in Income Generating Activities (IGAs), Conservation Farming (CF) skills and natural resource manage is conducted through workshops. Training is facilitated by KTL Community Relations Department with support of the MAFF extension officer and the KCRB. The role of ZAWA in providing training has been minimal in this regard. One respondent has this to say: 'Can't say ZAWA is doing much. ZAWA is just involved with village scouts who manage the GMA. They train them and audit the CRB funds.' ZAWA has focused its attention on training scouts than on the overall capacity building within the community. Based on the focus group discussion, members in the group expressed concern on the inadequate training sessions. The focus group members argued by saying,

> All we do is attend workshops. This has not been enough. We need advanced training. Only small workshops are done, one day briefing is not enough, yet the trainers have taken three years in the same field. We need to attend more training.

Based on these sentiments it is not surprising to note the reluctance by community members to take up what they are taught at the field school onto their individual farms. The lack of sufficient knowledge and training can be argued as one factor hindering most locals from taking up the responsibility to practice CF techniques on their individual fields. The Community Relations Officers at KTL indicated that capacity is built through the CRB in the areas of natural protection and management, conservation, leadership skills and conflict management. The CRB has further imparted these skills to the local community through VAGs. It is has been generally acknowledged that CRBs have serious capacity constraints and funds received are

often mismanaged and not used effectively for community development (Dixey 2005). This scenario precisely applies to the Kafinda CRB. Building capacity within the community to manage the CRB and natural resources can enhance effective devolution at local levels. The community can also have an opportunity to participate fully in ecotourism activities in the area. Time, patience and trust are needed by actors to build capacity within the community.

7.4.2   Limited Support for Devolution of Power at Local Level

Community participation that leads to empowerment for local people is one of the major characteristics of ecotourism. True ecotourism, it has been argued should be able to shift economic and political control to the local community. One single most important factor in ecotourism, therefore, is how it affects local communities through the level and type of control that people have in its development.

Community Conservation in Zambia has provided the avenue for thinking about devolution and active local participation. The inception of Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) projects in Zambia such as ADMADE has sought to increase local community participation in wildlife management. Devolution is one of the conceptual pillars of CBNRM (Jones and Murphree 2004). Devolution through CBNRM is seen to provide locals with an opportunity to be granted power, through provision of rights for management of natural resources. Chapter five identifies and discusses the limitations in policy documents and legal instruments with regard to community participation in wildlife management. The study found that legal rights to aid active community participation have not be been fully devolved at local level. The state through the ZAWA retains a considerable amount of power in planning and decision making on wildlife management in national parks and GMAs in the country.

Findings revealed that the Kafinda Community lack rights to equitable access of economic revenue (obtained from the park) and traditional natural resources. The locals further lack rights to resources disposition in the park. With lack of rights locals in KGMA are compelled to continue to utilize resources unsustainably. This further entails that locals in the Kafinda community lack the power to own, control and manage wildlife resources. They further lack the power to negotiate access to and control of wildlife resources in the park. In other words, the devolution of power to

manage wildlife is still lacking. It can be argued that community conservation is still illusive. Bottom-up approaches in management of natural resources are yet to be realized. Research findings in chapter six show that the Kafinda community are passive recipients of income from wildlife and have fewer opportunities to engage in active natural resources management.

The lack of clearly articulated tenure rights in GMAs has further constrained devolution of power and this has equally affected local community participation. As findings have shown, the power of the community through the chief as the custodian of land in GMAs is not recognized in local developments. With the lack of rights to land, local communities lack the power to prevent other people from using the land that is not in their best interest (such as the Mulaushi Research Centre that has been received with mixed feelings by the community). This brings us to one of the major constraints against effective devolution of authority to lower levels, namely 'reluctance of political and economic elites to give up the benefits that accrue from controlling wildlife resources' (Jones and Murphree 2004, 79). A key informant from MTENR had this to say,

> ZAWA has encouraged communities to make GMAs and pay them (through safari hunting). The percentage is determined by ZAWA. Once it is made a GMA it is controlled by ZAWA. GMAs should be managed by the community not ZAWA. ZAWA does not want to let go of GMAs, they do not want as they get money from there. GMAs are seen as an investment ground for ZAWA. The communities stand no chance in management. ZAWA also carries out the management plans the communities are not involved.

Practitioners feel that the government of Zambia has withdrawn funding from ZAWA well before it is ready to fund itself. The partial release of ZAWA from government has compelled the institution to develop a more commercial outlook. To survive, it has used its power to charge landlords (both private and communal) as much as two-thirds of the net value of hunting fees (Child et al. 2004a). In other words, tourism operations in parks and hunting in game management areas have been sold to the private sector (De la Harpe 2004). This approach has also been applied to the Kafinda GMA where safari hunting rights have been granted to Busanga Trails Limited (BTL). ZAWA in this regard continues to play a significant role in wildlife management even in GMA. The role of the community to be active participants in

wildlife management is lost. If the communities are not able to realize sufficient benefits from such arrangements they are bound to feel more marginalized from their traditional resources. For instance a respondent in Chapter six section 6.2.4 was skeptical on the delivery of pledged benefits by the safari hunting company. The study found that promised benefits had not yet been delivered as per agreement, at the time of field research in June and July of the year 2006.

Another management approach adopted by ZAWA has included the outsourcing of parks and the encouragement of community and private game ranches. Kasanka National Park is one such park that has been out-sourced to Kasanka Trust Limited. An enquiry was made with an official from ZAWA to establish reasons behind the privatization of KNP. He had this to say : 'ZAWA attains a regulatory role dedicated to manage parks for the government of Zambia … it is with an understanding that there is cost in managing of the park which ZAWA cannot bear.' He further stated that 'KTL has borne management costs by ZAWA.' ZAWA faces structural constraints and therefore lacks the capacity to manage national parks due to understaffing, limited funding etc. This also forms the basis as to why ZAWA opted to privatize some parks such as KNP itself and the Liuwa National Park to ensure sustainable conservation of wildlife resource. This approach has been seen to revamp the KNP, which was previously depleted of wildlife. However, partnerships of this kind still leave much to be desired, especially in the area of park management. Child et al. (2004b, 169) argues that 'a plethora of local stakeholders and authorities mean that there is no one single negotiating point and leaves space for political intrigue and influence that play on underlying power relationships.' It is on such premises that political ecologists argue that actors have the capacity to influence, by exerting their power on environmental management priorities. Child et al. (2004b, 169) further argue that in such partnerships 'suspicion and trust are major issues, especially when the transaction negotiations are between different races and touch issues such as the sovereignty of 'national' parks.' Based on findings it was noted that there is suspicion between KTL and ZAWA with regard to park patrols. The community is also highly suspicious of revenues generated by the Trust. Lack of transparency and information sharing among actors has created room for suspicion over one another's activities. The solution may lie in developing a single negotiation point for all stakeholders.

The commercial outlook by the ZAWA has been received with mixed feelings in the sector. One respondent stated that 'the sector is constrained by shortsighted policies. ZAWA has maximized on revenue generation through hunting by expanding quotas, moving into a commercialized direction. How is ZAWA able to balance the commercial aspect and conservation aspect?' ZAWA as a regulatory agency for wildlife and GMAs and also a direct beneficiary of wildlife revenues, faces a serious conflict of interest. Power is not easy to give up and ZAWA faces that dilemma. According to DSI (2004, 64) the resolution of this matter belongs to the MTENR which has to make a decision:

- Whether to allow ZAWA to continue to retain GMA revenues, in which case effective CBNRM is unlikely;
- Whether to insist of [sic] effective devolution, in which case alternative funding of ZAWA and national parks will be necessary.

The DSI recommends that, given that the first option is not sustainable, and that there is potential donor commitment to the second option, it is the second option that is to be preferred. It is still important that the government-MTENR makes a decision inorder for the sector to sustainably develop.

7.4.3 Insufficient Incentives to Participate

Incentive-based approaches to conservation are now argued as essential to further the enhancement of community participation in ecotourism projects. In Kasanka National Park 'ecotourism is seen as representing a source of employment and income, which should in turn act as an incentive to halt destructive practices' (Brandon 1993, 139). According to an official from ZAWA, the allocation of the 5% to the Kafinda community Resource Board is meant for the 'community to realize the benefits of conservation and later conservation in the game management area.' In Kafinda GMA, for example one respondent stated that 'when these local people see these poachers they arrest them and take them to ZAWA. When they see these benefits of conservation from the CRB they arrest people.' The local community's effort in apprehending poachers was also confirmed by the local ZAWA office and KTL park management.

It is argued that 'incentives motivate communities and other role players to not only participate in projects, but also to manage natural resources sustainably' (Fabricius 2004, 32). However benefits from tourism have not provided sufficient incentives for changes in natural resource use in the Kafinda GMA as locals continue to use resources unsustainably. Despite the reluctance by some locals in the Kafinda GMA to participate, others are responding to the available incentives. As my research findings have shown, some locals are now able to report illegal poachers within the community to ZAWA. This form of participation in wildlife management can be described as functional participation, based on Pretty's (1995) typology of participation. Locals are supporting project objectives to conserve wildlife from illegal utilization.

