Luangwa Safari Association

Tourism Study

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Acknowledgements

This report was commissioned by the Luangwa Safari Association (LSA) to identify the comparative status of their tourism efforts within Zambia and where possible in the Southern African region. It was also their intention to demonstrate in a factual manner the nature of the tourism business in the Luangwa valley and its opportunities and constraints.

Throughout this process of study and consultation, the overall objective of the LSA has been to identify constructive processes and solutions for its members and those with whom it interacts, that will sustain the rational, planned growth of tourism in the area. In this context it was also important that national policy makers should have access to the findings of this report and be invited to respond to them.

During the study a large spectrum of people has been consulted and thanks are due to them all for their cooperation and interest. Particular thanks are due to all the LSA members who participated, for their hospitality and time offered in supplying information and participating discussions. The Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA) has also provided valued information and opinion, with contributions from the Head Office in Chilanga, and particularly from the Eastern Region Office in Mfuwe. The Tourism Department in the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources were very helpful with accessing tourism statistics.

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Executive Summary

Why have a study?

The highly competitive nature of international tourism demands that Zambia, now more than ever, positions itself as effectively as possible in world and regional markets if it is to retain and develop its present market access. Achieving this objective will demand a closer and more professional and target-oriented interaction between public and private sector players. This report was contracted by the Luangwa Safari Association (LSA) to examine and make comment on key issues relating particularly to the future of tourism development in the Luangwa Valley. Many of the conclusions have wider relevance and may be of interest to both public and private sector readers.

Contents

Chapter 1 of the report provides general background on tourism development in Zambia. Chapter 2 describes current trends in international and regional tourism and then reports on national tourism developments. Chapter 3 examines the historical and geographical background to tourism in the South Luangwa National Park (SLNP) and its eastern hinterland in the Lupande game management area (GMA). Particular attention is given to environmental, socio-economic and institutional factors having a bearing on the future of tourism in the area.

Chapter 4 sets out in detail the statistical trends in LSA-area tourism, and the narrative then continues into Chapter 5 to review actual and potential sources of competition for its members within the Zambian tourist market. Chapter 6 studies the hunting tourism sector, traditionally seen as a competitor for space and access to spectacular wild animals by photographic/eco- tourism operators, and draws some conclusions on the debate.

Chapter 7 looks below the traditional tourism persona to examine the financial and economic contributions of LSA and hunting tourism on the Mambwe District, and particularly the Masumba-Mfuwe area.

Finally, Chapter 8 seeks to identify actions that will support sustainable and ecologically and culturally sensitive tourism growth and development in the SLNP and environs. Chapter 9 makes broad conclusions about the future tourism landscape in the LSA area.

Global, regional and national tourism trends

Tourist arrivals to Zambia have seen significant gains in the last five years. In many cases these tourist arrival growth rates exceed those of regional competitor countries in percentage terms. This growth phenomenon is on the back of a global growth in tourism and is expected to continue in the short to medium term, subject to any serious negative internal or external circumstances. In 2003 Zambia received 577,000 tourists, representing an average annual growth rate of over 11% since 1996, recorded nearly 14,000 jobs in the sector and generated US$ 149 million in direct tourism revenue (equivalent to about 2.8% of GDP). The South Luangwa Valley area has both benefited from, and been a key contributed to this growth.

The public/private vision for tourism

There is little evidence that the current growth in tourism is the direct result of a cherished vision, or definitive policy and physical actions taken by government, or the private sector. Much of tourism development in Zambia, rightly or wrongly, still supports the perception of a gradual symbiosis of individual public and private sector initiatives, driven by ad hoc circumstances. A measure of default is also at play, with one regional competitor experiencing a period of political uncertainty that has been reflected in dramatic declines in tourist arrivals. Nevertheless, by following a stable and reasonably predictable path, Zambia has been able to leverage sector gains. But it is argued that more could have been achieved by proactively seeking to achieve tourism vision targets and actions that have been identified for some time.

For example, tourist statistics from all sources are still insufficiently reliable, consistent and robust enough to be disaggregated and analysed. As a result tourism planning is the poorer. More significantly, experiences elsewhere in the world would suggest that the present contribution of tourism to the economy is, therefore, probably seriously understated. This inevitable has meant, and continues to mean, that: public sector investment in tourism; incentives for private sector growth; and contributions to biodiversity conservation, are all underplayed at national decision-making levels - regardless of encouraging statements in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and other policy documents.

An outline of Luangwa valley tourism

Tourism development in the Luangwa Valley has followed a slow, evolutionary process that has been largely driven by successive wildlife departments and their statutory successor, and committed, but undercapitalised operators. Furthermore, the SLNP and its surrounding GMAs lie within a deep rift valley which has presented a number of geomorphic and environmental obstacles to developing the area.

These problems are further amplified by historically rooted, but increasingly important low provisions of social services, resulting in one of the lowest school attendance (18%), general literacy and trained personnel rates in the country (38%), and below average status for health services.

Of particular concern to the tourism industry (that is a major employer in the Mambwe district) is the present uncontrolled growth in urban development in the Masumba-Mfuwe area. Not only is this having increasingly negative pressures and impacts on the environment, with inevitable subsequent impacts on the adjacent national park, but it is also creating potentially difficult access and perception impacts for visitors wishing to enter the national park at Mfuwe.

Effective and immediate urban and district planning is the only mechanism by which this phenomenon can be mitigated. Thus far little progress has been made in this direction, although one initiative is under way at present.

Nevertheless, there are now some fourteen photographic and two hunting tourism operators in the LSA area. The LSA member operators can now offer approximately 600 tourist beds (400 in camps and lodges and another 200 in camp sites), representing nearly 65,000 annual tourist bed nights. Several operations now offer a twelve month operating season, several operate for nine or more months a year.

But the core of bed nights is still concentrated in a five to six month season between May and October and 33% of the bed space is in dry season camps. Furthermore, there has been a steady growth in tourist operators and bed night provision, so that the overall bed night occupancy in 2003 was in the region of 42%, a figure that has not changed dramatically from the 1980's.

Complete data was not available from 2004, but verbal indications are that most operators experienced a 15% to 25% increase in bed nights. Even with this growth in demand, the focus will still be on taking increasing bed night occupancy levels from their present levels around 40% to closer to 65%. Total recorded numbers entering the SLNP in 2003 were around 20,000 (14,000 internationals and 6,000 local tourists), with a growth of 57% since 1998. 2004 national park entries are reported to be in the region of 25,000. Interestingly the rate of growth in domestic tourism is roughly double that of international tourists, although from a much smaller base.

Utilisation of the 9,000 km^2 of the SLNP is still low (0.067 tourists/km^2). Even accounting for the small actual tourism footprint (only about 10% of the national park area is regularly used for tourism) real tourism densities are still below 0.1 tourist/ km^2. Tourist vehicle densities on the restricted length of roads in the national park peak at 0.33 vehicles/km.

Competitors

Tourism growth in the Luangwa Valley tourist area faces competition from other destinations in the region and within Zambia. Statistical data are inadequate at present to compare the LSA area against individual regional competitor areas. The key competitor countries of comparable sector size are Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe and Tanzania, all with between 500,000 and one million tourist bed nights pre year. South Africa acts as a major attractor of international tourists because of: the size, diversity and sophistication of its tourism industry; its well-established airline hub and spoke system; its multitude of international air, sea and land connections; and the investment established in core infrastructure. Zambia and other regional countries can benefit from accessing segments of this induced tourism traffic, as well as by expanding regional tourism packages and by developing their own market niches.

Within Zambia the tourism industry in recent years has developed around the Victoria Falls, which acts as the principal attractor by a large margin (approximately 1 million available bed nights). This focus represents a partial competitor for Luangwa Valley's wildlife-based tourism (28,000 bed nights in 2003). Elsewhere the LSA members are competing primarily with similar wildlife tourism in the Lower Zambezi circuit (15,000 bed nights in 2003), and to a much smaller extent in the Kafue, Kafue Flats, Western Province and North Luangwa national parks. There is a considerable degree of tourist exchange between all these destinations, so competition is also mixed with mutual advantages.

Hunting tourism

The hunting sector in the Lupande GMA adjoining the SLNP continues to contribute significant financial support to ZAWA and to community resource boards (CRBs) in the area. The 2003 hunting revenues (from concession fees and hunting licenses) amounted to US$ 134,000, and in 2004 some US$ 64,000 of total revenues was due to be returned to CRBs.

Photographic tourism is presently generating significantly greater direct regulatory, fiscal and indirect benefits to ZAWA, the government and the Mambwe community, respectively, both in gross terms and a per-area-used basis (both hunting and photographic operators utilise similar overall areas). There are several inadequacies and inefficiencies in the hunting regulatory system that, if addressed, might change this position. But in an overall sense it would appear that there is a real opportunity in the Luangwa Valley for wildlife and other protected areas to be planned and used in a more efficient and integrated manner – to the benefit of all.

In seeking to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of operations in the SLNP/Lupande GMA area there are a number of hunting policy issues that also warrant attention, particularly lion and leopard hunting and the issue of reintroducing elephant hunting. There are arguments that suggest that both these issues need sensitive handling, and in the presence of adequate scientific research. Wildlife research and monitoring needs further support in the Luangwa Valley if ad hoc solutions are to be avoided.

Thus far the hunting outfitters in the Lupande GMA have not participated in LSA activities or contributions to the group contributions to community projects. It would seem logical that hunting outfitters be encouraged to join and participate in LSA activities and contributions.

Socio-economic factors

In the Luangwa Valley area, and particularly in the Mambwe District that was examined by this report, tourism has had significant positive impacts on the economy and sociology of the area. These include large increases in permanent and seasonal employment and the associated growth in skills (with approximately 700 people employed in the area and over 50 qualified tourist guides), an exponential growth in disposable incomes returning to households and businesses in the district (in 2003 some US$ 500,000 equivalent in salaries and wages and a further US$ 250,000 equivalent in the procurement of local goods and services returned to residents and businesses in the Mambwe district). In addition large donations have been made by LSA members to improve health, education, water supply, road maintenance and police services, and a plethora of private-sector-driven services that have introduced new ideas, exposure to ideas, technologies, opportunities for advancement, and other poverty reducing/livelihood enhancing inputs.

From the government perspective, this growth in tourism has meant increased financial contributions by the LSA to the ZAWA (approximately US$ 980,000 in 2003) and other statutory bodies (ZAMTEL, ZESCO), and to the Zambia Revenue Authority – and thus indirectly to the national exchequer.

Predictably, there have also been negative aspects that are in part the result of increased wealth, and of immigration following tourist dollars. Physical evidence is reflected in increases in HIV/AIDS and related diseases, delinquent behaviour (drunkenness, theft, and violence), unplanned development leading to declines in sanitation standards, attenuation of cultural mores, deforestation, illegal and/or over-hunting and fishing impacts and so on. These difficulties are probably exacerbated by 28% of the Mambwe district population of 48,000 being born elsewhere (i.e. immigrants), thus diluting traditional controls on behaviour.

The way forward

Within the LSA area, three key issues emerge from this study:

i) there is need for the local government administration to take a proactive role in planning, and providing the framework guidance for the future shape of the Mambwe District.

This has several dimensions, from developing a viable urban plan for the Mambwe – Mfuwe area that will both mitigate negative present and future geographic and ecological impacts on the tourist industry (that is the primary economic driver in the area); to simultaneously supporting the growth in social services and in healthy, trained people that are an essential element in continued growth of the tourism sector;

ii) there are currently approximately 25,000 international and local tourists visiting the South Luangwa National Park (SLNP) every year. Projecting future growth of tourist numbers is problematic during a period of rapid growth, but this study projects that within ten years there are likely to be nearly three times as many tourists per year (around 70,000). Herein lie three problems needing urgent resolution:

a) the need for the local tourism industry to have a consensus on a coherent marketing and development policy, and on codes of conduct that will preserve the market niche that the SLNP operators have established;

b) in part this will be determined by the level of innovation in the physical planning and development of the national park and its environs, and of linkages to adjoining tourism attractions.

   Geographic considerations make access into the SLNP difficult and the tourist lodge and operating sites need increasingly to be enticed away from the Luangwa riverine strip towards the large tracts of catenary landscape between the Muchinga Escarpment and the Luangwa River, with their own special features.

   The tourism industry will need to work closely with ZAWA to develop innovative ways of decongesting present access points into the national park, encouraging a diversification of tourism products that will enable wider use the range of habitats in the national park, and, most importantly of all, maintaining the current low tourist densities that are the hallmark of the SLNP

c) and finally, on present evidence the economics of the game management areas (GMAs) around the national park suggest that there should be a much larger role for non-consumptive tourism if competitive land rents are to be offered and less compatible land uses resisted. This will require a re-think of the traditional policies regarding safari and resident hunting, the roles and responsibilities of community organisations and district councils, and particularly, of land use planning and zoning in these areas.

Conclusions

Evidence from other local and international protected areas suggest that the implications of delayed consultation and action are very likely a progressive and rapid erosion of the biological diversity and recreational roles that the SLNP and its surrounding protected wildlife areas are legislated to offer. The largely irrecoverable impacts of this potential loss on future opportunities and benefits also needs due consideration and quantification.

