

Sustained economic growth through co-management by SWOT analysis in Zambia: the case of Mukuni village craft market

Mr C Sichimwa & Prof FA Fairer-Wessels*
Faculty of Economic & Management Sciences
University of Pretoria
ffairer-wessels@up.ac.za

*Corresponding author

Abstract

Tourism is a viable economic sector with potential to improve people's livelihoods particularly in rural areas of the developing world. However, due to ill management, tourism has in most instances failed to generate the expected gains. With a shift in natural resource management to more inclusive bottom-up approaches, co-management - the mutual sharing of power and responsibility among stakeholders of a resource, has emerged as a panacea to problems raised by unsustainable tourism practice. Co-management is predicated on the idea that empowerment of local communities through their involvement in governance of natural resources not only assures them of social and economic gains, but also fosters favourable attitudes towards protection of the environment. Consequently, co-management is viewed as an avenue through which the threefold goal of ecologic, social and economic sustainability of tourism can be attained. Mukuni village with its rich cultural heritage is adjacent to the Victoria Falls in Zambia and an international tourist destination. Mukuni village established a co-management initiative to manage its tourism resources and this study investigates the collaborative structures and practices for sustainable tourism-related resource management in the village. Qualitative research methods employed 32 semi-structured in-depth interviews with stakeholders involved in the co-management initiative. Analysed data and findings are presented in a SWOT-analysis format. The study concludes that collaborative structures and practices for tourism-related resource management in Mukuni are not sustainable as some stakeholders' interests were found to favour social and economic goals ahead of environmental ones with unfavourable implications for sustainable tourism. Recommendations are that government policy on tourism be amended towards more stringent enforcement of environmental legislation.

Keywords: Sustainable tourism, co-management, economic growth, SWOT analysis, Zambia

Introduction

Tourism is regarded as a viable economic activity with the potential to stimulate economic growth, particularly in Least Developed Countries. Tourism however is not the magic solution for countries seeking to increase their levels of welfare and leakage of potential profits and vulnerability of tourism revenues is evident in relation to other economic sectors (Cardenas-Garcia, Sanchez-Rivero, & Pulido-Fernandez, 2013). Tourism development strategies and well-coordinated implementation plans are essential to achieving greater value creation and improved livelihoods from tourism, particularly in least developed countries (Yiu, Saner & Filadoro, 2013) with co-management as one such strategy that has gained prominence. Co-management, synonymous to cooperative or collaborative management refers to the joint management by multiple actors with distinct interests of common pool resources (Borrini-Feyerabend, Pimbert, Farvar, Kothari &

Renard, 2004; Zurba, Ross, Izurieta, Rist, Bock & Berkes, 2012). It is an arrangement in which government and local resource users form partnerships involving the sharing of power and responsibility (Berkes, 2009).

Co-management has emerged as a promising alternative to centralised command and control of natural resource management in the 1990s (De Koning, 2009; Cundill, Thondhlana, Sisitka, Shackleton & Blore, 2013). Co-management is premised upon the idea that local people should have a say in how resource management decisions affecting their livelihoods are made (Berkes, 2009), that in turn potentially empowers them. Recognizing the various stakeholders and their different perspectives on issues into account is particularly important in sustainable tourism management (Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013).

Further, a key benefit of co-management is that it moves beyond the limitations of either private, state or community management as it merges the interests of the various stakeholder groups (De Koning, 2009). Its ability to meet both socio-economic and conservation objectives, makes co-management of particular interest to policy makers and academics worldwide (Blore, Cundill & Mkhulisi, 2013). The Government of the Republic of Zambia (GRZ) demonstrates its commitment to economic development and wellbeing of its citizens, as well as to co-management of tourism resources in the 'Tourism Policy for Zambia.' Its mission statement states, "To contribute sustainably to the economic wellbeing and enhanced quality of life for Zambians through government led, private sector driven, quality product developments that are consistent with the protection of the unique natural and cultural heritage," (GRZ, 1999: 4). However, Zambia's unique advantages and potential to realise maximum benefits from tourism have been underutilised. Further, tourism's potential for economic development that can spread revenue to the poorest strata of Zambia's marginal rural communities still remains unrealised (World Bank & UKAid, 2011).