However, the challenge is to what extent the majority of the community members are able to access these incentives in order for them to support conservation objectives. As the findings have shown in the preceding chapter, the 5% allocation has not been sufficient to fund a majority of community projects. While donor funds have not been consistent for sustainable development of community projects. Hence, some locals have been reluctant to participate in conservation programmes as has been revealed in the previous chapter. Locals are yet to appreciate the importance of conservation. It can be argued that locals have most likely viewed wildlife conservation as a cost to their survival and livelihoods. As Emerton (2001, 226) suggests,

> Providing communities with economic incentives to conserve wildlife means ensuring that they are better off in financial and livelihood terms with wildlife than they would be without it, at the same time as overcoming the root economic factors which cause them to engage in economic activities which threaten or deplete wildlife resources.

Findings in chapter six have revealed that wildlife benefits should therefore be seen to meet wildlife costs that the community has had to endure. In the Kafinda GMA, introduction of sustainable alternatives to illegal hunting through the KTCP has not been able to replace sufficiently the protein requirements for the local population. Community projects having potential to provide proteins and income such as livestock-rearing, fish-farming, oil press, vegetable farming and bee-keeping are still developing and the majority of locals have not realized much benefits.

The study found that the development of community projects is constrained by a combination of factors such as lack of markets, equipment, local capacity skills in leadership qualities, business and other. Inaddition some locals continue to resist community projects. Commitment and responsibility levels are low even among locals who are involved in community projects. The study found that the majority of households are yet to be fully integrated into such projects to realize the benefits that KTCP promises. The impact at household level is therefore minimal. Moreover most of the projects are principally owned and managed by the community VAGs, co-operatives and clubs. The study found that distribution of available resources at community level has not been effective and has lead to conflicts and abandonment of projects by certain groups. Hence there are insufficient incentives available to enhance local support and participation in ecotourism. It can be argued that by fulfilling the survival requirements of the community through incentives it is assumed that ecotourism will be sustainable and can in turn provide an opportunity for local development of the area. In the Kafinda community this is yet to be realized. Locals continue to poach wildlife that supports on going ecotourism development in the park.

Incentives are also viewed as one way in which the community can be encouraged to participate in ecotourism development and planning. Fabricius (2002, 32) states that 'incentives also encourage local residents to engage in the planning, to participate in the creation of new local institutions and rules, and, generally, to engage and sacrifice their time for many years or even decades.' According to the CRD officer, one of the limitations toward integrating the community into the Kasanka Trust Community Project (KTCP) has been that in the rainy season locals are not available for meetings as they are farming. The fact that locals would prefer to go to their individual fields to farm can be as a result of the insufficient incentives available to encourage them to participate. It seems that it is more profitable for them to invest their time in activities that are able to provide a means of survival and livelihood such as their individual farming fields.

However, it can be argued that the provision of incentives should not be the ultimate goal. Ecotourism projects need to go a step further to allow locals to be empowered to participate in decision-making, management affairs and ecotourism activities in the

area. But this does not usually occur, and the consequence is a lack of ownership of, or responsibility for, the results. For instance, my research findings have shown that local participation in ecotourism planning and management of KNP has been functional (as discussed in this section). Consequently the local community have been passive recipients to economic benefits accrued from tourism in the park.

7.4.4 Insufficient Financial Support

The lack of funds is one major factor that hinders development of community projects. The KTL (2006) report identifies insufficient funds as a constraint for continuation of the community project activities. As has been identified, revenue from the tourism activities in the park have not been sufficient to meet community activities. On the other hand, donor funds have not been sustainable. Members of a focus group also identified the lack of funds as one major factor that has limited development of their community projects. One respondent indicated that donor support rendered to the community is tied with conditions such that some community members have failed to meet these requirements and have not been able to access funds. Requirements have included submission of a project proposal to access funds which some members have been unable to present for lack of skills in book keeping and other requirements. Another major donor requirement has been the need for applicants to ensure that their projects apply conservation-friendly techniques for sustainable development of the natural environment. According to a respondent some locals have not met these requirements and have not been able to access donor funds.

7.4.5 Lack of Local Partnerships

Community Based Tourism (CBT) is one avenue from which the community can generate income. The local community in Kafinda GMA is constrained by various factors against taking up the opportunity to increase income generation from CBT in the area to complement ecotourism activities in the park. A general problem for community based institutions, as stated in section 7.4.1, is the lack of management and business skills. Another major constraint identified by the study is the absence of business partnerships with the local community. It has been suggested that local communities need partnerships to succeed in such local tourism ventures for them to increase on their income sources. However, many conservation authorities and their technocrats seem unconvinced of the desirability of building true partnerships with

the communities and still view rural communities as technically unable and politically underprepared to play a serious role in conservation (Barrow and Fabricius 2002).

Ecotourism is widely recognized as an international activity that requires expertise and experience. Locals are usually not able to cope with the demands of business as an international activity. Wood (1991, 204) argues that 'local conservation organizations generally are not prepared to establish ecotourism programs since they lack business acumen and expertise in the travel arena.' One respondent stated that locals have not taken the challenge to start tourism for fear of lack of profit, lack of finances, marketing and product training. The same respondent further proposed that the government needs to link locals to tour operators, as the tourist industry is a capitalist business. Dixey (2005) also argues that tourism is not an ideal entry-level business for rural communities with little previous experience. It is demanding, can take years to be successful and even entrepreneurs with considerable experience can fail to start up and make profit. Wood (2002) recommends that sustained efforts are required to get the communities to be fully part of this international market business, when they choose. Since some local communities around the world such as the Kafinda community are keen to get involved, assistance is needed to gauge their market potential and business opportunities.

Findings revealed that KTL Community Relations Department seemed to play more of an advisory role with the local community regarding development of community ecotourism in the area. The Kafinda Community still lacks the business skills and expertise to manage fully and control the development of CBT in the GMA. What the community would require is a business partner to co-manage community ecotourism in the area. By entering into co-management agreements, the community may have an opportunity that will provide them with a measure of control to protect their land and reap economic benefits from tourism without undermining their cultural identity. Based on Pretty's (1995) typology of participation, interactive participation will be considered most appropriate for the Kafinda community at this stage. This participation involves the community interacting with professionals for education and advice to manage the development of community tourism. This will provide an opportunity for locals to sharpen their knowledge and technical skills on ecotourism.

Non-governmental organizations and non-profit groups are seen to play a significant role in promoting partnerships that provide technical assistance training and capital that are vital to allow communities to share benefits. However, the process cannot proceed successfully unless the indigenous community gains 'legal control over land and full legal rights to protect any business that they may establish' (Wood 2002, 45). However, the best option would be if the local community was able to take full control of tourism development in the area, through self-mobilization as suggested by Pretty (1995). This would avoid a situation where the community is overshadowed by a business partner.

7.5 The Analytical Framework
The framework as presented in chapter three, section 3.5.2, evaluates ecotourism in KNP with the adjacent Kafinda Community. Rather than dwelling upon the possible conflicts between tourism, biodiversity and community interests, the framework encourages the identification of positive, synergetic relationships and permits the visual presentation of the status of tourism through the presentation of weak and missing links (Ross and Wall 2001). The framework will give a reflection of the general opportunities and constraints for development of ecotourism in the area based on the links between tourism, the resource and the community. Figure 12 shows that, in the case of KNP and surrounding community, most links are developed inadequately, while some are missing. One of the well developed links is the generation of tourism revenues for support of conservation of resources in the park as shown in Figure 12. The study established that much of the tourism revenues generated from the park are channeled to on-going conservation purposes in the park.

The involvement of the community in wildlife management has been inadequately developed. There is little direct involvement of locals in the conservation of wildlife that forms the base of ecotourism in the area. The community only supports wildlife protection in the park indirectly through community conservation projects in the Kafinda GMA as presented in chapter six section 6.4.2. Despite the conservation and awareness programmes and projects promoted by KTL Community Relations Department, locals continue to be involved in the unsustainable use of resources such as wildlife and other natural resources. Figure 12 shows that environmental advocacy to the community is inadequately developed due to the fact that some locals have not