The financial impacts of negative externalities in the tourism trade are most evident from the Zimbabwean tourism situation. In 1999 Zimbabwe recorded 2.1 million tourist arrivals. That number is likely to have directly generated in excess of US$ 1 billion. In 2003, only four years later, the tourist arrival numbers had dropped by a massive 54% to 950,000 – with a probable loss in direct tourist revenue of some US$ 600 million – and consequent impacts on sustained investment in Zimbabwe's protected areas.

The full calculation of the financial and social benefits of Luangwa valley tourism can be established once a fuller set of data are available. But this study indicates that the tourism industry is contributing the following approximate annual financial benefits, locally and nationally (based on 2003 data):

i)	direct and indirect contributions to households in the Mambwe-Mfuwe area	– US$ 950,000
ii)	social benefits to health and educational services	– US$ 100,000
iii)	approximate tourism turnover involving the local and national economies (excluding salaries and wages)	– US$ 3.6 million
iv)	regulatory payments	– US$ 1.2 million

In global terms these are small numbers, but in a Zambian context that are important. Moreover, real tourism growth in the LSA area is a recent phenomenon, with positive parameters only within the last five years. Present projections suggest that within ten years these numbers will probably have trebled. Government benefits will grow accordingly.

It is also worth remembering that the tourism industry, because of its wide interactions, has a significant economic multiplier effect on the economy and on government revenues. The nature of Zambia's tourism multiplier effect has still to be evaluated, but a study in Kenya (TTC, 1996) suggests that it may exceed a factor of 2. Thus if the LSA turnover figure is taken to represent tourist dollars spent in the LSA area the government is currently likely to earn in excess of US$ 6 million.

Lastly, the study identifies a number of catalysts for growth. From a LSA viewpoint profitability equates to reinvestment and potential growth. Prioritising these catalysts is suggested to emphasise in particular action that will: a) simplify and reduce the cost of bureaucracy and indirect taxation, and b) find ways of reducing the overhead cost of supplies into the Luangwa Valley.

But perhaps the most important catalyst will be the establishment of a consultative, forum, including at least ZAWA, the district council, the CRBs, hunting outfitters and the LSA, that is able to debate and plan a commonly agreed future for the area.

1. A Background to Tourism in Zambia

Zambian tourism, now more then ever before, needs to position itself more effectively in world and regional markets if it is to develop its present market access. Achieving this objective will demand a closer and more professional and target-oriented interaction between public and private sector players. This report was contracted by the Luangwa Safari Association (LSA) to examine and make comment on key issues relating to the future of tourism development in the Luangwa Valley. Many of the conclusions have wider relevance and may be of interest to both public and private sector readers.

Information from most local tourism operations shows that Zambia is increasingly benefiting from significant and sustained growth in its tourism sector. Some of this growth is in areas that are still to be formalised - for example the guesthouse sector. Conversely, there are large areas of opportunity in cultural and eco-tourism where little support exists, exploratory efforts are relatively new and so far there is little volume.

Much information still requires verifying, quantification and formal trend analysis – a task complicated by an absence of systematically collected tourism statistics that are robust enough for appropriate disaggregation and analysis.

It must be recognised that it is only in the last five years that there has been real, recent, planned growth in Government's investment in the tourism sector. But regrettably, even those investments are still frequently counteracted by contradictory, or transient policies or implementation styles. As an example, encouragement for indigenous, domestic tourism has probably declined since the height of the parastatal era and its holiday benefits.

Given a degree of inward inspection one could conclude that the tourism growth phenomenon still comprises a good measure of default – there is a global growth in tourism, and Zambia's tourism circumstances, for a variety of reasons, are only "less worse" than many of its regional competitors. As a result, Zambia's present benefits from tourism are smaller than they should be if a measure of prediction and planning and real sector support were in place.

1.1 Causes and Effects

If there had been no recent planned, analytical investment in tourism, the default circumstances would be understandable. But the reality is that a variety of tourism-related projects have invested considerable sums over the last ten years in assessing and planning for Zambian tourism development. So why does much of Zambia's tourism remain largely embryonic, unplanned and unpredictable?

The answer probably lies in large measure within the complexity and broad remit of tourism and its multiple interactions into the rest of the economy and the region. Nevertheless, there is general private sector agreement that a number of simple factors can be singled out as major causes:

i) inadequate appreciation at a senior national level of the major multiplier effects of tourism on the economy (resulting in sub-optimum investments and investment incentives);

ii) the public and private sectors are still sparring with each other, rather than creating and delivering against common goals (in part the outcome of the first point);

iii) inconsistencies in investment policy and regulatory practice;

iv) an inadequate statistical database and collection system (constraining adequate planning);

v) an under-developed national tourism identity; and

vi) limited direct international (and until recently) regional, tourism access.

It is salutary to note that tourism reports of the mid- and late 1990's were delivering these same conclusions.

1.2 Present Trends

The previous paragraphs identified possible causes of poor performance in the tourism industry. But there are positive developments too, and a degree of optimism is warranted. The first of the up-sides is that the private sector, through investment and innovation, is beginning to be a real driver for tourism development – which is as it should be. It is clearly stated as such in existing tourism policy statements.

At the entity level, confidence is growing in the medium and long-term prospects for investment in the sector, and small investments are being made at every level in the industry. Government too, with the assistance of its cooperating partners, is increasingly investing in measures that will support tourism growth, including financial support for indigenous and small-scale tourism entities and project investment in additional infrastructure. There has been a tendency to under-estimate Government's contribution, but if one examines the major investments made in airports, roads and electrification in detail, they are found to represent major catalysts for growth

And together the public and private sectors are beginning to build international awareness of Zambia's tourism assets – even if a branded identity is still elusive. Importantly regional and domestic airline and road links are improving – easing tourist movements into and within Zambia. But the absence of a critical mass and monopolistic tendencies, however, still limit direct international flights into Zambia.

Lastly, support industries (including the airline and charter sub-sectors, passenger road transport and the wholesale and retail sectors), are slowly contributing to building that essential critical mass in the sector.

1.3 Vision for Tourism Growth

The European Union-funded Tourism Development Project in the late 1990's produced two important documents: the Development Concept (1998) and the Tourism Development Framework (1999)

These clearly identified Livingstone and the Victoria Falls as Zambia's major international tourism drawing cards and made several concrete recommendations for mechanisms for leveraging tourism growth in that area. It is comforting that, directly or indirectly, those recommendations are being followed up by both the public and private sectors. Recommendations for other tourist circuits in central, eastern and northern Zambia have been less successfully adopted.

But one only has to look at the growth in tourism to Livingstone to see how rapidly a combination of planned, positive inputs can create very positive outputs on the ground. In that case the following factors led to success: the identification of the Victoria Falls as a focal area for Zambian tourism investment; a realisation that Zimbabwean competitors were disadvantaged; a major hotel investment, a strong South African Rand making tourism to Zambia affordable from a major regional market area, a new "open skies" policy, and public investment in key infrastructure (the airport and roads).

In summary Zambia's tourism has not performed as it might have because:

i) there has been limited use of systematic processes to follow through conceptual tourism planning frameworks to final realisation;

ii) policy and legislative frameworks have been too slow to follow new initiatives and maintain national competitive advantages;

iii) no systematic tourism statistical system exists to support planning and regulatory work;

iv) a constructive, full-time working relationship has still to be developed between the public and private sectors; and

v) marketing, and tourist access to Zambia and its tourist venues still need further work.

The Livingstone model demonstrates very clearly that when cooperative and well-planned strategies are implemented, they can have very positive impacts on tourism development. This study looks at the position of the South Luangwa National Park (SLNP) and its immediate environs within Zambia's tourism agenda. The area was identified as a second priority for tourism investment in Zambia in the 1998 report and has since also benefited from a degree of investment (in international status and runway lighting for Mfuwe airport, road rehabilitation and tourism accommodation).

What this synthesis attempts to identify now is the further catalytic factors that can support the continued development of the SLNP area - without creating self-destructive impacts on its culture, environment (particularly its valuable national parks and recreational areas), and infrastructure.

In order to do this it is crucial that the contribution of the tourism industry to the local and national economies is quantified, regularly monitored, and understood so that positive and negative impacts can be anticipated and planned for. Equally important is that there is a trusting and constructive engagement of public and private sector players with a common vision for tourism development in Zambia – and a common commitment to achieving that vision.

2. Trends in International, Regional and National Tourism

2.1 Global Trends

In 1999 the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 1999) estimated that tourism accounted for 11% of sub-Saharan Africa's GDP and was expected to grow at 5% per annum in real terms over the decade to 2010. This was faster than the world rate, estimated at 3% per annum over that period (Christie and Crompton, 2001). Tourist arrivals into Africa over the decade to 1997 showed similar high growth trends, recording an average annual growth in arrivals of 7.2%, second only in world regions to the already well established Asia/Pacific region.

In the last two years there has been unprecedented growth in international tourism arrivals in all regions. The average rate of growth is around 10% to a global figure of 760 million tourists, with peak monthly arrivals worldwide exceeding 88 million in July and August of 2004. Asia and the Pacific were the principal beneficiaries with a 29% growth from 2003 to 2004. Africa's growth continued at about 7% to a total of approximately 2 million tourist arrivals. This represented a small reduction in world market share to 2.7% (WTO website, 2005).

2.2 Regional Trends

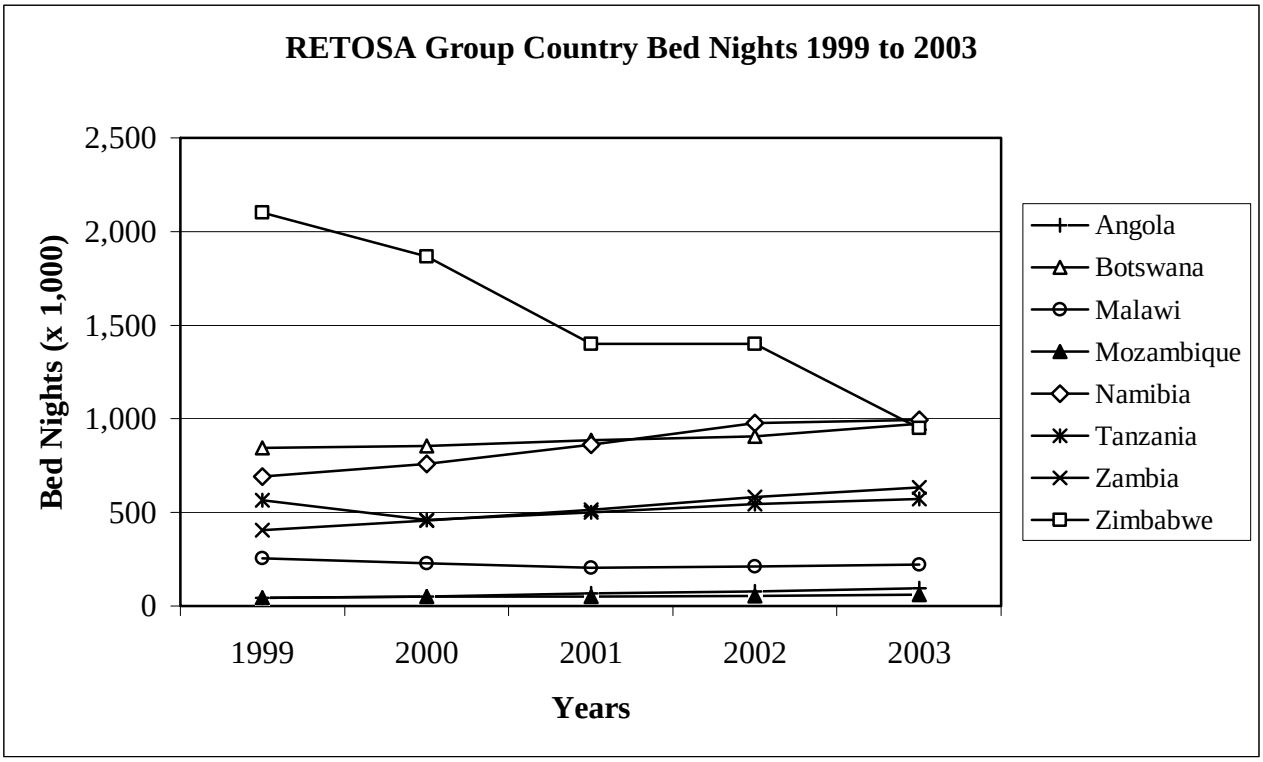
The World Market Research Centre in 2002 projected that South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland and Botswana were expected to take the lion's share of future African tourist arrivals, a growth estimated by WTO at 300% over the period to 2020 (or 5.6% per annum) (RETOSA, 2004). While proximity, customs union and infrastructural linkages will underpin this polarity (also strongly linked to the Johannesburg international airline flight hub), spin-off benefits should also accrue to contiguous areas – Zambia being one. Table 2.2.1 and Figure 2.2.1 illustrate these present trends.