Given the idealistic nature of most policies put in place by governments, as well as the lack of commitment to implementation, it is imperative that the nature of co-management of tourism in Zambia is investigated. Mukuni Village craft market's major source of livelihood is tourism and provides an ideal case study for such an investigation as it is located on the periphery of the Victoria Falls and benefits from tourist visits to the area. However, Zambia's unique advantages and potential to realise maximum benefits from tourism have been underutilised. Further, tourism's potential for economic development that can spread revenue to the poorest strata of Zambia's marginal rural communities still remains unrealised (NRCF, 2007).

The problem investigated by the current study is that although Zambia has unique natural and cultural tourism resources and that tourism revenue has not spread to poor communities that have little access to tourism benefits. Therefore, the micro- and macro environments of Mukuni Village craft market need investigation in terms of the co-management approach using the SWOT analysis. The research aim is to assess the macro- and micro-environmental factors influencing the co-management of tourism in Mukuni village craft market. The research objectives are to examine the macro-environmental factors influencing tourism co-management arrangements in Mukuni village craft market; to assess the micro-environmental factors in the context of co-management of tourism in Mukuni village craft market; and to recommend a framework for more effective implementation of co-management of tourism in Mukuni village craft market. In addition, the research aims to provide a basis for policy reform as well as an incentive for effective implementation of policy that will in turn enhance economic development and wellbeing of rural communities in Zambia.

Literature review

The past four decades have seen a paradigmatic shift in natural resource management. Resource management has moved from the top-down and coercive development approach to the bottom up, people-centred participatory approach (Mbaiwa, 2011). This reinvention of resource management has been necessitated by the demand for new strategies aimed at addressing the cross-scale nature of environmental problems, value and interest disputes, as well as pervasive social and ecological uncertainty (Armitage, Plummer, Berkes, Arthur, Charles, Davidson-Hunt, Diduck, Doubleday, Johnson & Marschke, 2008). One of the strategies employed is the formation of partnerships among resource users.

The literature review discusses various concepts relevant to co-management of tourism, from sustainable development and tourism, partnerships, community participation and co-management of tourism. Thereafter a number of case studies of co-management of tourism is addressed with lessons learnt from each case, and how they relate to the current study is discussed.

Sustainable development was coined by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, Brundtland report 1987), and is defined as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987). This is in line with sustainable tourism's tenets of environmental, economic and social enhancement. Further, sustainable development promotes community participation and calls for protection and improvement of the quality of life of communities influenced by tourism development (Sebele, 2010). A strong contribution to sustainable development that the tourism industry makes is to provide jobs for marginalized groups, including women (Fortanier & van Wijk, 2010).

Sustainable tourism emanates from the concept of sustainable development and is a viable means of enhancing local economic and conservation benefits (Kiss, 2004) whilst creating opportunities for community representation in protected area management (Bruyere, Beh & Lelengula, 2009). Following Bruyere *et al.* (2009) sustainable tourism is defined as that which provides opportunities to enhance economic benefits, protect natural and cultural heritage, as well as improve quality of life. put more aptly, sustainable tourism entails the management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and environmental needs are fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (WTO, 1997).

Akin to sustainable tourism are the concepts of responsible tourism and ecotourism. Responsible tourism is defined as tourism that provides better holiday experiences for guests and good business opportunities in order to enjoy better quality of life through increased socio-economic benefits and improved natural resource management (Spenceley, Relly, Keyser, Warmeant, Mckenzie, Mataboge, Norton, Mahlangu & Seif, 2002). Ecotourism on the other hand has a plethora of definitions. However, one of the widely accepted definitions is that of Ziffer (1989) who defines ecotourism as travel to areas of natural beauty in relatively undeveloped areas where activities are sustainable and there is equitable distribution of economic benefits to the local residents.

As Frey and George (2010:622) aptly observe, "whereas responsible, eco- and sustainable tourism should not be used interchangeably, the approaches all have a common objective of minimising negative social, economic and environmental impacts, whilst maximising the positive effects of tourism development." In other words, though the three concepts may differ slightly in focus, they generally espouse the triple bottom-line of sustainable development, which is; to ensure a balanced social, economic and environmental development of tourism.