responded as expected to conservation projects aimed at protecting wildlife under the KTCP. Hence the missing link for integrated sustainable resources-use between the park biodiversity and local community as show in Figure 12.
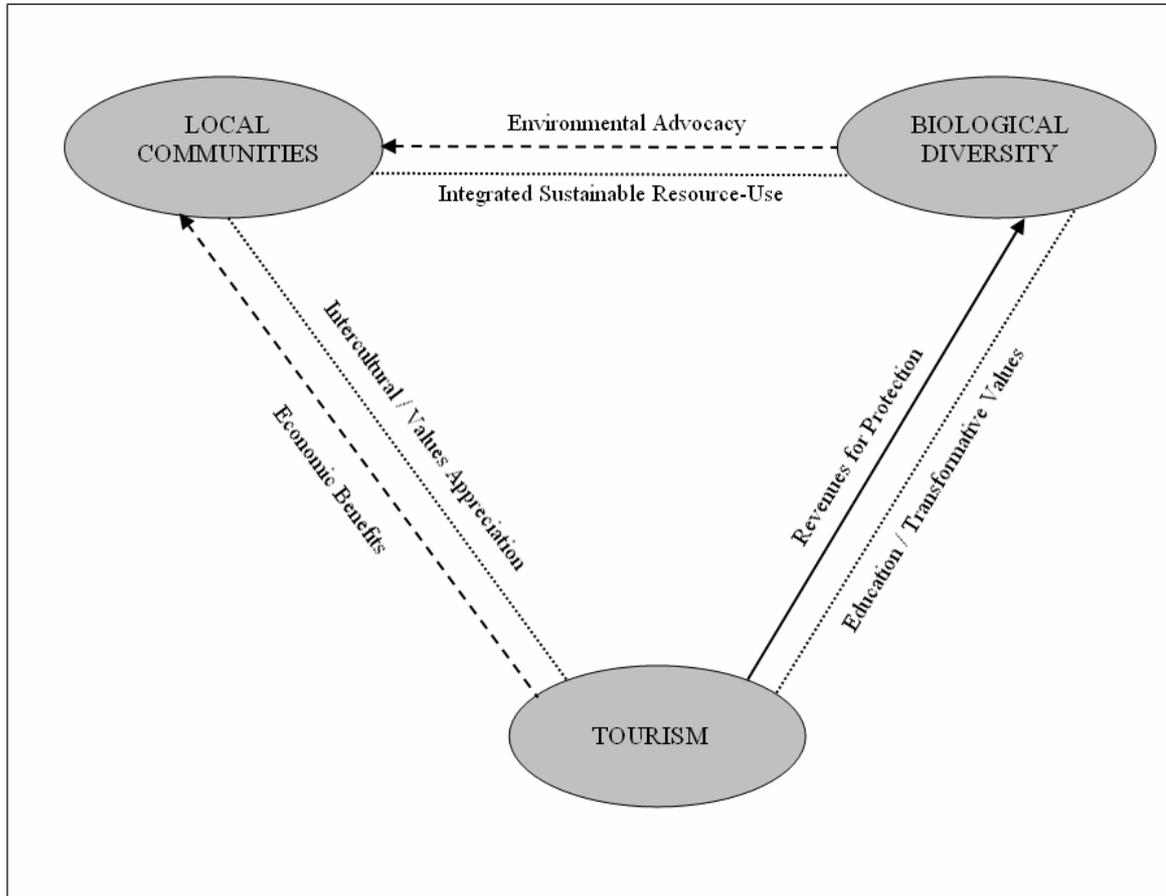
Source: Based on Ross and Wall (1999a) Modified Model for Kasanka National Park (KNP)

Figure 12: The Dynamic Interrelationship between People, Resources and Tourism in Kasanka National Park (KNP)

Key

←——→	Developed Link	←------	Inadequately Developed Link
——→	Well Developed Link	....	Missing Link
◄-----►	Fairly Developed		

Inaddition the inadequately developed tourism revenues have not made locals appreciate the importance of conservation as presented in Figure 12. It can be argued that there is need for well developed economic benefits to act as incentives for locals to respond positively to environmental awareness and conservation projects if sustainable integrated resources use is to be achieved in the KNP and KGMA.

The missing links point to the unrealized potential, such as opportunities of environmental education for visitors. Proponents of ecotourism argue that ecotourism should contribute to education and understanding. The principles of ecotourism recognize the need of educating tourists and other players to minimize impacts to the natural environment as shown in Table 4 chapter three. Despite the use of tourism revenues to promote conservation, the KNP park manager stated that the park still needs to get tourists actively involved in conservation activities. The Trust hopes to achieve this through developing paid holiday conservation in the park. The park manager further stated that the park lacks scientific co-ordination that would appeal to such tourism conservation work. To this effect the park management is looking into developing means of involving the tourists in park conservation. Hence the missing link on education between tourism and biodiversity as presented in Figure 12. Based on tourist responses it was observed that the majority of tourists had no comment on how they intended to be responsible to the environment. The Trust needs to plan on sensitization of tourists by offering literature and briefings. This may lead them to be responsible and cautious on their actions to the local environment.

Another unrealized opportunity is the potential for locals to benefit and be involved in tourism activities from wildlife conservation in the park. The lack of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) projects has also not provided an opportunity for inter-cultural values appreciation between the community and the tourist. The majority of tourists interviewed stated that they had the desire to visit the local community around the park. Some tourists expressed interest in the locals – to see how people live and their day to day activities. The absence of CBT has also meant that there has been no considerable impact on the local culture. Since there is potential for developing CBT in the area there would be need to plan for minimization of negative impacts on the local culture beforehand. It can be argued that with effective marketing of potential CBT product(s) a niche market can be created that can see the flow of tourists to support local development.

The development of synergistic relationships between natural areas, local population and tourism is very unlikely to occur without implementation of effective policies, management strategies, and involvement of a wide range of organizations, including

non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and, in developing areas, conservation and development-assistance agencies (Ross and Wall 2001).
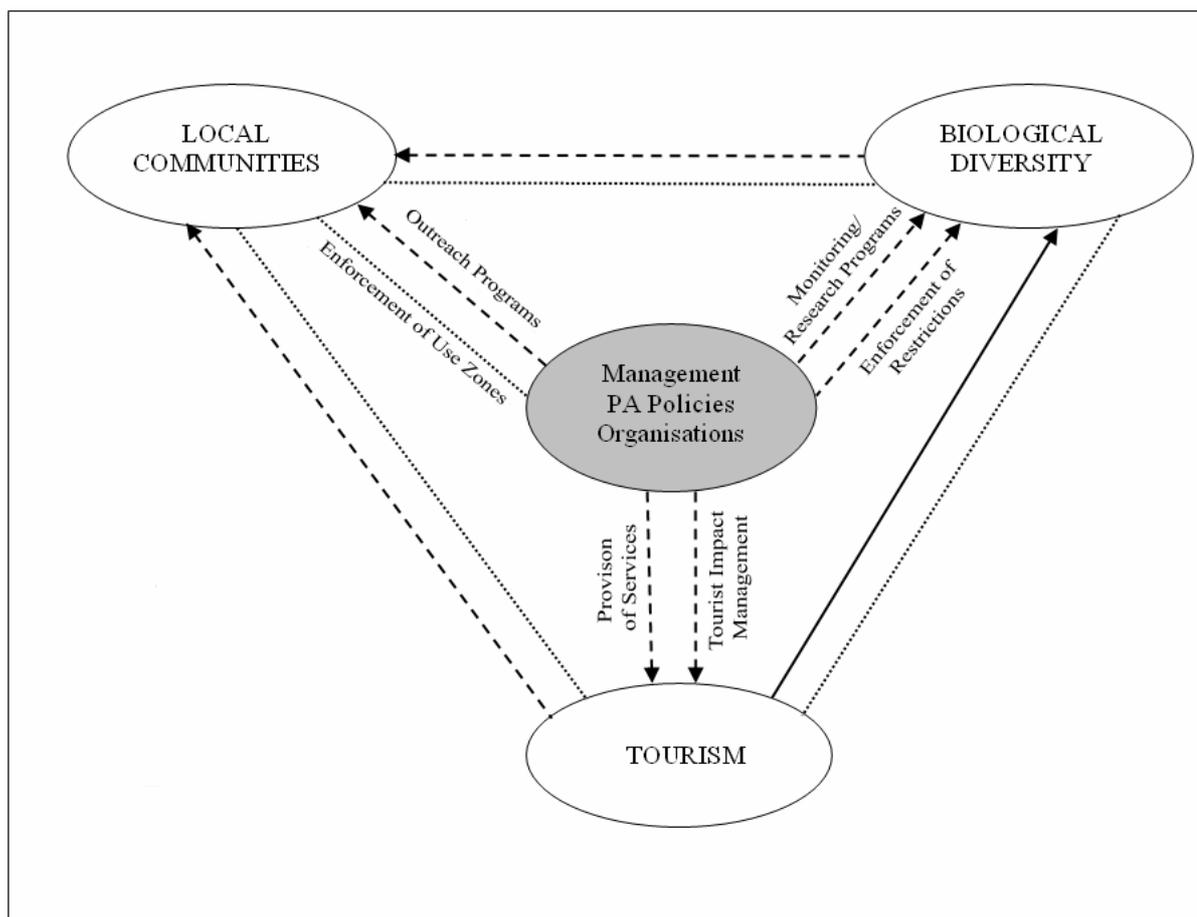
Figure 13: Management Agents Protected Area Policies Influencing Interrelationships in Kasanka National Park (KNP)

Key

←——→	Developed Link	←- - - - -	Inadequately Developed Link
——→	Well Developed Link	··············	Missing Link
←- - - -►	Fairly Developed		

Proponents of ecotourism argue that the ultimate success of ecotourism is dependent on the existence of committed institutions and individuals empowered by protected areas policies and management strategies (Ross and Wall 1999a). Findings show that the relationship between KTL and ZAWA with regard to cooperation in the area of enforcement of anti-poaching restrictions has been inadequate as depicted in Figure

13 below. Poaching continues to affect biological diversity in the park. This in turn poses constraints on ecotourism development.