Table 2.2.1 RETOSA Group Country Tourism Bed Nights, 1999 to 2003

Tourism Producer Area	Tourism Bed Nights (x 1,000)				
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
RETOSA					
Angola	45	51	67	80	95
Botswana	843	856	884	906	975
DR Congo	80	103	110	135	135
Lesotho	186	231	258	262	360
Madagascar					220
Malawi	254	228	206	210	220
Mauritius	578	656	660	670	704
Mozambique	45	50	50	55	60
Namibia	693	758	861	977	996
South Africa	6,026	6,001	5,908	6,200	6,657
Swaziland	289	281	295	298	320
Tanzania	564	459	501	546	572
Zambia	404	457	516	583	635
Zimbabwe	2,101	1,868	1,400	1,400	950
Southern Africa					
RETOSA Group Total	**12,108**	**11,999**	**11,716**	**12,322**	**12,899**

Source: Regional Tourism Organisation for Southern Africa, 2005

Figure 2.2.1 Graphical Trends in Tourism Bed Nights in Surrounding Countries, 1999 to 2003



Source: Regional Tourism Organisation for Southern Africa, 2005

Figure 2.2.1 shows that Zambia in particular has achieved a steady, positive growth performance since 1999. In a middle bracket of countries with more than 500,000 tourism bed nights, Zambia has achieved the highest overall growth rate (57.2%).

The statistics for Zimbabwe (a country with similar tourism attractions to Zambia), demonstrate convincingly the devastating impact of political uncertainty. They also indicate the tourism arrival levels that Zambia could be achieving.

Figure 2.2.1 also shows that Tanzania, Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe (still) are Zambia's major regional competitors. Botswana's tourism successes, with a fairly limited geographical spread of tourism opportunities, also illustrates the value of well established tourism circuits (Gabarone-Makgadikgadi-Okavango-Sanyati-Chobe-Victoria Falls-Gabarone) and functioning hub and spoke systems (Maun-delta camps).

Unfortunately RETOSA does not hold detailed tourism statistics by area (Okavango/Chobe, Victoria Falls/upper river, Livingstone/upper river, Matusadona/Kariba, Mana Pools, South Luangwa, Selous, Ruaha and so on), so specific competitor areas cannot be compared.

2.3 Tourism Trends in Zambia

In 1996 a World Tourism Organisation (WTO) study indicated that Zambia just failed to make it to a list of African countries where tourism was a significant element of the economy (Christie and Crompton, 2001). But that position would appear to be changing rapidly.

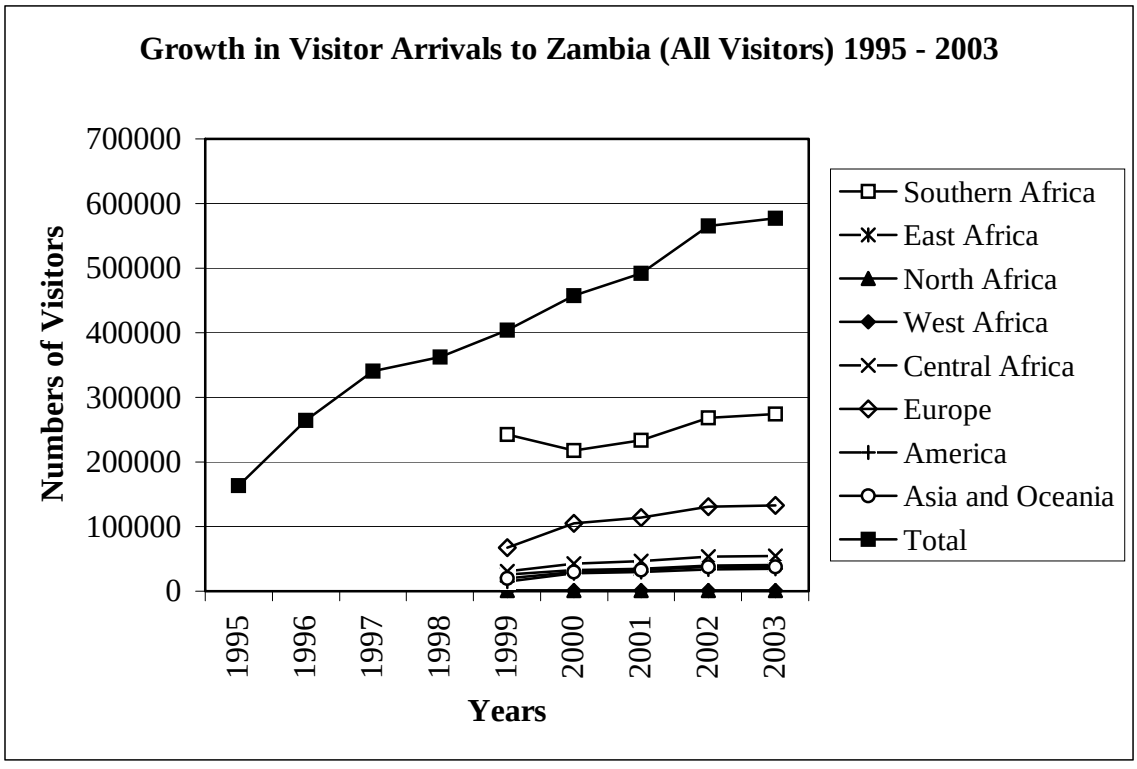
Total tourist plus business visitor arrivals in 1996 were 263,986. In 2003, seven years later, this number had grown to 577,526 – a growth of 118.8% over the period, or an average annual growth of 11.2%. As Table 2.3.1 and Figure 2.3.1 indicate, while there was very significant growth in the late 1990's, that pattern has continued into the new century, but with more variable growth rates. The causes of the fluctuation in growth rate is not explained, but may correlate with events such as the solar eclipse.

Table 2.3.1 International Business and Tourist Arrivals to Zambia by Point of Origin, 1995 to 2003

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Country of Residence									
Southern Africa					243,060	217,572	234,017	268,782	274,701
East Africa					25,568	32,191	34,624	39,768	40,644
North Africa					1,346	529	569	654	668
West Africa					1,334	1,131	1,216	1,397	1,428
Central Africa					30,634	43,056	46,310	53,190	54,361
Europe					67,253	105,409	113,376	130,219	133,087
America					15,121	27,469	29,545	33,934	34,682
Asia and Oceania					19,931	30,062	32,334	37,138	37,956
Total	**163,000**	**263,986**	**340,896**	**362,025**	**404,247**	**457,419**	**491,992**	**565,081**	**577,526**
Growth (%)		61.95%	29.13%	6.20%	11.66%	13.15%	7.56%	14.86%	2.20%

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources, 2004

Figure 2.3.1 International Business and Tourist Arrivals to Zambia by Point of Origin, 1995 to 2003



Source: Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources, 2004

The Tourism Department statistics over this period indicate that on average 44% of these arrivals are likely to be bona fide tourists (combining the categories of holiday makers and those visiting friends and relations), totalling approximately 264,000 in 2003.

That percentage shows only a small variance year-on-year, demonstrating that both tourist and business travel (which comprises the balance of the statistics) to Zambia are following the same high growth trend. Significantly, this growth rate (11.2%) is considerably higher than that projected for tourist arrivals into the southern African region. It should be noted that the breakdown of Zambian tourism arrival statistics is still based on the extrapolated results of a rapid 1998/1999 tourism arrivals survey. Until a new survey is completed some caution is warranted in the use of these data.

By comparison, visitor arrival statistics into Zambia's national park system show a highly variable set of trends, supporting the general conclusion that tourism development is still following a largely ad hoc, opportunistic and piecemeal process. Table 2.3.2 and Figure 2.3.2 illustrate these trends. It will be noted that data are not available for the Lake Tanganyika area or for the Western Province national parks.

It is also noteworthy that ZAWA recorded only 120,000 tourist arrivals into its national parks in 2003 – say 130,000 including for national parks excluded from the statistical record – compared to a total tourist arrivals (including visiting friends and relations) of about 264,000. At first sight this suggests that only slightly over half of Zambia's tourism is wildlife-driven. Even including for hunters and tourists into GMAs and game ranches this suggests that about 25% of all non-business tourists and about 11% of tourist visitors come for non-wildlife-related reasons.

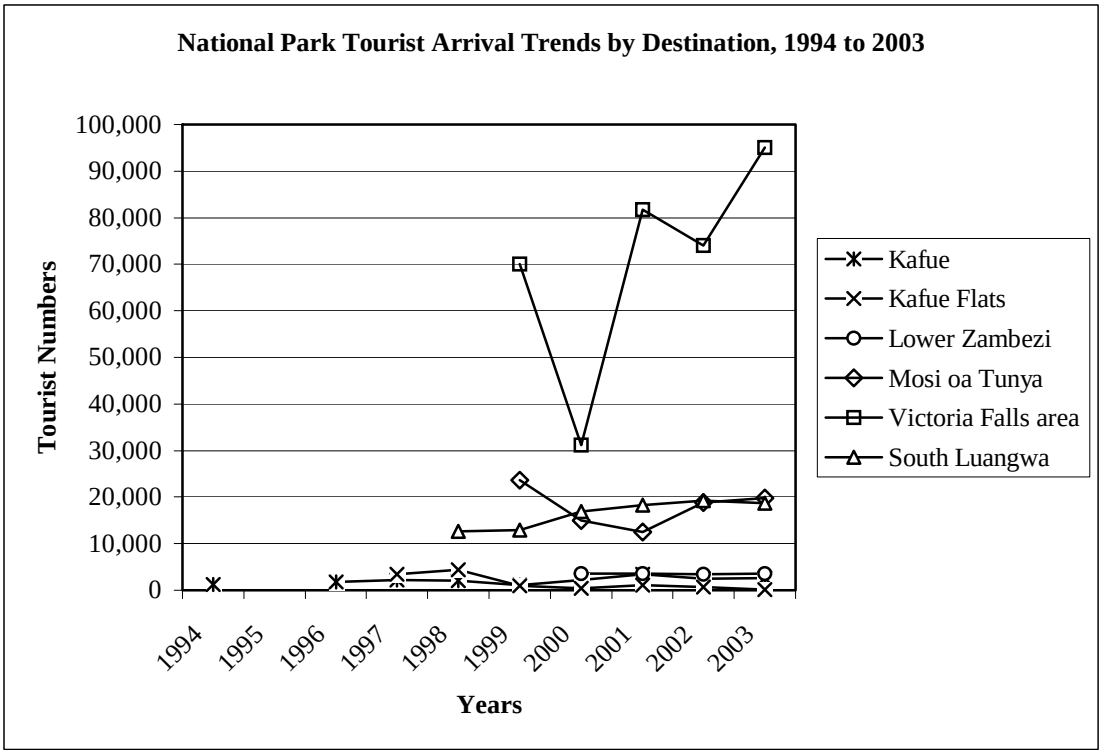
Table 2.3.2 National Park Tourist Arrival Trends by Destination, 1994 to 2003

Year	Kafue	Kafue Flats	Lower Zambezi	Mosi oa Tunya	Victoria Falls area	South Luangwa
1994	1,303					
1995						
1996	1,850					
1997	2,133	3,440				
1998	2,086	4,401				12,699
1999	1,076	960		23,608	70,075	12,893
2000	2,200	444	3,503	14,998	31,248	16,837
2001	3,390	1,034	3,532	12,433	81,755	18,241
2002	2,494	658	3,446	18,792	74,076	19,253
2003	2,619	162	3,631	19,712	95,076	18,712

Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

The huge contribution of the Victoria Falls as a tourism destination is clearly apparent from Figure 2.3.2.

Figure 2.3.2 National Park Tourist Arrival Trends by Destination, 1994 to 2003



Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

2.4 National Tourism Indicators

A broad look at the trends in the tourism sector is shown in Table 2.4.1 and Figure 2.4.1. According to MTENR data, employment in the sector grew by 30% between 1999 and 2001. Room and bed occupancy rates also increased significantly (40.4% and 12.3%, respectively), whereas the number of rooms only increased by 2.1% - suggesting that the current emphasis is on filling existing surplus room and bed night capacity.

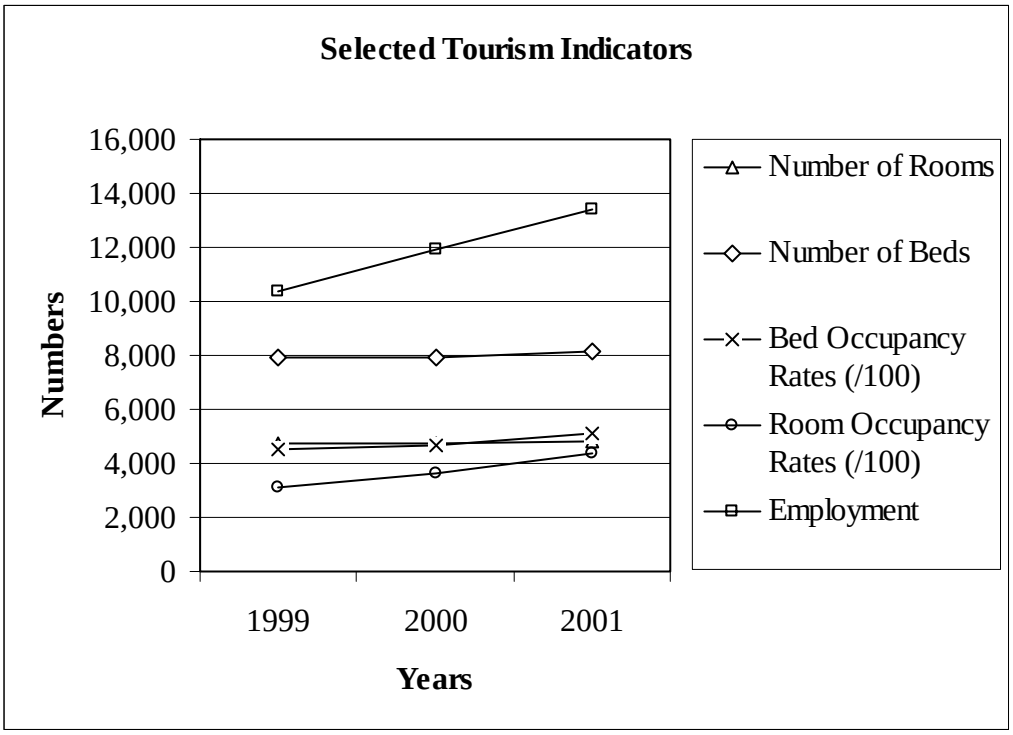
Table 2.4.1 Trends in Selected National Tourism Indicators, 1999 to 2003

	1999	2000	2001	% Growth
Number of Rooms	4,721	4,744	4,822	2.14%
Number of Beds	7,892	7,920	8,136	3.09%
Room Occupancy Rates (/100)	3,120	3,650	4,380	40.38%
Bed Occupancy Rates (/100)	4,550	4,640	5,110	12.31%
Employment	10,340	11,892	13,444	30.02%

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources, 2004

Data from the LSA area exceeds these growth trends by a significant amount, indicating that after the Livingstone area, the South Luangwa is the next key driver supporting national tourism development.