From resource management to the bottom-up approach: resource management has moved from the top-down and coercive management approach to the bottom-up people-centred participatory approach (Mbaiwa 2011). This shift has been necessitated by the demand for new strategies aimed at addressing environmental problems, value and interest disputes and social and ecological uncertainty (Armitage *et al.*, 2008). One of the strategies employed is the formation of partnerships among resource users.

Partnerships: is a range of relationships actively entered into by the private sector, communities and other stakeholders on the expectation of benefit. Partnerships between local communities and the private sector are a growing phenomenon in a number of natural resource sectors worldwide including agriculture, forestry and tourism (Roe, Grieg-Gran & Schalken, 2001). In tourism, partnerships are viewed as a means of achieving sustainable tourism (Eagles, 2002; Wegner, Lee & Weiler, 2010). Fundamental to attaining the goal of sustainability is the creation of stakeholder partnerships to boost conservation initiatives, stimulate innovation and foster collaborative decision making and conflict resolution (De Lacy, Battig, Moore & Noakes, 2002). The holistic approach with which issues are addressed in partnerships offers tourism agencies the potential for enhanced problem solving capacity. Further, the ability of stakeholders to work together effectively influences the quality of the tourist experience, the satisfaction of visitors, and the protection of the natural resource base on which the tourism industry depends (Wegner, Lee & Weiler, 2010).

Partnerships refer to the range of relationships actively entered into by the private sector, communities, and other stakeholders on the expectation of benefit (Roe *et al.*, 2001). The term stakeholders on the other hand refers to those groups or individuals associated with tourism development initiatives and can therefore affect or be affected by the decisions and activities associated with those initiatives (Waligo *et al.*, 2013). Partnerships between local communities and the private sector are a growing phenomenon in a number of natural resource sectors worldwide including agriculture, forestry and tourism (Roe *et al.*, 2001).

The partnerships formed have led to a resource governance approach referred to by a myriad of names including: participatory management, joint management, shared management, management in partnership, multi-stakeholder management, cooperative management, collaborative management, or simply co-management. These all refer to the mutual sharing of power and responsibility among various stakeholders for the sustainable management of natural resources. For purposes of this research however, the term co-management will be used.

Despite their potential for sustainable tourism attainment, collaborative stakeholder partnerships still have challenges. Effective implementation of these management partnerships is hampered by the inherent complication of having multiple stakeholders with disparate views and often divergent priorities. Collaborative partnerships therefore can be said to be the vehicle through which sustainable tourism's threefold goals of environmental protection, economic empowerment and social development are attained (Waligo *et al.*, 2013). As Gossling, Hall and Weaver (2008) affirm, the emerging implementation of sustainable tourism is driven by stakeholder partnerships. This implies therefore that successful implementation of sustainable tourism is dependent on the effectiveness of stakeholder engagement (Waligo *et al.*, 2013). This is true particularly for protected areas in developing countries.

Participation (community participation)

Participation is a key component of co-management. It refers to a broad range of activities, ranging from attending meetings where community members are informed about management activities, to sitting on an advisory council (Smith, 2012). Community participation is often regarded as one of the most essential tools, if tourism is to make a meaningful contribution to the national

development of a country (Lea, 2006). This is especially true for least developed countries where tourism is the primary source of foreign exchange (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011). This is because tourism, particularly in rural areas, is increasingly seen as a force that can be used to alleviate poverty through the creation of income and employment (Christie & Sharma, 2008; Saarinen & Rogerson, 2013).

Scholars widely believe that unless local residents are empowered and participate fully in decision-making and ownership of tourism developments, tourism will be less likely to generate sustainable outcomes as it will not reflect their values (Lea, 2006). The call for community participation hinges on the premise that participation lessens opposition to development minimises negative impacts and revitalises economies (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002). Further, participation of local communities has been shown to lead to local empowerment, a better quality of life for the community, as well as fostering the ability of communities to define their needs and the means with which to meet them (Lea, 2006; Sebele, 2010; Roseland, 2013). These are all essential tenets of sustainable development.

As Jamal and Stronza (2009) note, community participation is an increasingly important sustainability principle. This is because decentralization, a process of redistribution of power and the transfer of responsibilities from central government to rural communities, of natural resource management has the potential to promote conservation and rural development (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011). For community participation to be deemed successful, the community must recognize the legitimacy of the institution in charge of management, appropriate roles for the community in the decision-making process must be defined, and access to resources and to technical options and skills must be provided (Menzies, 2013).