As earlier stated park management acknowledges the need for increased scientific research in the park. One major research activity is the Darwin research project looking at hydrology and fire ecology of KNP. The KTL is in the process of increasing research activities with the construction of the Mulaushi Research Center located in the GMA near the park entrance. An increase in scientific research will also be an opportunity for KTL to manage tourism impact in KNP. Lack of adequate protected areas policies for monitoring and research tends to have an impact on tourism as shown in Figure 13. Increased scientific monitoring and research will also provide an opportunity for effective planning and management of ecotourism activities such as visitor management zoning and ecological monitoring.

Chapter five of the present thesis presents and discusses the institutional arrangements and administrative commitments towards ecotourism in wildlife protected areas. The study also identified that protected areas policies and legislation need to make provisions for active local involvement in ecotourism planning and management. Policy and legal instruments still fall short of meaningful devolution of power to local level institutions for wildlife management such as CRBs as discussed in section 7.4.2. The study established that protected area management policies have not provided an enabling framework to actively involve communities in ecotourism planning and management. The Trust has created outreach programs to get the community involved in wildlife conservation through the KTCP and CRB community projects. As findings have shown in the preceding chapters, these projects have been received with mixed responses from local community members. Some locals participate, while others have decided to shun away from these projects. This has had both positive and negative impacts on landscape resources in the park and GMA. Hence the inadequately developed and missing links between local communities and protected area policies in the area of out reach programs and enforcement of use zones as shown in the Figure 13.

The Trust recognizes the importance of providing adequate tourist services in the park. The park manager indicated that tourism in the park has grown 30 % per year,

meaning that occupancy rates are on the increase. Hence, there is need for an increase in bed capacity for visitors in the park and from proposed community-based projects. An increase in tourist occupancy will be an opportunity for increased tourism revenues for both conservation and community development purposes.

7.6 Summary

The chapter has identified and discussed the opportunities and constraints towards ecotourism development. The chapter has shown how actors collaborate in ecotourism development in KNP and surrounding areas. The study revealed a lack of effective co-management of park patrols between the local ZAWA office and the Trust. The chapter also sought to identify opportunities and constraints to local participation in ecotourism development. One major constraint identified by the study is that locals have restricted access and control over wildlife resources alongside other resources that provide a livelihood for them. This has implied that locals cannot negotiate access and they lack a sense of ownership to resources. As a result locals in KNP lack the power to be active participants in ecotourism development. In this regard the Kafinda community continues to be passive recipients of benefits accruing from tourism activities in the park. Consequently the opportunity for local participation in ecotourism is lost. Conflicts and tension have arisen among actors due to ineffective participation and collaboration in park affairs; inadequate distribution of tourism profits and rights to access and control natural resources such as land, wildlife, water and other forest resources.

The chapter concludes by providing an analysis and pictorial presentation of the relationships between actors in ecotourism. The framework also discusses the status of ecotourism at Kasanka National Park and the surrounding areas based on the study's research findings, analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The final chapter presents a summary of the empirical data sought in response to the research objectives and questions posed by the present study. The summary will focus on presenting an overview of the empirical data as discussed and analyzed in the previous chapters. The chapter also discusses the reality and rhetoric surrounding local participation in ecotourism as established by this study. A theoretical model towards sustainable ecotourism development is presented in the chapter for further investigation. The chapter ends with a conclusion to the study and recommendations to institutions responsible for conservation and development issues and interested stakeholders and individuals in this field. Suggestions for further study are also provided, for researchers with an interest in protected area management through ecotourism.

8.2 Summary of Findings

The main focus of this thesis was aimed at investigating how sustainable ecotourism that is taking place in the national park is beneficial for the local community living within the Kafinda GMA (that is a buffer zone to the park). This thesis was concerned with how providing benefits to the community can create incentives that encourage local participation in ecotourism. The study also sought to explore factors that have a possibility for providing opportunities for local participation and economic development. Factors that have constrained local participation in ecotourism were equally identified. The factors that have both provided opportunities and constraints to local participation were categorized into themes, discussed and analyzed based on empirical data collected. The study also investigated the alternative strategies that locals have been engaged in for their survival. Further interest was sought to examine stakeholder relationships with regard to planning and management of ecotourism where wildlife is the major resource.

The study identified the various forms of socio-economic benefits that have accrued to the community from ecotourism activities in the national park. It was found that the

local community has accrued benefits from tourism revenues to the KCRB and employment opportunities from the national park. Other forms of benefits accruing to community development have been in the provision of social services such as the local health center and community schools in the GMA. One of the significant findings from this study was that proceeds received from the park to the KCRB have not been sufficient to reach the wider community at the household level. This has resulted in a situation where economic benefits received by the community have not been fully appreciated by the locals. Most locals felt that the KNP had the potential to increase on the 5% tourism revenue allocation to the Kafinda CRB. However, the study identifies that effective mechanisms are needed to ensure that economic benefits have a lasting impact at household level and the wider community.

It has been argued that in order for locals to take an interest in conservation, incentives are required to get them to participate. Usually socio-economic benefits are not distributed equally and do not provided sufficient economic incentives to reduce livelihood dependence on the protected area. The present study found that socio-economic benefits accruing to the Kafinda community have not been able to provide sufficient incentives for local participation in community projects and support for ecotourism. This study found out that, while some members of the community did not appreciate these benefits, others did not gain much from these benefits. This has resulted in a situation where the majority of locals have not seen the importance of conservation and have continued to use natural resources unsustainably. The study found that locals continue to poach wildlife in the park. Poaching has also resulted in the under-stocked status of the Kafinda GMA. The unsustainable utilization of wildlife by the locals has been one of the major constraints that pose a threat to the development of ecotourism in the area.

The Trust has initiated the KTCP a project which was developed specifically to provide an alternative for the community to illegal hunting of wildlife and unsustainable utilization of natural resources. Income Generating Activities (IGAs) and Conservation Faming (CF) are some of the projects that have been introduced to supplement the locals with protein intake and alternative income sources. Projects have included livestock rearing (such as pigs, chickens, goats) and fish farming, oil press, vegetable farming and bee-keeping. The study revealed that locals have not

been able to generate sufficient income or obtain enough protein to supplement their diets. This has been due to the lack of readily accessible markets, funds, skills training, farming inputs and equipment. This has resulted in a lack of commitment by locals to these projects. While some locals are involved in the community projects, others have shown little interest to the proposed projects. Locals who have not participated have been highly suspicious of the Trusts intentions and of fellow locals who have been actively involved in the KTCP.

This study noted that through such projects locals are passive participants in wildlife management. This thesis argues that by participating in the KTCP locals indirectly contribute to the management and conservation of wildlife in the park and the development of ecotourism. Approaches to wildlife management of this kind are passive in the sense that locals in Kafinda CRB are indirectly supporting activities that aim at achieving project goals of curbing illegal hunting for purposes of conserving biological diversity in the national park. According to Pretty's typology (1995) of participation, this is a form of functional participation, where locals are involved in meeting project goals. Before the park was leased out to the KTL, the KNP was depleted of wildlife. This study noted that it is the intention of the KTL to restore the KNP to its original state and it has since made efforts to seek the support of the community through the KTCP in achieving this goal. Furthermore, the Trust has channeled most of its park revenue to support conservation purposes in the park. Inaddition the Trust is committed to the promotion of conservation programmes in the local community. In this regard it can be argued that the model of ecotourism in KNP is more conservation-oriented than community-oriented. Balancing both conservation and development concerns remains a complex phenomenon in most ecotourism projects.

The study further sought to explore how the community and other actors participate in planning and decision-making. In the area of planning and decision-making in park management this study established that the level of participation by the community has been minimal. The locals have lacked the power to participate actively and effectively in decision-making over distribution of ecotourism proceeds in the park. Based on the findings the local Kafinda community have had no opportunity to be part of the decisions made over the current percentage allocated to the Kafinda

Community Resource Board. The study found that top-down decision making has limited the opportunity for local people to participate in decisions concerning ecotourism development. Moreover, neither the Wildlife Act nor the Wildlife policy have made provisions on how revenues from national parks are to be distributed, who should be involved and what percentages are to be allocated to the CRB. It is for such reasons that the locals harbour feelings of exclusion and suspicion with regard to planning and management of the park and Trust intentions for local community development.

Local participation at management level has been erratic. This study's research findings showed that more often than not the community has not been represented in the KTL management committee meetings. This has entailed that decisions have been passed even without involvement of the community. Consequently this has not provided a sense of ownership and control to develop among the local community. This study deduced that there is still centralized planning in wildlife management which continues to dominate ecotourism development in the area.

Local capacity is one major factor that constraints active local participation in management and planning of ecotourism in the area. This has resulted in inadequate management of local community institutions, IGA and CF community projects. The study found that, though KTL has spearheaded efforts to build capacity within the community, locals felt that the training they receive was not adequate for them to manage their community projects. This has also resulted in inadequate participation and poor performance by the locals in community projects. ZAWA on the other hand has not taken an active role in building capacity within the CRB in the area of biodiversity conservation and managing of community projects under the KCRB. The study found out that ZAWA has concentrated its efforts on only providing training for local village scouts and auditing of the CRB accounts. This has equally affected the performance and overall management of the Kafinda CRB in the area.