Figure 2.4.1 Trends in Selected National Tourism Indicators, 1999 to 2003



Source: Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources, 2004

Table 2.4.2 shows tourism-related contributors to GDP. Overall growth in tourism-related revenue contributions has grown at more than 10% per annum since 2001.

Table 2.4.2 Trends in Annual Tourism-Related Direct Revenue Generation (US$), 1999 to 2003

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Sector	**Direct Revenue Generation (US$)**				
Accommodation	33,740,053	41,777,631	44,145,363	50,656,679	56,132,100
Travel	25,812,144	32,877,990	34,741,338	39,865,586	44,174,611
Tours	15,190,526	19,316,246	20,410,988	23,421,550	25,953,158
Car Hire	8,626,661	10,960,736	11,581,932	13,290,234	14,726,760
Other	4,649,919	5,845,855	6,177,167	7,088,281	7,854,445
Total	**88,019,303**	**110,778,457**	**117,056,787**	**134,322,330**	**148,841,075**

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources, 2004

Other economic data suggest that the GDP contribution from restaurants, bars and hotels (the secondary economic production classification for tourism) has increased (at current prices) from ZMK 36.1 billion in 1994, to 145.6 billion in 1999, and ZMK 651.6 billion in 2004, representing a percentage GDP contribution increase from 1.85% to 2.77% and an overall growth of 95.82% at constant prices (Central Statistical Office, 2004). As noted in section 2.5, below, after the correct analysis of multipliers, the actual contribution may be significantly higher.

2.5 Tourism and Poverty Reduction/Livelihood Enhancement

An important side issue to emerge from global tourism statistics is that 80% of the world's poor people (earning less than US$ 1 per day) live in just 12 countries. In 11 of these countries tourism is significant and/or growing (DfID, 1999). As Zambia is one of these 12 countries, the impact of tourism on the economy could be very significant.

Unfortunately the nature of statistics management in the tourism sector to date has not been adequate enough to track real economic impacts. Given the strong cross- and inter-sectoral linkages of the tourism sector a system of tourism satellite accounts has been recommended for some time. The current growth in tourism makes it is essential that these statistical systems (or simplified variants) are introduced now and used – possibly supported by funding from and contributions to the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and National Development Plan process. Such data will be invaluable for more effective tourism planning and the avoidance and/or alleviation of the several possible negative impacts of rapid tourism growth.

As an example of the positive impact of tourism satellite account (TSA) analysis (using World Tourism Organisation methods), the tourism sector in the Dominican Republic increased its recognised contribution to GDP from a previously recorded 4% to over 20% - that resulted in associated policy changes. Clearly knowledge of such multiplier impacts is crucial to the rational allocation of development resources at a national level (Christie and Crompton, 2001).

The next chapter examines the historical and present roles of the Luangwa Valley in Zambia's tourism development process, a review that brings out some key success factors as well as identifying the downstream impacts of tourism on communities.

3. Tourism Development in the South Luangwa National Park and Environs

3.1 Origins to Tourism Development in the South Luangwa National Park Area

The South Luangwa National Park was established in 1971 following the earlier establishment of Controlled Hunting Areas and the South Luangwa Game Reserve in 1938. The Department of Game and Fisheries established the first small self-catering camps before the creation of the national park. They were at Nsefu in 1949 (in the Nsefu Game Reserve) and then at Chilongozi (in the south) in 1955, followed by Big Lagoon (in the north) in 1957. The Old Mfuwe camp (in the centre) was opened in 1960. The camps were linked by a system of seasonal graded roads and pontoons across the river.

Before Independence in 1964, tourism into the SLNP area was almost entirely domestic, expatriate in origin and self-catering. Tourism numbers were small, drawn mainly from self-driven family groups holidaying from the farming blocks at Chipata, Mazabuka and Mkushi, businesses in Lusaka, or the mines on the Copperbelt. A few international tourists from Malawi (Nyasaland at the time), Tanzania and elsewhere paid occasional visits. Access into the National Park was still via seasonal pontoons at Chibembe, Mfuwe and Lusingazi.

The situation then gradually expanded with the further development of the Big Lagoon and Lion self-catering camps in the north of the National Park and catering lodges opening, first with a replacement for the self-catering camp on the Mfuwe lagoon, and later another at Chibembe, outside the national park (in the north). The camp at Chilongozi was progressively destroyed by Luangwa River bank erosion and was not replaced.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's Government investment was a major driver, with the Zambia National Tourist Board Luangwa Valley Tourism Scheme resulting in:

i) the Mfuwe pontoon being replaced by a bridge to improve access into the National Park;
ii) the Mfuwe airport being constructed in 1975, 28km east of the bridge on non-flooding land;
iii) bitumen standard roads being constructed from the airport to the bridge and 3.3 km southwards towards a proposed 200 bed hotel at Chinzombo;
iv) 27 km of gravel road (and some major bridges) being constructed from Mfuwe to the President's Hill lodge site at Chichele, and 10 km of associated seasonal spur roads;
v) an 11 kV power line being extended from the airport and Masumba to the Chichele lodge site;
vi) National Hotels Corporation (NHC) lodges being developed at Mfuwe (1966), Luamfwa (1967) and Chichele (1972); and
vii) cropping roads were also developed in the northern part of the National Park (the 04 and 05 roads), producing a total road network of some 400 km (Petit and Partners, 1989).

In the mid-1980's a policy prohibiting permanent tourism structures within national parks was introduced - that resulted in new camps developing on the east bank of the Luangwa River in the Lupande Game Management Area (GMA), at Kapani, and Schultz' Camp. In the 1990's more of these camps developed in the GMA, until the privatisation of NHC transferred their properties in national parks to the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS).

At this stage, in the latter half of the 1990's, the no developments in national parks policy was reversed and the Chichele, Luamfwa and Mfuwe lodges were all transferred into long ZAWA leases with private companies. There has since been a proliferation of seasonal bush camps inside the national park, together with the refurbishment of more established camps (Kakuli, Kiangu, Lion, and Muchenja). Some of these, particularly Mfuwe and Lion are substantial structures. There has also been significant growth in camps in the GMA, mostly in the vicinity of Mfuwe, but with some further afield.

Table 3.1.1 lists all photographic and cultural tourism camps in the immediate vicinity of the SLNP (excluding the Luambe National Park). There are 398 beds available at present, plus a further 210 camp site beds – giving a total potential overnight accommodation of 608 visitors. 33% of the accommodation is only available in the five dry season months. Factors determining this situation are discussed next.

Table 3.1.1 Classification of Photographic Tourist Facilities in and Around the South Luangwa National Park

Name	**Lodge**	**Permanent Camp**	**Seasonal Camp**	**Bush/Fly Camp**	**Camp Site**
	No. of Visitor Beds				
National Park					
West bank semi-wilderness zone (north)					
Chikoko camp				12/12	
Crocodile camp				12/12	
Kasansanya bush camp				6/6	
Mupupadzi walking camps				6/6	
Mupumadzi public camp site					12/0
Sub-total	*0/0*	*0/0*	*0/0*	*36/36*	*12/0*
West bank conservation low-use zone (north)					
Big Lagoon camp			12/0		
Kaingo camp			12/12		
Upper Mwamba bush camp				6/6	
Muchenja camp			6/6		
Old Lion camp			16/16		
Sub-total	*0/0*	*0/0*	*46/34*	*6/6*	*0/0*

Name	Lodge	Permanent Camp	Seasonal Camp	Bush/Fly Camp	Camp Site
West bank conservation general use zone (central)					
Chichele lodge	20/20				
Island Camp				6/6	
Kakuli camp			10/10		
Lubi bush camp				6/6	
Nsolo bush camp				6/6	
Mfuwe lodge	36/36				
Puku Ridge camp		12/12			
Zebra Plains bush camp				6/0	
Sub-total	*56/56*	*12/12*	*10/10*	*24/18*	*0/0*
West bank conservation low-use zone (south)					
Chamilandu bush camp				6/6	
Kapamba camp			12/0		
Kuyenda/Manzi bush camp				6/6	
Lower Kapamba bush camp				6/0	
Lower Kapamba bush camp				6/0	
Chindeni bush camp				8/8	
Bilimungwe trails camp				8/8	
Middle Kapamba camp site					12/0
Panza bush camp				6/0	
Upper Kapamba bush camp				6/0	
Upper Kapamba bush camp				6/0	
Upper Kapamba bush camp				6/0	
Upper Lubi public camp site					12/0
Upper Manzi bush camp				6/0	
Sub-total	*0/0*	*0/0*	*12/0*	*70/28*	*24/0*
West bank wilderness zone (south)					
Muchinga lodge	100/0				
Sub-total	*100/0*	*0/0*	*0/0*	*0/0*	*0/0*
East bank conservation low-use zone (north)					
Nsefu camp			12/12		
Tena Tena camp			8/8		
Baka Baka bush camp				6/0	
Baka Baka bush camp				6/0	
Sub-total	*0/0*	*0/0*	*20/20*	*12/0*	*0/0*
East bank conservation low-use zone (south)					
Luamfwa lodge		16/16			
Sub-total	*0/0*	*16/16*	*0/0*	*0/0*	*0/0*
Sub-Total National Park	**156/56**	**28/28**	**88/64**	**148/88**	**36/0**
Total National Park	**456/236**				

Name	Lodge	Permanent Camp	Seasonal Camp	Bush/Fly Camp	Camp Site
Lupande GMA					
Upper Lupande					
Chipembe			12/0		
Tafika			10/10		
Luangwa River lodge		12/12			
Sub-total	*0/0*	*12/12*	*22/10*	*0/0*	*0/0*
Lower Lupande					
Chinzombo camp		16/0			
Flatdogs camp		16/16			130/130
Kafunta camp		16/16			
Kapani camp		20/20			
Kawaza cultural village			8/8		
Lukonde camp		12/12			
Marula camp		20/20			
Nkwali camp		16/16			
Tundwe camp		12/0			
Wildlife camp	32/32				80/80
Sub-total	*32/32*	*128/112*	*8/8*	*0/0*	*210/210*
Sub-Total GMA	**32/32**	**140/112**	**30/18**	**0/0**	**210/210**
Total GMA	**412/372**				
Total Beds by Category	**188/88**	**168/140**	**118/82**	**148/88**	**246/210**
Total Available Beds	**868/608**				
Only Dry Season Beds	**0/0**	**28/28**	**118/82**	**148/88**	**36/0**
Total Only Dry Season Beds	**330/198**	**32.6%**			

Sources: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004; South Luangwa Draft National Park General Management Plan, 1999 (Note – data for actual beds from camps operating in 2004).

3.2 Geographical and Infrastructural Considerations

The Luangwa valley is part of a down-faulted rift valley system that is characterised in this centre by predominantly soft, and often saline, sedimentary formations, overlaid by alluvial material deposited in river terraces. For the most part the landscape is fragile and easily eroded. Combined with a highly variable river flow regime, subject to frequent wet season over-bank flooding, constant mobility in the main river channels, and the natural herringbone pattern of tributary drainage flowing off the harder, metamorphic valley escarpments into the Luangwa River, infrastructure development is problematic. Road route planning is difficult, road and drainage construction expensive, and these structures are themselves also potentially causative factors in further soil erosion.

These geomorphic characteristics create other complications to tourism development. Many of the alluvial deposits are heavy montmorillonite clays making all weather road access difficult. Soils high in sodium content are widespread in the Luangwa System. These are prone to structural collapse, often leading to piping and gulleying (Dalal-Clayton et.al., 1984; Sterling University, 1988).

The Luangwa River has a steeper average profile than other major rivers in Zambia. This factor, combined with a large catchment area (some 56,000 km^2 above the Mfuwe bridge), variable rainfall over the catchment and erodible soils creates both a highly variable flow regime and a very high silt load.

The fluctuation in river height at the Mfuwe bridge is approximately 5m over the year (Petit and Partners, 1989). Three major left bank tributaries (the Lukasuzi, Musandile and Lupande) are of sufficient size to form further barriers to east bank access in the wet season. The Mupumadzi, Kapamba and Lusiwasi create similar obstacles on the west bank.