Co-management in tourism

Co-management emerged amongst the various bottom-up participatory approaches employed to effectively and sustainably govern natural resources (Berkes, 2009; Blore, *et al.*, 2013). The term co-management has no single universally accepted definition and no prescriptive format (Armitage *et al.*, 2007). However, it generally refers to an arrangement between the government and a group or groups of stakeholders for the management of natural resources (Pomeroy, McConney & Mahon *et al.*, 2004). Co-management refers to a range of arrangements, with varied degrees of power sharing, for joint decision-making by the state and communities about a set of resources (Borrini-Feyerabend *et al.*, 2004).

As Smith (2012) notes, it's generally recognized by researchers and managers alike that resources can frequently be more effectively managed when stakeholders, or those with an interest in the resource, are directly involved in management. One such stakeholder group is the community. Since the 1980s, tourism literature has called for the inclusion and involvement of local communities in tourism as local residents are seen as a key resource in sustaining the product (Hardy *et al.*, 2002; Sebele, 2010). This signals the imperative need for active community participation in tourism management.

In reality, not all stakeholders participate directly in the process of co-management. Ideally, those directly involved in co-management ought to be representative of the interests of all key stakeholder groups (Geoghegan & Renard, 2002). However, this is not always the case. Most conflicts stem from the fact that locals feel excluded from decision-making and/or management, and are merely relegated to providing labour and land tenure for the tourism enterprise (De Los Angeles Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012; Hoole, 2010).

Further, since they involve many more stakeholders than just the state and local communities, co-management arrangements tend to be complex as the different groups have different perspectives on the use and management of resources (Carlsson & Berkes, 2005; De Los Angeles Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012). Successful co-management, as Smith (2012) argues, is made up of an arrangement where the interests of a variety of stakeholders are represented, and where a large number of stakeholders are participating.

Macro- and micro-environmental factors (SWOT analysis)

Proponents of co-management argue that the performance of co-management projects should be analysed individually, and in context of the macro- and micro-environmental factors shaping particular projects (Wilshusen, Brechin, Fortwangler & West, 2002; Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010). Macro-environmental factors refer to aspects of the broader environment that impact on how tourism activities are conducted, and include aspects such as social, cultural, religious, economic, political, technological and environmental issues (Botha, Fairer-Wessels & Lubbe, 2006). Micro-environmental factors, on the other hand, are those aspects specific to the context of the area in which particular tourism projects occur.

An understanding of both macro- and micro-environmental factors in an area is important in evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the tourism co-management arrangements prevailing there. This in turn helps policy makers formulate and implement dynamic policies that create and foster an environment conducive to a collaborative approach for the sustainable management of tourism. This is vital for the ultimate attainment of sustainable development as a whole. The following case study examples illustrate this point. Note that different names are used to refer to co-management projects; however, they will be referred to more broadly in this paper as Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) projects.

Case studies

The Tanayiku Natural Ecology Park (TNEP) is one example of a successful CBNRM project. As Hipwell (2007) reports, TNEP is an ecotourism based venture owned and operated exclusively by the Tsou aboriginal community of southern Taiwan. Community members have a complete sense of ownership of the project and thus participate fully in its activities. Through a range of activities devoted to rehabilitating degraded ecosystems and preventing further ecological damage, the Tsou community meets their conservation goals (Hipwell, 2007).

The fact that ecological aspects of the community are maintained for mutual benefit of community members ensures that all benefit from the proceeds of the ecotourism venture. This in turn further enhances the sense of ownership community members have of the project. The Tsou case provides evidence of the capacity of indigenous people to manage local ecosystems for collective benefit more sustainably than can state governments (Hipwell, 2007). It therefore provides useful insight for similar CBNRM projects, like the Mukuni village case. Further, the transparent way of sharing mutual benefit learnt from the TNEP case serves as an important lesson for all co-management initiatives.