This thesis further argues that while locals lack the capacity to manage effectively ecotourism development in the area, they equally lack the power to influence planning and decision-making with regard to ecotourism issues. Therefore, even when capacity is built within the community, the locals would require legal frameworks that will

support and empower them to participate actively in both planning and management of protected areas. From a political ecology viewpoint the locals continue to lack the political power to influence wildlife management and park policies even within their locality. The voices and concerns of the locals continue not to be heard for lack of political power enabling them to be active participants in ecotourism.

The study further established that the lack of devolution of power to local levels is another major factor that has constrained local participation in ecotourism where wildlife is the major economic resource in the area. The study argues that lack of active local participation in ecotourism has marginalized the community from ownership and control of wildlife management in the KNP. Moreover, policy documents have not fully addressed proprietorship over wildlife at the community level. Locals continue to have no sense of ownership or control over wildlife management in the area. Further, locals have no rights for equitable access to and distribution of economic benefits. The forthcoming CBNRM policy provides a promising opportunity for the devolution of power to local levels. However the study notes that the draft CBNRM policy still does not provide guidelines on distribution mechanisms by percentage from wildlife revenues. Further it fails to identify stakeholders to be involved in meetings regarding the distribution of wildlife revenues.

This study further identified other factors that have constrained active local participation in ecotourism. It was found out that one of the recurring and significant factors constraining active local participation in ecotourism has been the lack of tenure rights by the community. This study revealed that the local community has not been able to set up Community Based Tourism (CBT) ventures owing to lack of tenure rights. In addition the lack of clearly defined tenure rights has not instilled a sense of ownership and responsibility to locals on the importance of sustainable use of resources. Lack of tenure rights has further disadvantaged locals to negotiate access and gain control over resources that impinge on their survival and livelihoods. In addition the absence of tenure rights has contributed to restrictions on the local community in access to and control of wildlife (one of the major resources for their survival) and other traditional resources. This has contributed to inequitable

distribution of wildlife resources and has been a source of tensions and conflict between and among actors in the area.

Conflicts that have arisen have been in the form of poaching of wild animals by the community. Human-wildlife conflicts have affected local crops and locals have remained disgruntled. Other conflicts have been resistance by some locals to conservation awareness projects promoted by the Trust. The study found out that some locals feel that their traditional means of survival have been taken away and have continued to resist community projects. Locals who have not yet appreciated the importance of conservation, continue to use their traditional methods of farming (slash and burn methods), fishing and caterpillar harvesting which have been deemed unsustainable for natural resources conservation.

The study further established that the prevailing conflicts relating to ecotourism have undermined collective stewardship on management and conservation of wildlife and other natural resources in the area. The study noted that actors have placed different values on landscapes resources. While some actors want to conserve what is remaining, others have opted to utilize the same landscape resources for their continued survival. This has led to conflicts of interest in wildlife and other landscape resources in the area. This thesis noted that there are different values that lie among actors with regard to resource use and management. For instance some community members still identify with their traditional survival strategies of hunting, gathering and slash-and-burn farming practices. Other actors such as ZAWA and KTL would like to see sustainable conservation and utilization of these resources. The study identified that due to the lack of a land-use plan it has not been possible to accommodate these values. This has contributed to conflicts among actors over access, use and control of resources.

Another area of conflict identified by this study is the lack of stakeholder collaboration in management of ecotourism. One of the significant areas where actors have not fully collaborated has been in park patrols. Despite the monthly meetings held between KTL Community Relations Department, ZAWA and the Kafinda CRB over the use of village scouts and park patrols, there has been minimal collaboration during the actual patrols. The study noted that KTL has accused the local ZAWA

office for not cooperating with the KTL scouts. Similarly the local ZAWA office has accused KTL for not including them in park patrols but has opted to outsource their own scouts. This has created suspicion and mistrust and has affected park patrols. It was observed that such a state of co-management between ZAWA and KTL is not good for conservation purposes. In terms of park patrols lack of cooperation of scouts can cause a lapse in effective patrolling. The study identified an overlap in responsibilities on who is in charge of scouts patrolling the park. Poachers are bound to see these weaknesses and take advantage of the situation. KTL and ZAWA both have their own scouts reporting to them and this has caused additional tension and conflicts in park patrols. The control of armed staff by the Trust has raised security concerns among stakeholders. This thesis argues that there would be need to clarify on how roles, responsibilities and authority will be shared among actors especially in the management of parks, under public-private partnerships arrangements such as Kasanka National Park.

Furthermore collaboration among stakeholders has been hampered by lack of information sharing. The study found that lack of information exchange on ecotourism activities and community development plans was a reflection of weak collaboration. Locals argued that due to lack of information they have not had much influence in certain developments that have taken place in the Kafinda GMA. The community has found themselves supporting activities that they have not acknowledged or had any influence in their initiation. According to the study stakeholder interrelationships have not been well developed in the area. Based on the analytical model applied to this study, most of the links between tourism, the community and the resource are inadequately developed. Policy documents have not been able to clarify on how duties, responsibilities and authority are to be shared among stakeholders. For instance, the role of the chief as the traditional custodian of land in the GMA has not been recognized by the Trust. The Wildlife Act and the Wildlife and Tourism Policies have not promoted the forging of linkages between communities and other actors, such as the private sector, nor linkages with the state authorities.

8.3 Local Participation in Ecotourism: Reality or Rhetoric?

Ecotourism is seen to be one of the potentially clear and direct links between economic development and conservation of natural resources. Ecotourism is a broad topic, and for this reason this study has focused on benefits and costs, local participation and stakeholder collaboration. The provision of benefits to local communities and conservation is one of the principles that govern ecotourism. This thesis has shown that the potential for the community to benefit socially and economically from ecotourism has yet to be realized. The socio-economic benefits realized from ecotourism activities in the area are yet to be appreciated by the wider community.

Local participation is regarded as one of the main features of true ecotourism. According to the findings of this thesis, locals have been passive participants in ecotourism and passive recipients of benefits. This has meant that the local community has barely had any opportunities to be actively involved in planning and management of ecotourism. The Kafinda community requires more opportunities to participate in planning, decision-making and management to enable them realize and appreciate the potential that lies in wildlife resources in the area. This can promote transparent, accountable and equitable distribution of revenues that can build a sense of ownership and responsibility among actors in ecotourism development in the area. This will also lessen any potential conflicts among actors.

This thesis supports the argument by Chalker (1994) that it is vital to take account of local interests and knowledge and involvement of locals in managing and protecting the environment. It is better to discuss an issue without reaching a decision than to reach a decision without discussion. Discussions can create room for negotiations and expression of feelings by actors. Local participation in decision-making where distribution of revenues, planning and management of resources occurs can place the community in a position that makes them feel less deprived of the costs they have to forgo. It may also instill a sense of ownership and responsibility. By participating in ecotourism, locals may have a better understanding of challenges that come with the industry and may acquire the technical know-how of operating ecotourism as an international business. Less suspicion may prevail over ongoing ecotourism activities in the park when locals participate and are made aware of what is going on. More

importantly, when the local community has more opportunities to participate in ecotourism activities, they will be able to retain tangible economic, infrastructural and social benefits within the local economy.

The thesis further argues that active local participation may be achieved when locals can be granted more power translated in rights to ownership and use, rights to land and resources. Rights to access and control of benefits need to be addressed. The community requires the power for effective management and responsibility in ecotourism activities. The devolution of power to the Kafinda community is yet to be realized to enable them to actively participate in ecotourism. Locals also need this power to be able to take control of their resources and the benefits derived from them. This study shows that power to a community such as Kafinda needs to be accompanied with other perquisites such as capacity-building, funds, strong local institutions, strong partnerships, supportive policies and legislation. For instance, when capacity is built within the community, it has been argued that locals will be able to participate effectively and claim power to control and manage affairs related to protected areas. The study found that rights to benefit, manage and control resources by the locals have not been explicitly addressed in legal instruments. The opportunity for locals to participate actively in ecotourism remains more rhetoric as than reality. It is based on such premises that ecotourism is considered more an ideal than a reality (Cater 1994a).

This thesis argues that there is a gap between ecotourism potential and reality. Locals of the Kafinda community are not directly involved in management of protected areas as the participatory approach suggests. Local benefits from ecotourism are yet to be realized. Locals are yet to be treated as co-partners in conservation and development projects. Generally there is a lack of sharing of power in planning and decision-making among actors. This has constrained local capacity to participate in decision-making over issues that affect their lives. Though there is growing support for the devolution of authority to local levels in protected area management, much of this also has been more rhetoric than reality.