Because of the high fluctuations in flow regime, high organic matter content of the water (animal waste and flood detritus) and high silt load, water supplies, whether for potable, general domestic or agricultural use, are difficult to secure. Furthermore, the tributaries of the Luangwa are mostly ephemeral and only abstractable in the wet season. Water supply difficulties are further compounded by the geological base, resulting in numerous brackish ground water aquifers.

Air transport is somewhat simpler. The Mfuwe International Airport provides very adequate tourism arrival and transit facilities in present circumstances, and other earth strips in the area provide local seasonal access, albeit subject to local river erosion.

But two other major pre-requisites for tourism development have posed other, but significant constraints – energy supplies and telecommunications.

No tourist operation away from the immediate environs of Mfuwe has access to mains electricity. Those sites are thus dependent on a combination of fire wood, solar power and kerosene or diesel for heating, refrigeration, lighting and cooking - at a considerable cost overhead.

Tourism establishments close to Mfuwe do have access to mains electricity. But because the consumption area is a considerable distance from the point of generation and from the national grid, and demand growth in the Mfuwe area is high, supplies are frequently interrupted. Back-up generating capacity is thus an essential requirement – an expensive redundancy for smaller operations.

While supply reliability appears to be improving there would seem to be no systematic quality assurance system in operation and the power management system is still centralised in Lusaka, precluding immediate, appropriate local power management solutions (LSA pers. comm., 2005).

Poor telecommunications is perhaps the most significant constraint on tourism growth, because it is so essential to marketing and safety support. All operations in the Luangwa valley area have access to reliable battery-based VHF radio communications. The telephone and internet systems are more problematic.

Mfuwe has a digital telephone exchange operated by the parastatal Zamtel, with national and international dialling capacities. In 2004 the provider commissioned an effective radio telephone system in the Mfuwe area, coupled to the digital exchange.

The exchange is still subject to frequent breakdowns, partly because of logistical reasons, but more importantly because it is at the end of a long microwave communication system stretching from Lusaka, through Chipata. Any breakdown in that microwave transmitting system automatically results in failure of the regional dialing facility to or from the Mfuwe exchange.

As a result of these uncertainties many tourist operators have had to invest in expensive satellite communications systems, especially for their internet-based booking and marketing systems.

As is the case with the electricity supply system, the perception of users is that the reliability and capacity of telecommunications systems appear to be improving, but there is no systematic provider quality assurance targeting and monitoring system.

Cell phone facilities now also appear to be a possibility in the near future. This will be a welcomed development but may exacerbate existing sensitivities about the visual impact of transmitter masts. One large, existing telephone mast is located beside the main tourist access road in the National Park and is an unnecessary visual eyesore. Mechanisms should be identified to remove or reduce these negative impacts through consultation and more careful tower location analysis.

3.3 Social and Cultural Considerations

3.3.1 Demography

Zambia has a significant level of general unemployment (12.9%) and it is thought that the level of real unemployment (i.e. those not in permanent employment) is even higher. Hence any area providing employment opportunities is a natural drawing card for economic migration.

Population growth in the Mfuwe area cannot be fully quantified because of statistical limitations, but some interesting data do exist. All the following material is drawn from the various reports of the 2000 Census of Population and Housing of the Central Statistical Office (CSO) (Central Statistical Office, 2003).

To those visiting the Mfuwe area over the last ten years the population of the greater Mfuwe area (an arbitrary area bounded east and west by the airport and the Mfuwe bridge and north and south by the Musandile River and Kapani Lodge) appears to have grown significantly. As there has been a similar growth in the number and size of tourist business in the area a correlation would appear to exist between population growth and employment opportunities.

In fact, the 2000 census indicates that the population of Mambwe District declined between the 1990 and 2000 census years by 12,640 to 47,376. It also shows that the 1990 – 2000 population growth rate for the district was only 1.6% - well below the nation average of 2.5%.

Further, in 2000, the populations of the Kakumbi and Nsefu constituencies that cover the main Mfuwe area totalled only 8,681 – indicating that 82% of the Mambwe District population lived elsewhere (i.e. away from the immediate Mfuwe area).

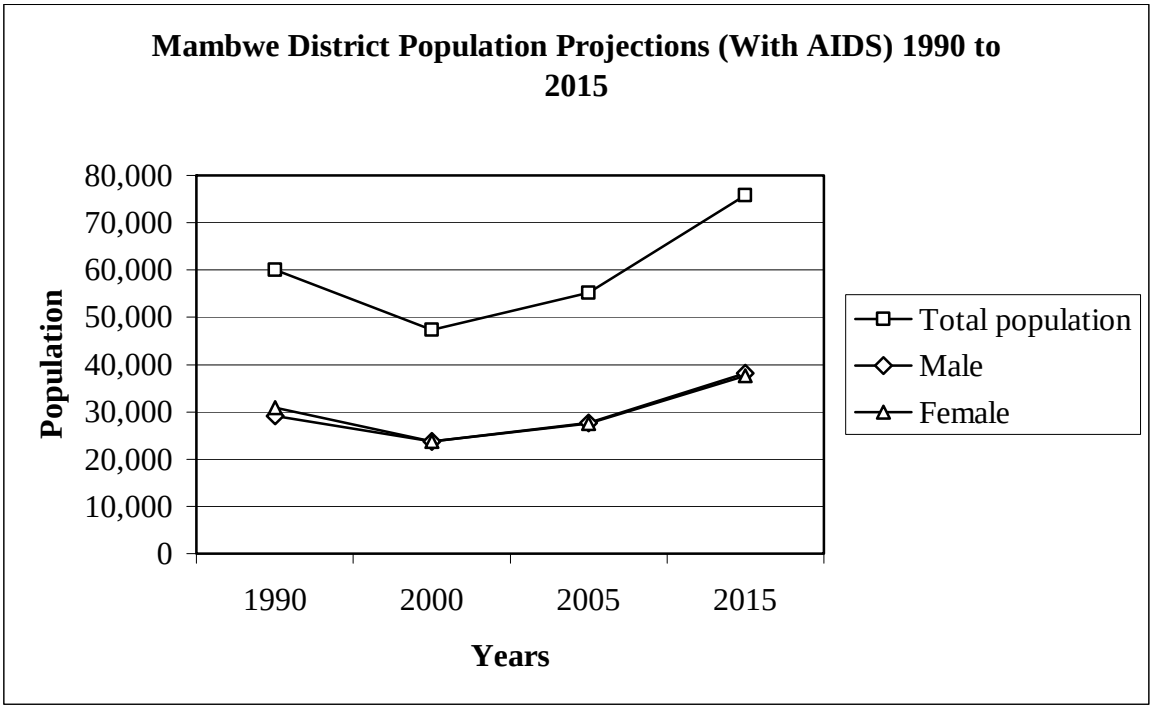
But there are conflicting data. Year 2000 census migration statistics show that over 28% of the Mambwe population was not born there (i.e. migrated into the area). This is nearly twice the figure for Eastern Province as a whole and more than the national average of 26.6%, and was combined with a net immigration of economically active and retirement age groups. It is not possible to identify the constituency within which these migrants are located but given the proliferation of employment opportunities, it would seem likely that a large proportion of them are in the Mfuwe area.

Overall the statistics present an apparently confusing picture. One set of data suggest a net immigration into the Mfuwe area is likely, the other, that over the inter-censal period 12,000 people left the Mambwe District. Further analysis and data collection is required to map local population trends more accurately.

The CSO population projections indicate that, including consideration of the AIDS pandemic and in spite of the 1990 – 2000 inter-censal decline, the Mambwe District population will reach 55,000 in 2005 and nearly 76,000 by 2015 (see Figure 3.3.1). The growth trend reversal is unexplained and flies in the face of a presently declining population.

But with household numbers projected to decline over the projection period to about 5, if the projections prove accurate, the provision of an additional 4,000 houses will be required by 2015. Assuming these are all in a contiguous area, planning provision needs to be made for approximately 500 ha of urban development. Unfortunately no data exist to verify or reject the 2005 projection target.

Figure 3.3.1 Population Growth Trends in the Mambwe District, 1990 to 2015



Source: Central Statistical Office, 2003

3.3.2 Other Social and Cultural Issues

3.3.2.1 Urban Development

Notwithstanding the demographic statistics, urban sprawl in the Mfuwe area has developed a semi-continuous ribbon of settlement and retail activity between the Mfuwe airport and the main southern road near the Mfuwe bridge. All of this development is unplanned, although a development plan is currently in preparation. Given consideration of the likely future population growth in the area, and the conflicts that can develop between tourism objectives and urban development, formal urban planning is now urgently needed if all sectors of the Mfuwe community are to benefit from continued, non-conflicting economic growth.

3.3.2.2 Energy Demand

Recent studies have indicated that an average household consumes approximately 2.5 50kg bags of charcoal, or equivalent fuel wood, per month (Forestry Support Programme, 2004). Assuming a current population of the Mfuwe area of around 10,000 people, equivalent to around 1,500 households, and that 98% of them use wood-based cooking and heating energy sources, this requires an annual charcoal-equivalent energy supply of 43,000 bags.

Put into tree use terms (and 94% of the Mambwe population used wood fuel for cooking and 27% use charcoal for heating), this is equivalent to some 22,000 trees per annum, or approximately 80ha of woodland removal per year. As fuel wood removal is done selectively, favouring the Mopane tree, the incremental impact of this fuel demand is, and will be a considerable and growing threat to the local environment.

But with the linear pattern of settlement in the Mfuwe area along the main electricity way leave, and an increasing number of installed transformers (although only 4% of the Mambwe population officially have some access to electricity), future options should consider increasing access to electrification for domestic consumers in the area. Some caution is necessary to ensure that current levels of supply failure do not increase as a result of the increased demand.

3.3.2.3 Protein Demand

Traditionally the nutrition of the peoples of the Luangwa Valley combined a measure of rain-fed cultivation with protein supplied by fish, domestic livestock and hunted antelope. As population densities have increased, so pressure on cultivated land and on protein sources has increased. Concern existed in 1988 about the impact of farming on woodland removal and resultant soil erosion (Sterling University, 1988). Those concerns have increased and been exacerbated by the expansion of mono cropped cotton as cash crop with a well developed infrastructure. Further difficulties result from the continuing use of unsuitable hybrid maize varieties.

The soil erosion threat is only one of the major livelihood-based environmental threats. Both ZAWA and the South Luangwa Conservation Society report over-fishing (with small diameter nets) and increased poaching as other problems that have been heightened by population growth in the Mfuwe area and improved access for traders from Chipata (pers. comm.., 2004).

Both of these threats need close examination to identify realistic future options. Fish farming is a possibility in areas where water can be retained for long periods, or perennial flows exist. Increased animal husbandry of domesticated species is another option, with poultry, pigs and goats (in carefully controlled situations).

Further options exist with husbandry of wild species (cane rats) and game ranching. Given the current policy constraint on game ranches in Game Management Areas (GMAs), this option will need detailed assessments, planning proposals and viability studies before it can be formally considered. But existing policy statements should not be used to limit growth unnecessarily in this crucial area. Further analysis and consultation is recommended.

3.3.2.4 Human/Wild Animal Conflicts

Conflicts will always exist between wild animals and humans, partly because of compression forces on existing animal range areas, but also from "rogue" animal situations. The issue is traditionally seen from a perspective of "we are forced to live with wild animals in GMAs, therefore the state should pay compensation for loss of life or property caused by them".

Underlying this position is the limited user rights to the wildlife resource so far accorded to those living in GMAs.

For GMAs, future progress will only be achieved when a mutually agreed tenure arrangement can be reached between the wildlife managing/regulating agency and those living in those areas. A downstream benefit of such an arrangement is likely to be a comparative valuation of the costs and benefits of individual GMAs pursuing chosen development strategies. Downstream of those decisions it is likely that strategies will evolve that will: a) minimising wild animal/human conflicts (zoning, fencing and other approaches); and b) agree compensation schedules that recognise both the costs and the benefits to the community of maintaining wildlife resources.

The allocation of responsibility for the costs of such arrangements and the development of monitoring and management mechanisms, will require debate that is based on transparent and well argued/researched information.

This process will take some time and is critically dependent on policy decisions that are notoriously slow. In the interim an improved arrangement must be established that:

i) adequately and rapidly compensates justified cases of wild animal damage;

ii) provides immediate responses to crop damage/loss of life caused by hungry/rogue animals by removing or excluding the animal(s) actually causing the problem - and not any animal that happens to be in the vicinity when action is eventually taken. Both i) and ii) can only be achieved through a system of well monitored decentralised authority that involves CRB participation.

3.3.2.5 Education Facilities and Trends

Demographic material that should be of considerable interest to employers and policy makers is that literacy rates in Eastern Province are the lowest in the country (at 37.9%; national average 55.3%) and the lowest percentage attending school (17.7%; national average 25.8%). These trends apply across all the educational levels (pre-school, basic, primary and secondary). The national average literacy rate in rural areas is 44.7% compared to 71.5% in urban areas. If the same percentages are applied in the Mambwe area then a literacy level of only 23.7% applies. This clearly has significant implications for training into the tourism industry in the coming years.

3.3.2.6 Water, Sanitation and Health Facilities

The previous section has elaborated the poor state of educational statistics in the Mambwe area. Other social infrastructure is of equal concern. The 2000 census data indicate that only 38.7% of the Mambwe population have access to safe water. Only 2.9% have proper toilets. In these circumstances disease-related morbidity becomes a significant factor in labour productivity.