In contrast to the successful CBNRM case cited above, Plummer and Fennell (2009) document the failed case of community-based coral reef management in Gili Indah, Indonesia. This is as a result of the failure to deal with the conflict between fishers and tourism entrepreneurs in resource appropriation. Tourism entrepreneurs, who were originally fishers and who are of the same ethnic background, have attained vertical mobility by generating new tourism operations in collaboration with foreign investors. New power structures have thus evolved that favour tourism entrepreneurs,

reducing community cohesion as decision making is in the industry's own best interest as opposed to that of the community as a whole.

The Zimbabwean Communal Areas Management Program for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) was the initial forerunner of CBNRM in Southern Africa, starting in 1986 (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011). CAMPFIRE served as a model CBNRM project, not only in Africa but globally, providing income to rural communities for development. According to Sebele (2010), 80% of the money raised through the various CAMPFIRE activities was given directly to the communities and collectively they decided how to use it, with the 20% being retained for administrative purposes. However, recent research by Tichaawa and Mhlanga (2015) indicates that local community members experienced negative perceptions in terms of the CAMPFIRE project as it was not economically improving their livelihoods. However, the researchers (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015:65) support policy-making and the formulation for government and non-government organisations to fully empower local communities in managing their (wildlife) resources. Despite its apparent success, the CAMPFIRE project has in recent years faced sharp decline due to factors such as breakdown of participatory decision-making, general failures in governance and capacity, and selfishness of local elites in appropriating benefits (Mashinya, 2007). A positive case of CBNRM in South Africa is that of the Makuleke community. Community members have benefited through capacity-building and training programmes, thereby empowering them to take advantage of employment opportunities offered by the project (Sebele, 2010). More significantly, CBNRM has ensured that the community has access to its communal land, taken away from them during apartheid. These and many other cases offer valuable insight for the Mukuni Village Craft Market case study.

Methods

The Mukuni village craft market as case study

The study site is the Mukuni Village Craft market, an authentic Zambian village located in close proximity to Livingstone and the Victoria Falls World Heritage Site. Mukuni Village is the main village of the Mukuni Chiefdom which comprises over 100 villages divided into 12 distinct zones. Mukuni Village is located in the Ngundu zone, which is the tourist hub of the chiefdom. Refer to Figure 1 (below).

Due to relative infertile soil and erratic rainfall in the area, the people of Mukuni cannot rely on agriculture and have turned to tourism for their livelihood. Mukuni village is now a tourist destination, introducing an insight into the leya people's cultural inheritance mainly through the curio trade, conducted village tours, traditional dances and a number of ceremonies including the lwiindi ceremony. these tourism activities are organized and coordinated by Mukuni development trust (mdt), a body formed in 2002 to empower and enable the Mukuni community to benefit from tourism.

Research design

A qualitative case study research design was used due to the detailed nature of the descriptive data that was gathered (Creswell, 2013). The case study research design was appropriate because of the detailed knowledge and in-depth analysis of the Mukuni case that the study required (Hofstee, 2006). The research instrument used was an interview schedule for individual in-depth interviews.