8.4 Theoretical Model towards Sustainable Ecotourism Development

As a result of the research process and findings of this study a theoretical model towards achieving the sustainable development goal in ecotourism has been developed. Figure 14 presents the theoretical model for further investigation and development by practitioners, groups or individuals with an interest in ecotourism development studies. The main theoretical approach applied to the study was political ecology. The actor-oriented approach in political ecology was adopted to examine the prevailing power relations among stakeholders. This is summed up in Figure 14. The study was further able to examine how environment issues are politicized mainly by actors who have more power in society as shown in chapter seven sections 7.2.1 and 7.4.2. Through political ecology the consequences of actors with less power and how they are politically marginalized was examined. Political ecology also provided the basis of identifying resource-related conflicts in ecotourism related to biodiversity conservation areas as discussed in section 7.3. The study notes that political ecology was not fully able to provide solutions beyond identifying resource related-conflicts and power struggles in biodiversity conservation.
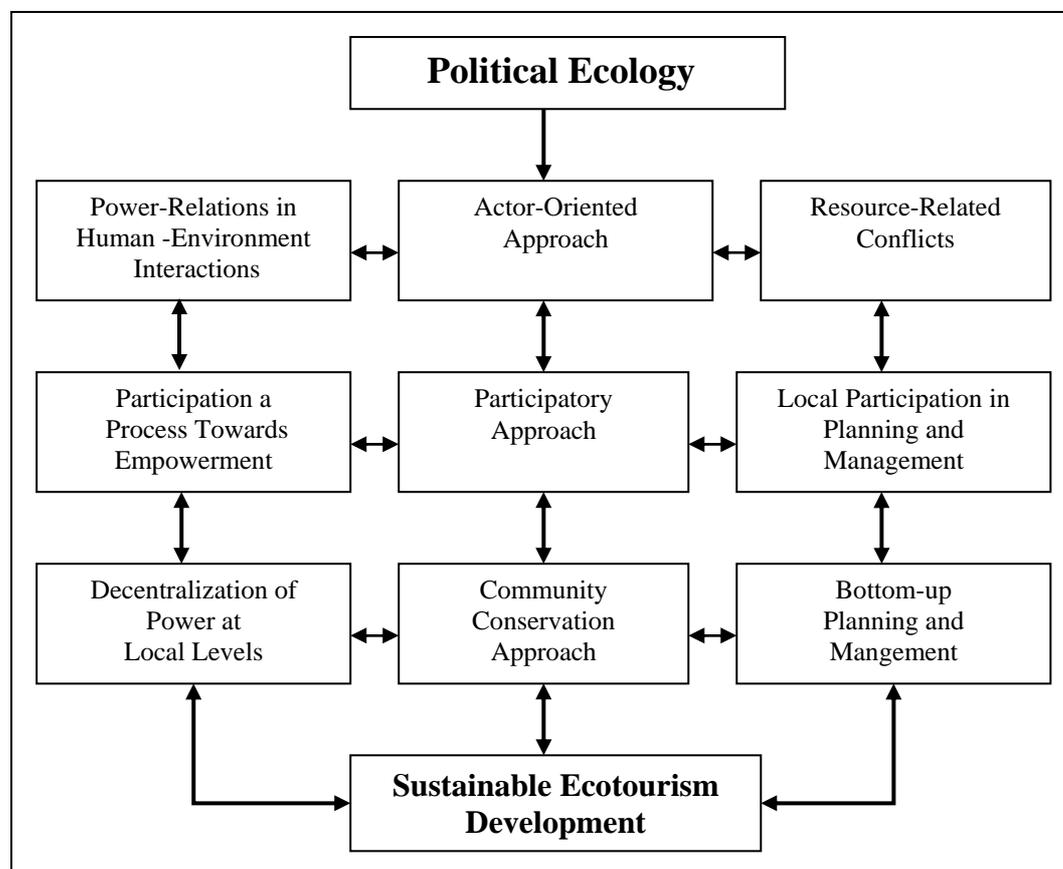
Figure 14: Theoretical Model towards Sustainable Ecotourism Development

The study applied participatory and community-conservation developmental approaches to provide further analysis into environmental management challenges in protected areas as depicted in Figure 14. Both approaches provided the background upon which the empirical findings were analyzed and interpreted. One of the challenges of participatory approaches has been the lack of consensus in determining how and who should participate, to what extent and at which stage it should take place (Brandon and Wells 1992, Garrod 2003, Sproule and Subandi 1998). This study argues that local participation would be necessary in all phases of design and implementation of the development project. This would ensure that ecotourism is planned and managed in a way that is able to meet the local development needs and aspirations of the community. In the ecotourism context, genuine sustainability can only be truly achieved where effective participation of the local community and other actors exist. The theoretical model (Fig. 14) indicates that resource related conflicts can be best worked out through integrated planning and management that involves local participation and other stakeholder interest groups.

Community-conservation approach through CBNRM provided the background for examining the extent of local participation in ecotourism and the community's role in protected area planning and management. This approach provided the mechanisms for identifying what rights and responsibilities in wildlife and natural resource management have been devolved to the community. Although decentralization is a fundamental principle in community-conservation approaches, the study was able to identify that top-down planning continues to dominate protected area management. The study further identified that locals lack rights to tenure and resource use. Locals further lack the right to plan and manage natural resources effectively and sustainably. This has been one of the major critiques of community-conservation approaches. In this regard, the study argues that community-conservation approaches remain elusive for their inability to adequately integrate the community in protected area management. The study argues for bottom-up approaches to planning and management that recognize local rights to ownership, use and management of land and resources, if the goal to sustainable ecotourism development is to be achieved.

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Lastly the ecotourism paradigm in chapter seven section 7.5 provided the analytical framework for examining the local actor interrelationships and assessing the status of ecotourism at Kasanka National Park.

8.5 Conclusion

It has been identified that the approach to ecotourism development in the KNP and surrounding areas is focused on promoting conservation and restoring biological diversity in the park. This is reflected in the consistent efforts that have been made by the Trust to get locals to understand the importance of conservation of natural resources in the area. Direct involvement of the community in protected area management through ecotourism is a more peripheral activity. Local participation in ecotourism activities can be described as passive and constrained by diverse factors as has been identified by this study.

It can be concluded that the locals of Kafinda community are not actively participating in the planning and management of the protected area. Locals have not been fully regarded as co-partners but are seen as passive recipients of benefits from tourism in KNP. While some locals have benefited from the KTCP or tourism revenues from the park to the CRB, others have not realized sufficient benefits from any of these activities. It is for such reasons that locals revert to unsustainable utilization of resources. Due to the fact that locals cannot own, access and control resources in the KNP and the GMA, they have taken less responsibility on how they use resources sustainably. In addition, existing benefits have not been able to provide sufficient incentives to encourage locals to get involved in ecotourism and ecotourism related activities. There is still need for meaningful authority to be devolved to local levels inorder to enhance active participation. This thesis argues that in order for ecotourism to be successful the local citizens must be made a part of it. There is need for the initiation of more ecotourism opportunities for the local community with a potential for providing substantial incomes for local economic development to occur. Moreover, the ecotourism opportunities should be in the best interest of the community if the goal to achieving sustainable development through ecotourism is to be attained.

8.5 Recommendations

Policy recommendations with reference to the summary of the findings of this study are outlined a follows:

- There is need to build capacity within the Community Resource Board (CRB) and Village Actions Groups (VAGs), mainly in the area of natural resource management, business skills management and administration. NGOs serve as trainers and sources of relevant technical information and expertise that other institutions involved with ecotourism may not have access to or time to develop. It is recommended that NGO intervention with the support of donors and private organizations will be required to build capacity within the local community.

- There is need for more effective mechanisms on how benefits can be equitably distributed. Management approaches should be able to determine the costs and benefits for equitable allocation of resources. This study strongly recommends that there is need to develop subsidiary legislation that will provide guidelines on how benefits are to be equitably distributed for the continued well-being of the local communities affected by the presence of protected areas in their localities.

- Stakeholder collaboration and interrelationships in protected area management between ZAWA, KTL and the local community – CRB needs to be strengthened to ensure effective communication, information sharing and transparency in ecotourism plans and activities taking place in the KNP and Kafinda GMA. It is recommended that the co-management agreement should stipulate clear rules and responsibilities for each stakeholder.

- The study recommends that government should develop a national ecotourism strategy to reconcile both conservation and development concerns. This strategy should be able to clearly state the relationship between protected areas and local communities, where local communities can also draw benefits directly from national parks. The ecotourism strategy should therefore be able to clearly state and accommodate the locals' rights to benefit directly from

protected areas through use, access and control of natural resources in national parks for their continued survival and livelihoods.

- This study strongly recommends that rights over ecotourism, wildlife management and access to natural resources needs to be addressed in the existing legislation – Wildlife Act and in wildlife and tourism policies.

- Viable alternative income opportunities for the local community need to be identified and developed to boost the local economy and also to lessening pressure on existing natural resources from illegal and unsustainable activities.

- Existing polices and legislation need to state and define the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders and local communities participating in protected areas management. Guidelines need to be put in place on how local communities can become active participants in protected planning and decision making. Active participation of the local community and other actors through the existing local instuitions-CRBs is needed. In other words stakeholder participation (including communities) guidelines need to be developed in the management of protected areas where ecotourism is one main activity.

- The forthcoming CBNRM policy should look into means of devolving more power in regard to wildlife and other resources such as land, water management to community level institutions. Local institutions should be able to represent their own interests in conservation.