3.3.2.7 Health Issues

Work in the Mfuwe area has identified it as a "hot spot" for the HIV/AIDS/Tuberculosis/Malaria disease complex. This combination of diseases is already a significant constraint, not just to productivity, but also to the cost of maintaining trained tourism staff.

Several HIV/Aids programme have been active in the Mfuwe area for several years, but it is in the interests of all sectors of the community, including potential employers, to continue an active and far-sighted investment in addressing the pandemic.

3.3.2.8 Recreational Facilities

General recreational facilities (restaurants, bars, curio shops) are slowly developing in quality and diversity, but still offer limited resources for residents and tourists. This is an area of considerable opportunity, aligned with the diversification of the tourism product. The promotion of cultural tourism with its direct transfer of tourism revenues into poorer communities is just one such opportunity.

3.3.2.9 Cultural Impacts

Statistical sources indicate that over 28% of the Mambwe District population are immigrants. Given continued growth of the tourism sector this figure is likely to rise. A serious challenge then exists to maintain the cultural identity of the indigenous Kunda customs and traditions, for reasons of both cultural coherence and the development of cultural tourism opportunities. Tourism codes of practice will be a crucial contributor to this objective.

3.3.2.10 District Planning and Management

The Mambwe District is a relatively new entity and it faces the same constraints as other councils – a demand for service delivery in the absence of a well articulated, or developed revenue base. The government again reaffirmed its commitment to the National Decentralisation Policy in 2004, but until that affirmation creates positive impacts on district governance and funding, the impact on tourism development will be negligible or negative.

In spite of these constraints there are three priority areas where some progress can be made by the Council, in:

i) improved urban and rural planning and coordination;

ii) a more integrated and coordinated approach to district taxation/levies (developed from a full understanding of the existing level of taxation on tourism enterprises); and

iii) improved and more coordinated sub-district resource management (including the rationalisation of resource and other levies between the district council and the CRBs.

These issues are discussed further in Chapter 8.

3.3.2.11 Community-Based Organisations

Community-based organisations (CBOs) for natural resource management have been promoted in the wildlife sector since 1982 by the ADMADE Programme and its successors.

More recently policy proposals have been established for community-linked collaborative management of forest reserves. These initiatives have achieved limited success to date, principally because of a reluctance by government institutions to delegate real responsibility to CBOs.

This has been in part related to concerns about sharing regulatory revenues and partly because of a perceived and frequently real inherent weakness in administrative capacity at the CBO level.

Further complication have been:

i) the slow emergence of a coordinated approach to natural resource management at the district level, in spite of the theoretical existence of District Development Coordinating Committees and their associated sub-committees and

ii) changing policies on the roles of traditional rulers in natural resources management.

In the SLNP area the latter problem has been particularly real. Successive political, government and project administrations have varied the importance attached to traditional rulers, resulting in yo-yoed expectations and downstream conflict situations.

In a tourism context, this has impacted negatively on a variety of areas, ranging from policies and planning perspectives in the allocation of land along the Luangwa River, to approaches to levying charges for the use of natural resources in the GMA (sand, stone, thatch and wood).

In the absence of formally agreed policies, these issues have created difficulties and economic inefficiencies for all the players in this arena: communities, chiefs, government institutions, the district council, tourism operators and tourists, and will continue to do so if not addressed with some urgency.

The overall objective of this report is to identify positive and sustainable mechanisms through which tourism can continue to grow in the LSA area while simultaneously mitigating possible negative effects. Given the historical development of tourism in the Luangwa Valley, there are four considerations that need careful examination if an effective vision is to be created and turned into reality. These relate to a) tourism trends in the LSA area; b) the effects of competition from regional and other national tourism operators; c) the interaction of hunting and photographic tourism in Zambia; and d) tourisms financial and economic effects. These subjects are evaluated in the next four chapters.

4. Consideration 1 - Tourism Trends in the Luangwa Safari Association Area

4.1 Sources of Information

Few tourism statistics are routinely collected in the SLNP area. Thus far neither the Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ), nor its local member organisation, the LSA, has the infrastructure to collect statistics on a routine basis.

Both the Department of Tourism in the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources (MTENR) and ZAWA do collect tourism statistics. The former collects tourist information sheets from hotels, guest houses, lodges and camps but is not yet able to produce disaggregated statistical summaries. The latter collects both park entry data and hunting statistics. Finally the Central Statistical Office collects data from points of entry to Zambia and produces global tourism statistics. None of these organisations routinely analyses statistical data, and those data are in any case insufficiently detailed to allow it. Frequently data disseminated by the different institutions are inconsistent.

Given these limitations, the conclusions reached in this study must be seen as preliminary. The corollary is that there is an urgent need for an effective and comprehensive system of tourism statistical collection and analysis to be established, preferably in a tourism satellite accounts (TSA) format. The TSA example from the Dominican Republic mentioned in section 2.5 warrants serious consideration given the national target of 10% of GDP to be derived from Zambian tourism by 2010.

In the absence of detailed data, this study also collected information from LSA member companies directly. The summarised outputs from that analysis are presented in the next sections.

4.2 Tourism Arrivals

Zambia Wildlife Authority data indicate that there has been a significant increase in both tourist arrivals and tourist-related income generated by the South Luangwa National Park (see Table 4.2.1 and Figure 4.2.1).

Table 4.2.1 SLNP Tourist Arrival and National Park Entry Revenues, 1998 to 2003

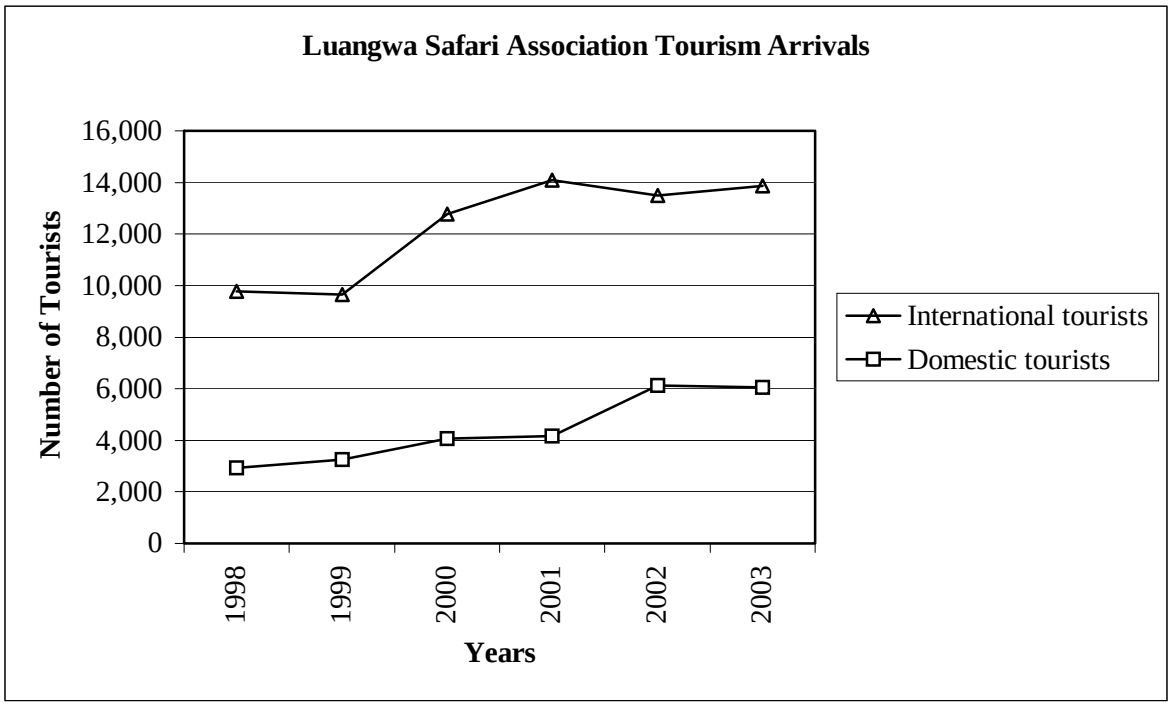
Tourist Arrivals								
	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	Totals	Growth (%)
International tourists	9,771	9,653	12,776	14,080	13,484	13,877	73,641	42.02%
Domestic tourists	2,928	3,240	4,061	4,161	6,124	6,063	26,577	107.07%
Total Tourists	12,699	12,893	16,837	18,241	19,608	19,940	100,218	57.02%

Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

It is interesting to note that while international tourists entering the national park have increased by 42% since 1998 to a 2003 total of nearly 14,000, domestic tourism has increased by 107% over the same period to a 2003 total of some 6,000 (see Figure 4.2.1).

While the East African tourism model is not advocated for Zambia, it is useful to bear in mind the quantitative differences. A useful comparison noted in the mid-1990's was of two similarly sized, lake biome-oriented, population-constrained, national parks, both similar distances from respective national capitals on similar roads. Lake Nakuru National Park in Kenya received in the region of 175,000 tourists per annum. Zambia's Lochinvar National Park, around 1,000. A comparison with tourist numbers in the SLNP to-day indicates that, provided there is careful distribution of tourists away from the Mfuwe area, there is room for significant growth in tourist numbers.

Figure 4.2.1 Tourist Arrivals in the South Luangwa National Park, 1998 to 2003



Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2004

Overall there are approximately 608 beds and 65,000 bed nights available in the LSA area (including for a five month season for the 198 seasonal beds and assuming an average 10.5 month effective season for the rest).

Assuming all 608 potential bed night tourists are in the national park on a given day, and the national park area of 9,000 km^2, this produces a theoretical minimum unit area tourist density of 0.067 tourists per km^2/day. As only about 10% of the area is actually used this would increase to an average maximum of just less than 1 tourist/km^2/day (including some day visitors not over-nighting in the area). Clearly, in global terms the park is seriously underutilised and this warrants further consideration both in marketing a world-class product and in the fuller utilisation of the national park's different habitats.

Equally important is the need to improve statistical planning data for peak tourist densities, average and peak zone densities, time-related national park utilisation data (day and evening), and inter-visibility indices for high utilisation areas. This work would provide a better scientific understanding of high tourist transit and density "hot spots".

ZAWA's South Luangwa Area Management Unit (SLAMU) does collect seasonality and tourist and tourist vehicle entry and density statistics. These show that monthly international tourist numbers entering the National Park in 2001 showed a skewed distribution from less than 200 in January, to a peak of over 4,000 in August, declining to less than 700 in December. The peak months of June to October (both inclusive) all recorded more than 2,000 international tourist entries. These months coincide with maximum international tourist movements worldwide. Resident tourist arrivals for the same year showed a much smaller, but similar distribution, with no month recording more than 1,000 National Park entries (ZAWA, 2002).

Tourist vehicle density statistics from 1997 to 2002 on the 126km of game viewing roads in the Mfuwe area show that densities during morning game viewing drives never exceeded 0.33 vehicles per km of road (1998) and night densities never more than 0.15 vehicles per km (ZAWA, 2002). Interestingly the statistics show a slight decline in diurnal vehicle densities over the years, but a small but steady increase in nocturnal densities. All of the data have been recorded at the Mfuwe bridge entry point and are averaged over a day. In fact given the layout of the road network and the concentration of vehicles in the morning and late afternoon, actual vehicle densities must often be much higher.

An optimum vehicle density value suggested by Bell, 1989(in ZAWA, 2002) is 0.1 vehicles per km for high quality, low density tourism – indicating that if "the Luangwa Experience" is to be maintained as key drawing card in the fiercely competitive international tourist market, then mechanisms must be developed to address this issue. Particular attention needs to be paid to the fact that visitor densities vary significantly between the wet and dry months – although overall vehicle densities may not because of the reduced wet season road network. Some suggestions are developed in Chapter 8.

4.3 Tourism-Related Revenues from the SLNP

Table 4.3.1 indicates that Kwacha income generated by the Park increased by 108% between 1998 and 2003, but in Dollar terms that income declined by 13% over the period. Foreign exchange receipts by ZAWA increased by 78% over the period to nearly US$ 800,000 – roughly 12% per year. Overall tourist densities are low, but with improved marketing tourist numbers and, therefore, total revenues could demonstrate greater growth. Product diversification will be another mechanism for achieving this.

Table 4.3.1 National Park Entry Revenues, 1998 to 2003

Park Tourist-Related Income	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	% Change
ZMK	93,156,909	110,562,737	154,507,880	145,656,139	148,039,886	193,861,309	108.10%
US$ equivalent	49,487	45,738	45,443	39,367	37,010	43,080	-12.95%
Foreign currency (US$)	442,927	452,460	552,413	740,410	692,244	787,560	77.81%
Total Tourist Revenue (US$)	492,414	498,198	597,856	779,777	729,254	830,640	68.69%

Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

4.4 Bed Night Trends

The total number of bed nights available in the SLNP area from LSA members has increased from some 10,400 in 1990 to a total of 66,000 bed nights in 2003, an increase in average bed nights of approximately 58% (although it should be noted that some operations have closed or declined in the interim). The average increase is 4.5% per year, although the incremental addition of bed nights most dramatically increased after 1996 when major new investments were made in the area.

Total bed night utilisation for LSA members has increased from 4,596 in 1990 (an average occupancy of 44%), to 27,562 in 2003 (average occupancy 42%), a gross increase of bed nights of nearly 500% over the period from 1990. The figures exclude camping figures at Flatdogs and Wildlife Camp which increase the bed night provision (users of the Park) by a further possible 150+ per day. Where data are missing some actual bed nights are estimated. Table 4.4.1 and Figure 4.4.1 present these data.