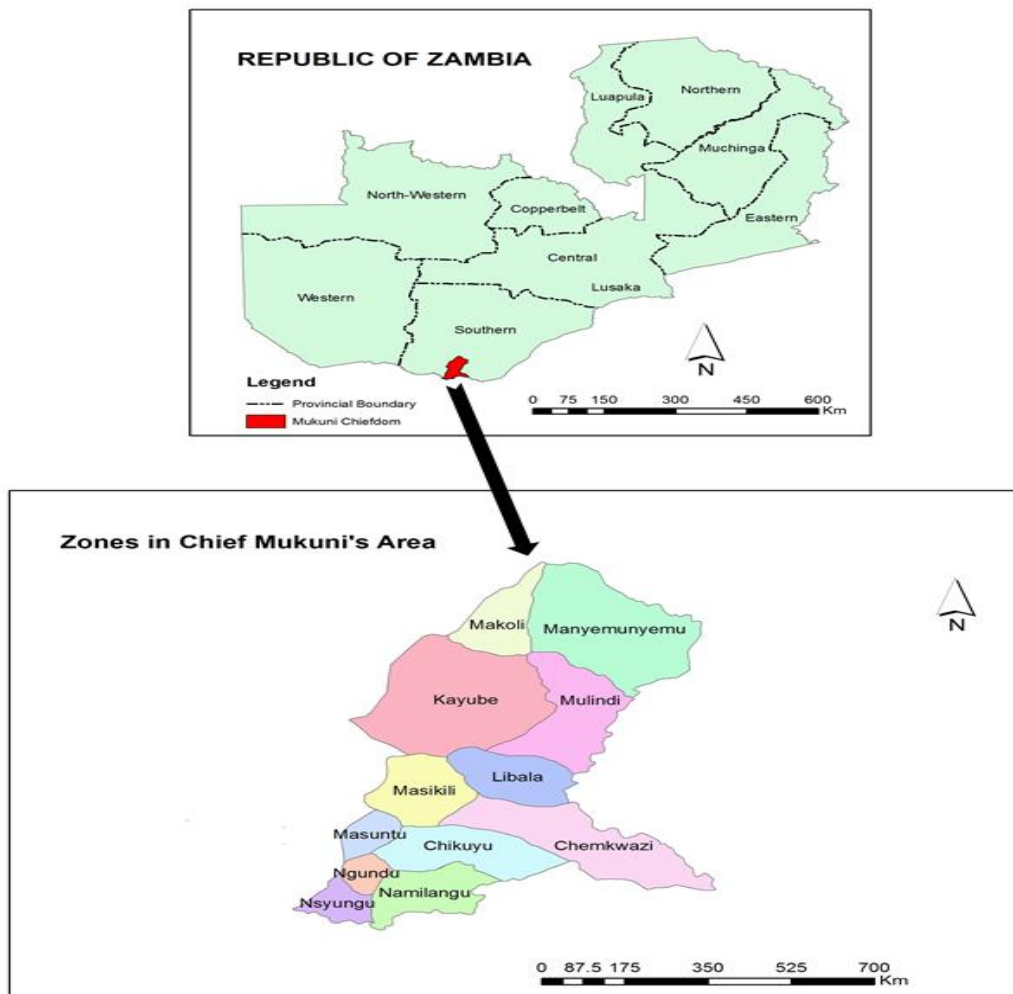


Figure 1 Location Map Of Mukuni Showing The 12 Zones Of The Chiefdom
 (Adapted From Central Statistical Office (CSO), National Data Archive, 2014)

Data collection

Phase 1 comprised secondary data collection and the literature review for the research. Phase 2 comprised the primary data collection phase including preliminary field visits to the study area. An initial visit was made to the study area for purposes of making appointments and establishing in-routes into the community, and informal interviews were held with local leaders in Mukuni. A second visit was made to the study area to conduct a pilot study for purposes of testing the interview schedule. The third and final phase comprised the actual data collection. Primary data was collected through the use of 32 semi-structured individual in-depth interviews. This was because of the desire for in-depth information, practical considerations regarding low levels of literacy among respondents in the study area, and consideration of cultural norms that required that relationships be built prior to asking personal information. Secondary data was collected through reference to various documents relevant to the topic under study

Sampling

The sample included 32 respondents comprising 18 Mukuni community members (curio traders, village guides, marketers, and others), 4 local leaders, 7 government officials (Ministry of Tourism,

Livingstone City Council, National Heritage Conservation Commission, Zambia Tourist Board & Zambia Wildlife Authority), 2 Tour Operators and a representative of Livingstone Tourism Association. Following the rule of thumb for semi-structured interviews, the activity was continued until responses were sufficiently repeated and themes emerged, the sample size of 30 was considered sufficient for this study (Creswell, 2013).

Purposive sampling was used in selecting key informants, such as government officials, traditional leaders and tourism proprietors. This was done in order to include in the sample as many groups and interests as possible (Smith, 2012). Respondents from the community were selected using snowball sampling since Mukuni is a closely knit community and community members know each other well are were likely to identify fellow community members involved in or affected by tourism activities. The data collected were analysed using both quantitative and qualitative tools.