- There is need to plan carefully effective incentives that can enhance local participation in ecotourism. The costs that locals bear should be taken into consideration in the planning of community benefits and incentives.

- The ZAWA needs to regularly monitor and evaluate the Kasanka Trust Limited (KTL) Memorandum of Understanding relating to the Management of KNP for effective protected area management of privately managed parks.

- There is need for more research programmes to monitor biological diversity in the park for sustainable development of ecotourism in the protected area.

- The chief's role in Kasanka with regard to natural resource management needs to be better managed.

- This study broadly recommends that protected area management policies and legislation need to be strengthened to allow for active and effective local participation in natural resource management.

8.6 Suggestions for Further Study

On the basis of the results of this thesis, further research in relation to ecotourism and local economic development in rural areas is proposed in the following areas:

a) One significant constraint on local participation in ecotourism has been the lack of tenure rights by the community. There is need to investigate further the relationships between tenure rights, access to and control of resources and local livelihoods.

b) Further investigations need to be carried out to determine a criterion to assess the costs that locals will redeem if rightful benefits are to be provided to the communities to meet their survival and livelihood needs. The impact of these benefits at household level will also require further investigation.

c) Closely linked to the first suggestion for further study. This thesis also identifies the need of focusing further on how local communities can renegotiate property and property rights in their respective indigenous localities. This would entail investigating and finding means of addressing local rights over the use and access to land and resources such as plants, wildlife and water. Inaddition, local rights to participation in planning and management and how benefits flowing from the resource-based industries would need further investigation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDES

KEY INFORMANT, INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS, FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION AND TOURISTS QUESTIONNAIRES:

A. ZAMBIA WILDLIFE AUTHORITIES (ZAWA)

Ecotourism Policy Considerations and Legal frameworks

What are the specific and general objectives towards ecotourism development in national parks?

What strategy (or policy) exists for ecotourism development in parks by ZAWA?

What legal documents exist to regulate ecotourism activities in parks?

What are the specific rules and regulations in these documents on ecotourism activities?

How adequate are the policy and legal instruments towards ecotourism development?

What were the reasons that lead to the privatization of the park by Kasanka Trust?

Local Community Development & Participation

What policies exist for local community development of surrounding areas?

What activities are encouraged to support community development in the surrounding areas?

What mechanisms have been put in place to encourage local community participation in ecotourism development? e.g areas of conservation, decision making etc?

How have locals participated in decision-making in terms of park management (policy formulation etc)?

For those residents not involved with tourism in the area or for those involved part-time, what other kind of activities/ employment do they pursue?

Does the park or ecotourism benefit them indirectly?

What benefits have been realized in terms of tourism revenue (e.g. entrance fees, employment, conservation, services, other) for community development?

How does the community participate in the distribution of tourism revenue generated from the park? e.g decision making etc

What measures have been put in place to ensure that the local heritage is not threatened by the development of tourism in the area?

Stakeholder Collaboration & Partnership Formation

Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park other than the Trust?

Which are the areas of collaboration with stakeholders involved in the development of the park?

What specific areas of co-operation have been developed between ZAWA, the community, development agencies and other stakeholders?

What is your role as a stakeholder in ecotourism development in the park?

Challenges and Future Plans

What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development (i.e. implementation) in national parks?

What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?

What are the major constraints that inhibit ecotourism development in Zambia?

What opportunities exist for ecotourism development in national parks such as Kasanka N.P?

What future plans exist for ecotourism development in Zambia through ZAWA?

B. MANAGEMENT OF KASANKA TRUST LTD MANAGEMENT AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS DEPARTMENT

Background Information

When was Kasanka National Park established? And Why?

When did Kasanka Trust start managing the park?

What were the reasons that lead to the privatization of the park by Kasanka Trust?

How long has the park been leased out to Kasanka Trust?

What is the source of funding for management of Kasanka Trust?

What resources does the park have?

What are the potential tourist attractions in the park?

What market does the park serve (local and international visitors, other)?

Ecotourism Policy Considerations and Legal frameworks

What are the specific and general objectives towards ecotourism development in national parks?

What ecotourism strategy or policy has management put in place for the park?

What legal documents exist to regulate tourism and ecotourism activities in the park?

What are the specific rules and regulations in these documents for ecotourism activities?

What monitoring mechanisms have been put in place to monitor tourism and ecotourism development policies in protected areas?

Local Community Development & Participation

What policy has been put in place for community development of surrounding areas?

What activities have been developed to support community development in the surrounding areas?

What mechanisms have been put in place to encourage community participation in ecotourism?

How have locals participated in decision-making in terms of park management (e.g. policy formulation etc)?

For those residents not involved with tourism in the area or for those involved part time, what other kind of activities/employment do they pursue?

Does the park or ecotourism benefit them indirectly?

What benefits have been realized in terms of tourism revenue (e.g. entrance fees, employment, conservation, services other) for community development?

How has the community participated in the distribution of revenue generated from the park?

What measures have been put in place to ensure that the local heritage is not threatened by the development of tourism in the area?

Stakeholder Collaboration and Partnership Formation

Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park other than the Trust?

Which are the areas of collaboration with stakeholders involved in development of the park? What specific areas of co-operation have been developed between ZAWA, the community, development agencies and other stakeholders?

What is your role as a stakeholder in ecotourism development in the area?

Challenges and Future Plans

What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development (i.e. implementation) in the national park?

What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?

How has ecotourism been able to protect the parks' biodiversity?

What are the major constraints that inhibit ecotourism development in Zambia?

What opportunities exist for ecotourism development in a national park such as Kasanka?

What future plans does the Trust have towards ecotourism development in the park?

What would management have hoped to be achieved when the contract has come to an end?

C. MINISTRY OF TOURISM ENVIRONMENT AND NATURAL RESOURCES (MTENR)

Ecotourism Policy Considerations and Legal frameworks

What are the general objectives towards tourism in parks?

What are the specific objectives towards ecotourism development in parks?

What strategy (or policy) exists for ecotourism development in parks by MTENR?

What legal documents exist to regulate tourism/ecotourism activities in parks?

What are the specific rules and regulations in these documents for tourism and ecotourism activities?

What policies or regulations exist regarding private sector involvement in park management?

What monitoring mechanisms have been put in place to monitor ecotourism development policies in protected areas?

Local Community Development & Participation

What policies exist for community development of surrounding areas?

What activities are encouraged to support community development in the surroundings areas?

What mechanisms have been put in place to encourage community participation in ecotourism development, e.g. areas of conservation, decision making etc?

How have locals participated in decision-making in terms of park management? (other areas such as management, policy formulation etc).

For those residents not involved with tourism in the area or for those involved part time, what other kind of activities/ employment do they pursue?

Does the park or ecotourism benefit them indirectly?

What benefits have been realized in terms of tourism revenue (e.g. entrance fees, employment, conservation, services, other) for community development?

KTL

How does the community participate in the distribution of tourism revenue generated from the park e.g. decision-making etc?

What measures have been put in place to ensure that the local heritage is not threatened by the development of tourism in the area?

Stakeholder Collaboration & Partnership Formation

Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park other than the Trust e.g. tour operators, development agencies, community, marketing bodies, other etc?

What are the specific areas of collaboration developed among stakeholders involved in development of the park?

What is your role as a stakeholder in ecotourism development in the park?

Challenges and Future Plans

What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development in national parks?

What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?

What are the major constraints that inhibit ecotourism development in Zambia?

What opportunities exist for ecotourism development in national parks such as Kasanka N.P?

What future plans exist for ecotourism development in Zambia through ZAWA?

D. COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP AND LOCAL INDIVIDUALS

Background Information

How many villages are within the vicinity of the park? What is the approximate population?

Which resources do you consider useful to the well-being or basic survival of the community?

Local Community Development & Participation

What activities is the local community involved in, in relation to ecotourism in the park?

How have locals participated in decision-making in terms of park management?

If so, how has the community participated? And who participates?

For those residents not involved with tourism in the area or for those involved part-time, what other kind of activities/ employment do they pursue?

Does the park or ecotourism benefit them indirectly?

What benefits has the community realized through tourism activities in the national park?

What benefits have been realized in terms of tourism revenue (e.g. entrance fees, employment, conservation, services, other) for community development?

What measures have been put in place to ensure that the local heritage is not threatened by the development of tourism in the area?

Stakeholder Collaboration and Partnership Formation

Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park other than the Trust?

Which are the areas of collaboration with stakeholders involved in development of the park?

What specific areas of co-operation have been developed between ZAWA, the community, development agencies and other stakeholders?

What is your role as a stakeholder in ecotourism development in the park?

Challenges & Future Plans

What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development in the national park?

How has the community been able to protect the parks' resources?

What problems has tourism posed to the community in general?

What other problems have been experienced due to the park status in the area?

What future plans does the community have towards ecotourism development in the park?

What challenges exist for the community in terms of ecotourism development in the area?

E. INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW GUIDE (DSI AND ZETA)

Ecotourism Policy Considerations and Legal frameworks

What are the general objectives towards tourism in parks?

What are the specific objectives towards ecotourism development in parks?

What strategy (or policy) exists for ecotourism development in parks for the organisation?