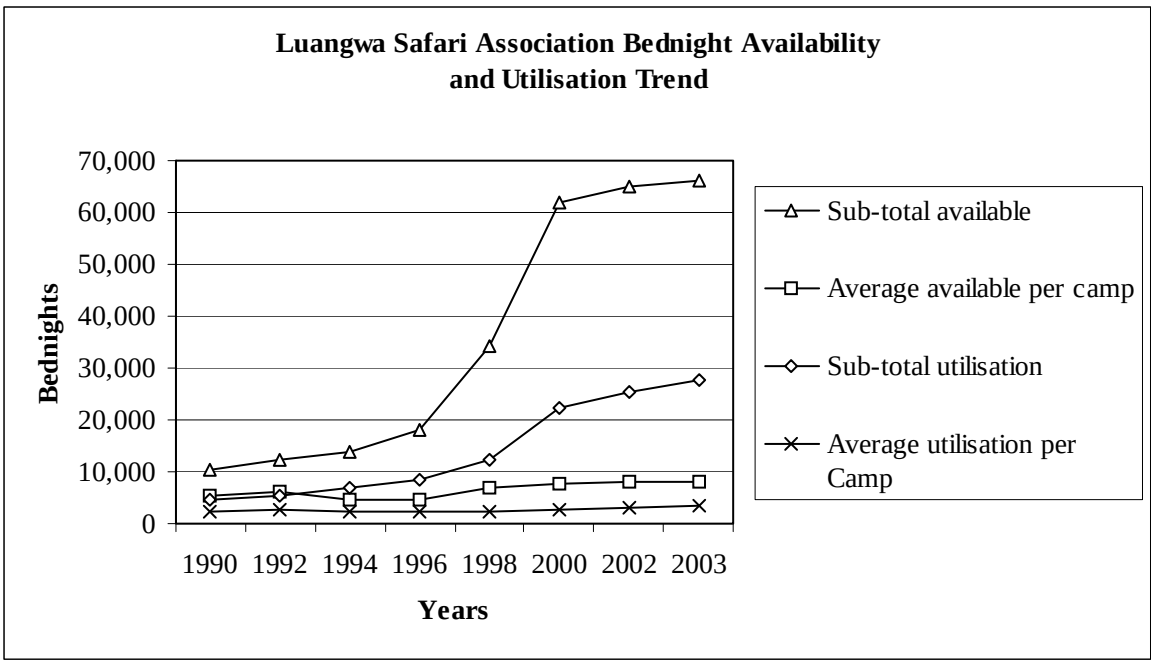
Clearly, accommodation availability is still far from being a limiting factor to tourism growth. Thus increasing bed night occupancy within the existing infrastructure should be a primary objective of the LSA. Increasing the number of tourism companies operating in the area will tend to reduce overall bed night occupancies and reduce profitability and therefore requires some forethought.

The existing statistics do not allow an availability and utilisation breakdown by type of accommodation offered (lodge, permanent camp, seasonal camp, bush camp, camp site) These bed night data would provide information on utilisation levels and investment effectiveness by type of accommodation. It is suggested that the LSA starts to collect these data (see Annex 1).

The data presented in this report exclude 2004 figures. Informal comment indicates that 2004 tourism arrivals in LSA accommodation may have increased from between 15% and 25%. If these figures are confirmed then it may warrant reconsideration of investment levels in some categories of accommodation. Table 3.3.1 earlier in this report indicated that all categories of accommodation have a similar planned provision level, but actual bed night availability in large lodges and fly/bush camps is well below provision level. This is in part related to the slow development of facilities in the south of the National Park.

Tourist operators invested heavily in new accommodation in the years after 1995. Since these facilities came on stream in the late 1990's, the growth in visitors the SLNP has increased overall by a steady 9% per annum. Overall average bed occupancies are still low (less than 50%) and even with the reported increase in bed nights in 2004, bed occupancies will still be below levels where real profitability can be assured. Introducing too many new beds in the short term will undermine profitability and growth, so extending the operating season and increasing booking efficiencies must be primary objectives for the LSA members.

Figure 4.4.1 Bed Night Availability and Utilisation, Luangwa Safari Association Members, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

Table 4.4.1 Bed Night Availability and Utilisation, Luangwa Tourism Association Members, 1990 to 2003

	1990	1992	1993	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002	2003		
Production											
Total available bednights										**%**	**%/annum**
Flatdogs							4,880	4,880	4,880		
Kafunta							5,840	5,840	5,840		
Lupande Safaris							11,520	11,520	11,520		
Mfuwe Trails						16,165	19,465	19,465	19,465		
Kapani Safari Lodge	8,576	8,576		8,576	8,576	8,576	7,664	9,124	9,124		
Remote Africa					2,658	2,940	2,940	4,650	4,650		
Robin Pope Safaris	1,830	3,660		4,020	5,484	5,480	7,310	7,310	8,107		
Shenton Safaris			720	1,200	1,200	1,200	2,400	2,400	2,400		
Sub-total available	**10,406**	**12,236**	**720**	**13,796**	**17,918**	**34,361**	**62,019**	**65,189**	**65,986**	534.11%	41.09%
Average available per camp	**5,203**	**6,118**	**720**	**4,599**	**4,480**	**6,872**	**7,752**	**8,149**	**8,248**	58.53%	4.50%
Total bednights recorded											
Flatdogs							2,874	2,669	2,952		
Kafunta							1,364	2,813	2,819		
Lupande Safaris							5,184	5,184	5,184		
Mfuwe Trails						3,600	4,150	5,440	5,710		
Kapani Safari Lodge	3,345	3,430		3,516	3,688	3,259	2,468	3,265	3,363		
Remote Africa					894	1,384	1,180	1,200	1,542		
Robin Pope Safaris	1,251	2,006		3,053	3,406	3,344	4,025	3,682	4,702		
Shenton Safaris			100	360	500	600	900	960	1,290		
Sub-total utilisation	**4,596**	**5,436**	**100**	**6,929**	**8,488**	**12,187**	**22,145**	**25,213**	**27,562**	499.70%	38.44%
Average utilisation per Camp	**2,298**	**2,718**	**100**	**2,310**	**2,122**	**2,437**	**2,768**	**3,152**	**3,445**	49.92%	3.84%

Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

5. Consideration 2 - Competition from Tourism Elsewhere in Zambia and the Region

5.1 Zambia's Tourism Areas

Zambia's tourism activities are presently grouped into three main clusters: Livingstone and the adjacent reaches of the Zambezi River; the Lower Zambezi National Park and its adjoining GMAs; and the Luangwa Valley.

Other secondary areas include the Kafue National Park, the Upper Zambezi Valley (including the Liuwa National Park), the Kafue Flats (the Blue Lagoon and Lochinvar National Parks and the Kafue Flats GMA), the Lake Kariba shoreline, the Bangweulu wetlands (particularly the Chikuni GMA), and the Lake Tanganyika area (particularly the Sumbu National Park and adjacent GMAs).

Business, and some recreational tourism are focussed on Lusaka and the main Copperbelt mining towns.

5.2 Competition from Tourism in Zambia's Main Tourism Circuits

Reliable, and particularly disaggregated, tourism data are scarce but each of the principal tourism areas is compared on available data to examine the competitive position of the LSA area and its operations.

5.2.1 Livingstone, the Victoria Falls, Zambezi Rapids and Gorges

The Livingstone area has experienced unprecedented tourism growth over the last seven years. It was identified as Zambia's principal tourism destination and international tourism drawing card in tourism studies in the late 1990's.

Table 5.2.1.1 shows the growth in accommodation facilities and employment between 1996 and 2003. There has been an average 17.3% growth in bed nights between 1996 and 2003 and a sustained growth in employment of nearly 10% per annum over the period.

Table 5.2.1.1 Growth in Tourist Beds and Employment in the Livingstone Area, 1996 to 2003

	1996	2003	% Growth	
			Total	Annual
Number of rooms	367	1,681	358%	17.3%
Number of beds	713	3,261*		
Employment	577	1,800+	212%	9.8%

* Estimate
Source: DSI, 2004

Table 5.2.1.2 illustrates the breakdown of tourism-related accommodation, employment and turnover in the Livingstone area.

Table 5.2.1.2 Breakdown of Tourism-Related Accommodation, Employment and Turnover in the Livingstone Area 2003

Type of Operation	Capacity	Employees	Turnover (US$)	%age of Total (US$)
Adventure trips	56,408 trips	373	1,783,680	6.25
Hotels/lodges/camps	994 rooms	1,013	25,454,292	89.18
Backpackers/campers	319 rooms	110	277,035	0.97
Guest houses	195 rooms	176	487,071	1.71
Hostels	173 rooms	131	450,052	1.58
Total	1,681 rooms	1,803	$28,543,129	100.00

Source: DSI, 2004

Extrapolated from the 2002/2003 data it is estimated that 2004 tourism operations in the Livingstone area offered some 3,400 beds and the area generated a total annual tourism turnover of just over US$ 30 million in 2004(DSI, 2004).

As Table 5.2.1.2 shows, the tourism product in Livingstone is diverse, ranging from a solid core of adventure tourism activities to up-market hotel accommodation and cultural and museum tourism. It offers opportunities to the full gamut of tourist categories from day visitors (from Zimbabwe and Botswana), to relatively low-priced backpacker and overland tourists, medium-priced package tourists (from South Africa), Zambian domestic tourists, and top-end wildlife-based multi-destination holidays.

The level of utilisation of the Livingstone area tourist resources has not been fully established. The National Heritage and Conservation Commission (NHCC) and ZAWA data indicate that there were 74,000 visitors to the NHCC-regulated Falls area and a further 19,000 visitors to the ZAWA Zoological Park (most of whom will be part of the 74,000 Falls visitors). The average bed night occupancy has also not been established, but indications suggest that it is the region of 50%. Total revenue to NHCC and ZAWA from tourist operations was US$ 765,586 in 2002.

Livingstone has a fully operational international airport capable of handling medium capacity long-haul and regional aircraft (80 to 250 seats), although there are some performance limitations imposed by the length of the runway. Currently up to four Boeing 737 or equivalent aircraft a day operate into the airport (from South Africa). Livingstone also has domestic airline connections with Lusaka and charter flight connections directly with the Kafue, and Lower Zambezi and Luangwa Valley national parks. The working capacity of the airport since its modernisation by the National Airports Corporation in the early 2000's has not been formally established, but this does not appear to be a limiting factor at present, nor will it be until additional bed capacity is available.

5.2.2 Lower Zambezi National Park

The Lower Zambezi National Park and the adjoining Chiawa and Rufunsa GMAs can offer up to 388 non-hunting tourist beds in 33 tourist camps and lodges. Only 11 of these are in the national park, with a further seven in the Rufunsa GMA. There are 22 tourism operations in the Chiawa GMA alone.

As most of the Lower Zambezi sites are seasonal, with an assumed five month operating period, there are approximately 58,200 annual bed nights available. While there has been growth in the market since the late 1990's, overall average bed nights are still low – indicating that many of the operations, particularly in the GMAs are still not full-time tourist business (see Table 5.2.2.1).

Table 5.2.2.1 Tourist Data for the Lower Zambezi Valley Area, 1998 and 2003

Year	Tourist Nos.	Bed Nights	Occupancy
1998	5,180	12,075	20.7%
2003	5,785	15,015	25.7%

Source: Lower Zambezi Tourist Operators Association, 2004

There are three road access routes into the National Park (from the west, north and east) and three non-permanent airfields inside or close to the National Park. Access, and particularly wet season access and travel remain as significant problems, exacerbated by the proximity of the Zambezi escarpment and the large number of water courses draining from it.

General economic operations of the area are compared with the LSA operations in Table 5.2.4.1 below. They indicate that given the number of operators that for seasonal, or other reasons, are operating significantly below capacity, the reported profitability per bed night of core operators is higher than LSA members. This may be in part the result of slightly lower operating costs.

5.2.3 Kafue National Park and Other Tourist Areas

The Kafue National Park has suffered from a serious decline in utilisation levels since the 1980's. In part this is due to poor road access through all eight entrance points (three in the north through the Kasonso-Busanga GMA, four in the centre from Lusaka and Mongu, Itezhi Tezhi and Namwala, and one in the south through Dundumwedze). This has been exacerbated by high levels of poaching, particularly in the remoter northern and southern areas – and the attendant discouragement of both tourists and investors.

Road access has improved in the last year from the Lusaka-Mongu trunk road and further improvements are expected to main routes through the National Park under the World Bank SEED Project. Air access is still a limitation, with only one permanent grass airfield (at Ngoma in the south) and two seasonal airfields at Chunga (in the centre) and Moshi (in the north). But bed night provisions remain low and are unlikely to improve before 2006.

Easily accessible tourist data are not available for the Kafue National Park and environs. There are only two functional (but seasonal) camps operating within the National Park at present, with a camp site attached to one camp and two independent bush camps. There is a one seasonal camp operating in the Kasonso-Busanga GMA north of the National Park, three permanent camps/lodges in the Mumbwa GMA to the east, and one permanent lodge and two permanent camps at Itezhi Tezhi. ZAWA is currently tendering and contracting a number of existing and new tourist sites in the National Park, including one major hotel site on Lake Itezhi Tezhi.