Table 1: Stakeholders Interviewed

| Stakeholder group | Specific category of respondents | Number of interviewees |
|----------------------|--|------------------------|
| Community members | Curio traders, village guides, marketers, and others | 18 |
| Local leaders | MDT secretary, area councilor, headmen | 4 |
| Government officials | MOT, LCC, NHCC, FOD, ZEMA, ZTB and ZAWA* | 7 |
| Tour operators | Wild horizons, and Bush tracks | 2 |
| Tourism association | Livingstone Tourism Authority (LTSA) | 1 |
| Total | | 32 |

*Ministry Of Tourism; Livingstone City Council; National Heritage Conservation Commission; Zambia Environmental Management Agency; Zambia Tourism Board; Zambia Wildlife Authority

Data analysis

Quantitative data such as demographics were analysed using Microsoft excel to generate descriptive statistics. The Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) analysis was chosen as the main qualitative tool to analyse and present the data. The SWOT analysis tool was used to evaluate the positive and negative factors influencing the co-management arrangement of the Mukuni village case study. The SWOT analysis was deemed appropriate in this regard as it could provide a sound basis for successful strategy formulation (Gao & Peng, 2011). It could also help identify specific strategies that could be best aligned with Mukuni village's resources and capabilities to the requirements of the environment in which it operated.

The Strengths (S) and Weaknesses (W) identified by the SWOT analysis was able to constitute the internal (local) factors, which shaped the micro-environment of Mukuni tourism co-management. The Opportunities (O) and Threats (T), on the other hand, comprised the external (global) factors shaping the Macro-environment of Mukuni Village Craft market tourism. The SWOT analysis' major criticism of being too subjective in the categorizing of S, W, O, and T has been acknowledged.

However for purposes of this study, the criterion of categorization was informed by a review of secondary literature on similar studies. Results of the analyses could then be used to formulate a framework for effective implementation of co-management of tourism in Mukuni Village Craft Market.

SWOT used for data analysis

The SWOT Analysis was the main qualitative tool used to analyse and present the data. The SWOT helped identify specific strategies that best aligned Mukuni Village's resources and capabilities to the environment in which it operated. It provided the basis for sound strategy

formulation (Gao & Peng 2011). The 32 respondents' interviews were all transcribed and coded into similar topics.

The Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats forthcoming were categorized and 'counted' to indicate which were the most prevalent amongst the respondents. Those Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats with the highest count were listed.

Findings (strengths & weaknesses)

- Strengths (micro)
 - easy access & location in terms of the Victoria Falls/Mosi-oa-Tunya world heritage site (excellent geographic location)
 - cultural richness of the Mukuni people (rich cultural deposits)
 - knowledge of culture and traditions
 - awareness of tourism potential
- Weaknesses (micro)
 - lack of product uniqueness & development
 - weak market consciousness
 - lack of cooperation amongst villagers
 - lack of planning and management between parties
 - conflict with and nepotism of Chief Mukuni

Findings (opportunities & threats)

- Opportunities (macro)
 - positive role of government and LTA (partnerships)
 - cooperation between culture and business sector
 - positive role of participatory decision making (co-management) between parties
 - advantages of CBNRM for Mukuni Village Craft Market community
- Threats
 - conflict between product development and natural resource protection
 - conflict between traditional and modern culture
 - homogenous competition – lack of market knowledge

Table 2: Results of SWOT analysis

| Strength | Weaknesses |
|---|--|
| Geographic location & access | Lack of product development |
| Unique culture | Weak market consciousness |
| Knowledge of traditions | Weak cooperation amongst villagers |
| Aware of tourism potential | Conflict with Chief |
| Opportunities | Threats |
| Role of Government and LTA | Traditional & modern culture conflict |
| Cooperation between culture and business sector | Conflict between product development and natural resources |
| Role of co-management | Homogenous competition |
| Advantages for CBNRM | Pollution of environment |

Table 3: Applied results (strengths & weaknesses)

| Strength (micro) | Capitalise on strengths |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Geographic location & access | Market access to location |
| Unique culture | Develop unique products/services |

| | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Knowledge of traditions | Develop intangible products/services |
| Aware of tourism potential | Create marketing opportunities |
| Weaknesses | Address weaknesses |
| Lack of product knowledge | Assist with new product development |
| Weak market consciousness | Create awareness of market |
| Weak cooperation amongst villagers | Establish community council of elders |
| Conflict with Chief | Address through higher bodies |