Local Community Development & Participation

What policies exist for community development of surrounding areas?

What activities are encouraged to support community development in the surroundings areas?

What mechanisms have been put in place to encourage community participation in ecotourism development, e.g. areas of conservation, decision making etc?

How have locals participated in decision-making in terms of park management? (other areas such as management, policy formulation etc).

For those residents not involved with tourism in the area or for those involved part time, what other kind of activities/ employment do they pursue?

Does the park or ecotourism benefit them indirectly?

What benefits have been realized in terms of tourism revenue (e.g. entrance fees, employment, conservation, services, other) for community development?

KTL

How does the community participate in the distribution of tourism revenue generated from the park e.g. decision-making etc?

What measures have been put in place to ensure that the local heritage is not threatened by the development of tourism in the area?

Stakeholder Collaboration & Partnership Formation

Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park other than the Trust e.g. tour operators, development agencies, community, marketing bodies, other etc?

What are the specific areas of collaboration developed among stakeholders involved in development of the park?

What is your role as a stakeholder in ecotourism development in the park?

Challenges and Future Plans

What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development in national parks?

What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?

What are the major constraints that inhibit ecotourism development in Zambia?

What opportunities exist for ecotourism development in national parks?

What future plans exist for ecotourism development in Zambia through ZAWA?

NORWEGIAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Departement of Geography

(NTNU)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TOURISTS

Dear Participant,

I would firstly like to thank you for participating in this research. As a student researcher I am currently undertaking a research entitled, *Determine the Opportunities and constraints of Ecotourism Development in Zambia, with special reference to Kasanka National Park and surrounding areas.* The information to be provided will be treated with the due confidentiality is so deserves and will further be utilized to add value to existing literature on ecotourism development in Zambia.

You may proceed to answer the questions on the next page.

Name of Student: Twaambo Himoonde   *Supervisor: Professor Michael Jones*

1. How were you able to know of this destination? And which country are you resident?

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Country:……………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What has been your motivation for visiting Kasanka as a destination??

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3. What activities have you or do you hope to be engaged in during this visit?

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4. Would you desire to visit the local community around the national park (such as Chipundu area, site of the David Livingstone memorial)?

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5. If yes, what kind of activities would you desire to be engaged in as you interact with the locals?

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6. What has been your major attraction (s) in Kasanka National Park?

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7. How would you generally describe your experience in Kasanka National Park?

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8. As a tourist do you intend (or have you been able) to reflect on and confront the results of your actions on the environment or the community?

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9. If yes, what actions have you taken (or do you intend to take)?

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10. Do you have any further comments on the same?

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Thank you once again, for your co operation and time.   God bless you.

G. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION TOPICS

1. Community benefits realized from tourism occurring in the Park

2. Community's contribution and involvement in ecotourism (Planning, Decision-making and Management)

3. Community Involvement and response to ecotourism and community projects

4. Identification of natural resources for local survival and livelihoods

5. Profitability of community projects for local daily survival

6. Constraints of managing community projects

7. Other issues of concern and conclusions

KASANKA NATIONAL PARK
CENTRAL PROVINCE, ZAMBIA

Scale 1 : 200 000

Legend

●	Villages and other Settlements
-------	Tracks
-- --	Roads
——	Highway
——	Rivers and Streams
▢	Lake
▢	Marsh and Swamps
▢	Kasanka National Park No. 10

Produced by Zambia Wildlife Authority
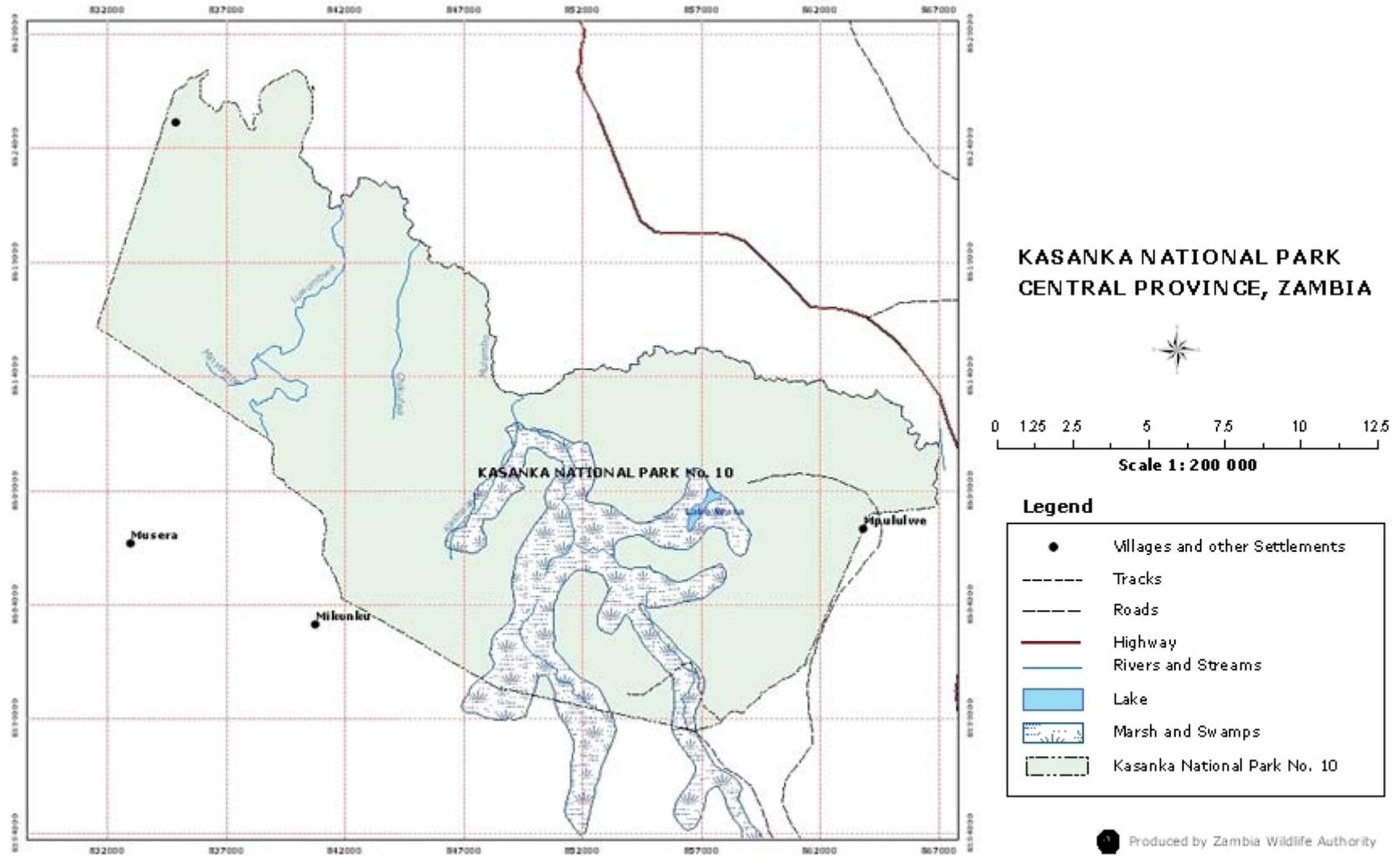
APPENDIX III

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGMENTS FOR PA        │
│  MANAGEMENT in ZAMBIA                    │
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CATEGORY	Aquatic /Wetland Protected Areas	Wildlife Protected Areas	Forest Protected Areas	Natural and Historical Monuments and Relics
National Level Institutions	Fisheries Department — Environmental Council of Zambia	Zambian Wildlife Authority	Department of Forestry	National Heritage and Conservation Commission
Sub Categories	Fish Breeding sites — Ramsar Sites	National Parks — Game Management Areas	National Reserves — Local Forest Reserves — Botanical Reserves	Natural Sites — Cultural Sites
Local Level Institutions	Fishing Committees — Community Resource Boards	Private Game Ranches and Trusts	Joint Forest Management Committees	
EXAMPLES AND NUMBERS OR EXTENT	2 sites designated and 5 new areas proposed countrywide	19 national parks, 32 game management areas, 1 bird sanctuary, 2wildlife sanctuaries and 38 (?) private game ranches	184 National Forests protecting major catchment and their biodiversity; 306 local forests for protection and production; 59 botanical reserves for protecting relic vegetation and genetic resources	1,959 listed archeological sites (including rock art), 626 historical sites (including building/structures), 129 traditional sites, 222 natural sites (including water falls, palaeontolongical)

Source WWF (2004,45)

APPENDIX IV

Kasanka National Park (KNP) Management Committee

The committee comprises the following members:

- The Chief Executive officer of ZAWA (Chairman)
- Director General Conservation and Management (ZAWA)
- The Park Manager (Secretary)
- The Area Warden for Luapula Management Unit
- The Park Ranger for Kasanka sector
- The District Council Secretary
- The member of Parliament for Chitambo constituency
- Chief Chitambo
- One ward Chairman
- The Chairman of the Kafinda Community Resource Board
- Two officials of Kasanka Trust limited (KTL)

Source: ZAWA (2002,7) MOU Relating to the Management of Kasanka National Park.