Table 4: Applied results (Opportunities & Threats)

| Opportunities | Capitalise on opportunities |
|--|---|
| Role of Government and LTA | Enhance commitment of these parties |
| Cooperation between culture and business sector | Create forum for discussion between parties |
| Role of co-management | Assist in terms of capacity building for this |
| Advantages of CBNRM | Assist with implementation |
| Threats | Address threats |
| Traditional & modern culture conflict | Address importance of traditional culture |
| Conflict between product development and natural resources | Address alternatives instead of using natural resources for product development |
| Homogenous competition | Assist with diversification |
| Pollution of environment | Educate in terms of pollution of the environment |

Table 5: Proposed framework for implementation of co-management for Mukuni village based on the SWOT analysis

| Capitalise on strengths for co-management | Capitalise on opportunities for co-management |
|--|--|
| Develop & maintain road and air infrastructure to improve access to site through all parties | Use Government & Livingstone Tourism Authority to offer capacity building skills in co-management on all levels |
| Advocate importance of the village's participation with other parties for future development | Establish a business forum for the Mukuni Village Craft Market and community to have a platform for discussion |
| Create awareness and obtain buy-in from chief to acknowledge importance of co-management | Role of Government to persuade Chief to 'listen' to his village/community and follow a participatory approach |
| Commitment of Mukuni village to protect their culture and environment following a bottom-up approach | Assist with offering co-management workshops to the Mukuni Village Craft Market to 'take ownership' and realize the importance of protecting their natural resources |

Recommendations

Based on the results of the SWOT analysis a framework (refer to Table 5) was proposed to provide a basis for policy reform for more effective implementation of co-management of tourism products and services in Mukuni village that would ultimately enhance economic well-being of rural communities in Zambia. Although this proposed framework cannot be generalized to similar communities, it may serve as a guideline for co-management in similar contexts. Considering the above results and taking the literature into consideration, the disparate social, economic and environmental interests of stakeholders involved in the co-management initiative in Mukuni, appear to be a common issue within rural communities where nepotism can unbalance a community's need for participative and co-management. However, for Mukuni craft village to economically sustain itself in terms of tourism (Borrini-Feyerband, *et al.*, 2004; Zurba, *et al.*, 2002), co-management is essential between government, stakeholders and local resource users to form partnerships involving the sharing of power and responsibility (Berkes, 2009). The following recommendations are proposed within the context of this research:

- That government policy on tourism should be amended to include specific provisions to monitor the indiscriminate use of natural resources such as the cutting down of certain species of trees beyond their replacement levels.
- Government policy on tourism management should be amended to decentralise decision-making process of co-management to community level, taking the views of community members into consideration by implementing skills development workshops.
- Sharing of benefits should be more equitable and the community should have equal opportunity for access to funds from the Mukuni Development Trust (MDT).
- MDT board members should be elected by the community and not appointed by the Chief, have a defined tenure of office and all community members should have equal voting rights.
- The participation of community members in co-management should be encouraged with the establishment of a business forum for the craft village to promote decision-making

Conclusion

This research examines the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of sustained economic growth through co-management in the Mukuni village in Zambia. The main issues have been identified by the SWOT analysis. The Mukuni village craft market has great tourism potential being adjacent to a World Heritage Site. However the existence of this pristine natural area must be sustainably managed and protected for the economic, cultural and social benefit of the local community in the first instance and secondly to engage tourists in an ultimate experience. Active co-management is strongly recommended for sustained economic growth within the Mukuni village context, taking the inherent challenges of traditional top-down management into account.

Limitations and future research direction

Although care was taken by the researchers to follow a trustworthy, valid and reliable research process, certain limitations were noted. A small purposive sample was used with 32 respondents. The fieldworker was not a resident of the Mukuni village/community, but an 'outsider' from Zambia that may have impacted on the responses from the respondents interviewed. The SWOT analysis was subjective in the categorization of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. Findings could not be generalised to a larger population but provided a glimpse into the challenges rural communities face to implement sustained economic growth.

Some future directions for research would be to replicate this study for comparative purposes in other similar culturally rich communities in Africa. Future research into government policy mechanisms such as the indiscriminate use of natural resources and enforcement of stringent environmental laws would be noteworthy within the broader climate change debate; and research into the decentralisation of decision-making through co-management on local and community level would add value to rural communities struggling to sustain their livelihoods.

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