No reliable data could be accessed for bed night provisions, or utilisation levels. It is estimated that some 24,000 bed nights were available in and around the Kafue National Park in 2004 with around 6,000 to 7,000 bed nights being utilised.

ZAWA data indicate that only 2,619 tourists entered the National Park in 2003, suggesting that most of the bed nights were provided in the GMAs. All other data is in a form that cannot provide any meaningful comparison or analysis.

5.2.4 Competition From Other Tourist Areas

These circumstances also apply to all other tourism destinations: the North Luangwa National Park, upper Zambezi floodplain, the Kafue Flats, the Lake Kariba shoreline, the Lake Tanganyika area and business tourism in Lusaka and on the Copperbelt.

It is recommended that key stakeholders not only initiate mechanisms to collect tourism statistics for these areas in a more detailed and systematic basis, but also create vehicles through which such data can be easily accessed and used. There is a misplaced perception that such data should be confidential. While individual tourism enterprises may wish to maintain a degree of confidentiality on some of their data, the global national and regional data derived from the accumulation of information is absolutely essential for tourism planning and development, infrastructure expansion and promotional marketing.

Table 5.2.4.1 illustrates the relative performance of Zambia's three principal tourism areas: Livingstone, the South Luangwa and the Lower Zambezi. The data include estimations and require further verification, but some interesting statistics emerge. The extent to which tourist bed nights in one area are also reflecting in the others (i.e. how many tourists are on a circuit that includes all three destinations) is not known – but represents yet another avenue for further research.

Table 5.2.4.1 Comparative Performance of Zambia's Key Tourism Areas, 2003

	Livingstone	Lower Zambezi	South Luangwa
Beds Nights Available	1,186,250	58,200	65,986
Bed Nights Recorded	593,125	15,015	27,565
Occupancy Level	50.00%	25.80%	41.77%
Employment	1,803	435	504
Annual Turnover	$30,000,000	$2,172,000	$3,600,000
Turnover/Bed Night	51	145	131
Bed Night/Employee	329	35	55

Sources: LSA 2004, DSI 2004

5.2.5 Regional Tourism Competition

Chapter 2 established the extent of competition in the regional tourism market on a numerical basis. Other measures of how well Zambia compares with its neighbours should include some assessment of the following:

- the diversity of tourism facilities;
- the quality of the tourism experience
- the accommodation cost of the stay
- the regulatory cost of the tourism circuit.

Zambia has two major disadvantages compared to Tanzania, Kenya and South Africa in that it has no coastal leisure facilities and its key tourism attractions are widely spread. On other counts it is well placed and compared to Tanzania and Kenya entry into its national parks is still relatively cheap, peak tourist densities are low and night drives and walking safaris are still relatively innovative products.

But the regional tourism market is becoming increasingly competitive and diversified. The number of tourism products being offered in these countries is also increasing rapidly – all representing major threats to niche markets so far enjoyed by Zambia.

Addressing these threats in the future must lie in:

i) developing further innovations;

ii) enhancing the ease of access to Zambia's tourist attractions;

iii) carefully protecting a policy of low tourist densities in key areas;

iv) ensuring that international standards of tourist safety are provided (insurances, on-site safety, and security); and most of all

v) increasing the professionalism and quality of the service provided to tourists at every level (bookings, airline interface, immigration procedures, transfers, travel, accommodation, tourism services) through learning from regional neighbours.

It is in this last area where immediate action is needed to ensure that tourists arriving in Zambia are welcomed and assisted at every stage. Many small actions could contribute to this effort, ranging from encouraging airlines to broadcast up-to-date information and publicity on Zambia during their inbound flights, to developing tourist hosting capacity at airports and other points of entry, and undertaking visitor surveys (a simple card and a collecting box positioned in departure lounges has worked well elsewhere).

6. Consideration 3 - Hunting and Hunting-Related Tourism

Photographic/eco-tourism and hunting tourism in Zambia have traditionally been viewed as competitive industries. Probably as a consequence the LSA currently has no members from the safari hunting sector. Hopefully this will change as the two industries begin to appreciate that they have several areas of mutual interest and much to gain from an integrated approach to recreational land use in the SLNP and associated GMAs. The following material examines some of the these issues that have direct, or indirect impacts on tourism development in the LSA area.

6.1 Types of Hunting Activity

There are five categories of wildlife hunting in Zambia:

i) safari hunting (international safari rates);
ii) national hunting (for those resident in Zambia);
iii) district hunting (theoretically for those resident in the GMAs and Open Areas);
iv) special hunting licenses (for research, special traditional occasions, international dignitaries and the like, and
v) illegal subsistence or commercial hunting (poaching).

6.1.1 Safari Hunting

Safari hunting by foreign or local tourists is provided through a system of safari hunting licenses. Safari hunting is managed by outfitters and their professionally licensed hunters. The regulatory environment distinguishes between concession licenses – giving access to a GMA, species licenses for animals hunted, bird licenses for bird hunting, and hunting rights – for hunts in other concessions.

Safari hunting comprises a mixture of “classic” hunts (which include a bag of animals that traditionally includes lion, leopard, buffalo and plains antelope), and mini-hunts (with a bag of plains game that excludes lion and leopard).

Safari hunting has traditional contributed approximately 90% of all hunting revenues, based on approximately 10% of the annually agreed quota of huntable animals.

Until very recently hunting-based tourism has been argued to contribute a significantly greater financial return than photographic, cultural, eco- and adventure tourism. Further arguments exist about the relative impact and economic cost of the two forms of tourism, one being that photographic tourism can create negative environmental impacts at high densities. The SLNP area has a very low tourism density situation where negative environmental impacts from tourism should be easily manageable through effective planning and regulation.

Sufficient international data do exist to demonstrate that a carefully planned multiple use tourism approach is the most effective one and should be a serious consideration in the South Luangwa area. Precluding this approach simply on the basis of historical thinking will be counter-productive.

ZAWA has moved forward with the administration of its hunting procedures (see its Procedures and Guidelines for Hunting in Zambia as an example), but Zambia's safari hunting tourism still has a fraction of the value of that in Tanzania, Zimbabwe and South Africa. It is estimated that South Africa and Zimbabwe earn around US$16/ha, Botswana and Namibia about US$8/ha, but Zambia less than US$1/ha.(UNDP, 2004) There have been several recommendations made for mechanisms that could improve this position (DISS 2004, Farrar 1998, Pope 1995), from effective structuring of concession areas, to multiple uses, better quota assessment, setting and monitoring systems, more flexible marketing of safari quotas, simpler and more transparent area tendering systems and separate national hunting areas.

6.1.2 National Recreational Hunting

Recreational hunting by Zambian residents is regulated through National Resident Hunting Licenses issued by ZAWA. Hunters request hunting access in a selection of GMAs and Open Areas, with a stipulated quota of plains game.

Resident hunting licenses, together with district licenses (see below) general consume about 90% of the total animal quota, but contribute only about 10% of the total hunting revenue to ZAWA. Resident hunting licenses are still heavily subsidised, mostly with values below the selling price of the associated meat on the local market, and are subject to considerable misuse, as well as being difficult to monitor effectively.

It has been strongly recommended that the national recreational hunting issue be carefully examined. Hunting wildlife is not a right, but is a recreational activity available to those that can afford it (like golf, holidaying and any other recreational activity). Those using the facility must pay the cost of maintaining it, and that cost cannot be less than the open market value of the hunting products that are produced. On the other hand those prepared to pay for recreational hunting should be given access to viable hunting areas. Much still needs to be done to address these issues – preferably by an approach that geographically separates safari and national hunting and transfers some responsibilities and investment requirements to a national recreational hunting association.

6.1.3 District Hunting

District Hunting Licenses are sold by district councils and may be accessed by people living in a district. District license fees are more heavily subsidised than National Licenses and are even more subject to misuse. Practically, these licenses contribute no revenue to the management of the resource that is hunted. Of greater concern is that they also contribute very little to the financial or nutritional condition of the real inhabitants of the GMAs and Open Areas for which they are allocated.

For some time it has been suggested that District Hunting Licenses be abolished and replaced by GMA/Open Area Hunting Licenses allocated to community-based organisations (CBOs) in these areas. Those licenses could then be managed as the CBO saw fit, either for wildlife production purposes (for domestic consumption or formal export from the area), or sale to residents, recreational hunters, or safari hunting outfitters, at appropriate prices. There are administrative and other capacity difficulties that would need attention on a case-by-case basis.

But this would place a realistic value on wildlife products and incentivise residents of these areas to monitor and manage their wildlife resources effectively (including monitoring the performance of safari, national recreation and GMA/Open Area hunts and those they initiate themselves).

6.1.4 Special Hunting Licenses

Special hunting licenses, or "Special Licenses" as they are commonly called, have been the subject of sustained concern for over twenty years. In an historical perspective, concerns raised have covered a broad area, including the absence of formal quotas and alleged misuse by safari outfitters, traditional leaders and politicians, lack of transparency, and alleged misuse by the wildlife management organisation itself.

Nevertheless, the license category persists, as do the concerns about the transparency and reporting surrounding its use, although there are now five established quotas (for the Minister, research, game capture, traditional ceremonies and problem animals). To counter these concerns a view that has been widely held for many years is that this category of license should be scrapped and replaced by: a) a formal research quota, b) a game capture quota, c) the transfer of traditional ceremony licenses to a GMA/Open Area License quota (see above), and d) the creation of a Director General's Quota (with specific monitoring and report requirements) for VIP, problem animal and restricted other appropriate uses.

6.1.5 Illegal Subsistence and Commercial Hunting

Most rural communities in Zambia hunted wild animals to supply additional dietary protein, provide materials that could be used for household and clothing items, to support traditional ceremonies and to deal with rogue animals, or those damaging crops.

With the exception of the traditional ceremony provision in Special Licenses, residents of GMAs and Open Areas have been progressively disenfranchised by the regulatory environment from legal hunting access to wild animals in their areas. In these circumstances "poaching" of game has become increasingly common.

Where poaching is genuinely for low-intensity, subsistence use, there has been an unofficial tendency in the field for wildlife officers to turn a blind eye (frequently using it themselves where they are in camps remote from normal food sources). However, as population densities and urban demand for bush meat have increased, so subsistence poaching has been progressively transformed into commercial poaching.

Middlemen now routinely co-opt villagers in game-rich areas to help hunt and process carcasses to provide bush meat and other products (ivory, rhino horn [in the 1970's and 1980's], hippo teeth, hides and lion and leopard skins) to urban and international markets. The marketing of bush meat is a widespread phenomenon in all main urban areas, where it generally commands a price premium of 1.5 to as much as 5 times the price of beef.

In the transitional period between the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Service and the Zambia Wildlife Authority, poaching became widespread. Present efforts are attempting to restore regulatory control, but with limited success outside core national parks.

This form of wildlife off-take represents a serious resource depletion phenomenon, analogous to the charcoal trade in the forestry sector. Causes, effects and possible mitigating measures are very similar. Likewise, they now need comprehensive, structured policy solutions.

6.2 Hunting Tourism in the South Luangwa Area

There are five hunting blocks surrounding the SLNP: in the north and north-west, the Nyampala and Luwawata hunting blocks in the Munyamadzi GMA; in the north, the Mwanya hunting block in the Lumimba GMA; and in the east the Upper and Lower Lupande hunting blocks in the Lupande GMA (with a distal third – the Msoro hunting block now under establishment).

All five hunting blocks operate a system of safari hunting under a concession agreement with a safari outfitter. Safari hunts operate from 1st May to 31st December each year. Between August and the end of December recreation hunting is also allowed in these blocks on a bid basis, managed by ZAWA (although publications also mention the 1st May as the start date). Over the same period district licenses are also allowed to hunt in the areas.

6.3 Hunting Tourism-Related Regulatory Revenues

Revenues generated by hunting activities in the five hunting blocks are shown in Table 6.3.1. The 2003 figures show a major discrepancy with the Lower Lupande data, making its usefulness doubtful. All other hunted blocks paid about 68% of their concession fees as hunting licences. Lower Lupande managed to buy 294% of its concession fees as licences. Either the data are faulty, or the concessionaire managed to hunt (directly or indirectly) 4.6 times as many animals as his concession fees would indicate – which seems unlikely.

Table 6.3.1 Hunting Tourism Revenues Generated in the Vicinity of the South Luangwa National Park

GMA	2003		2004	
All Amounts in US$	**Concession Fees**	**Animal Licenses**	**Concession Fees**	**Animal Licenses**
Munyamadzi Luwawata	73,000	50,250	73,000	Not avail.
Munyamadzi Nyampala	50,100	34,270	50,100	Not avail.
Lumimba Mwanya	37,000	23,630	37,000	Not avail.
Lupande Upper	25,500	No hunting	25,500	Not avail.
Lupande Lower	27,500	80,780	27,500	Not avail.
Total	**213,100**	**188,930**	**213,100**	**-**

Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

Under current arrangements 45% of all regulatory license payments are transferred to an account held by one or more CRBs resident in the hunting block. A further 5% is transferred to the personal account of the chief or chiefs in the area. The remaining 50% is retained by ZAWA, who retain 40% for management purposes and pass 10% to the government treasury. 100% of concession fees are retained by ZAWA.

Table 6.3.2 shows that contributions to CRBs as calculated by ZAWA. It should be noted that Table 6.3.2 only reports on hunting licenses (concession fees are fully retained by ZAWA).

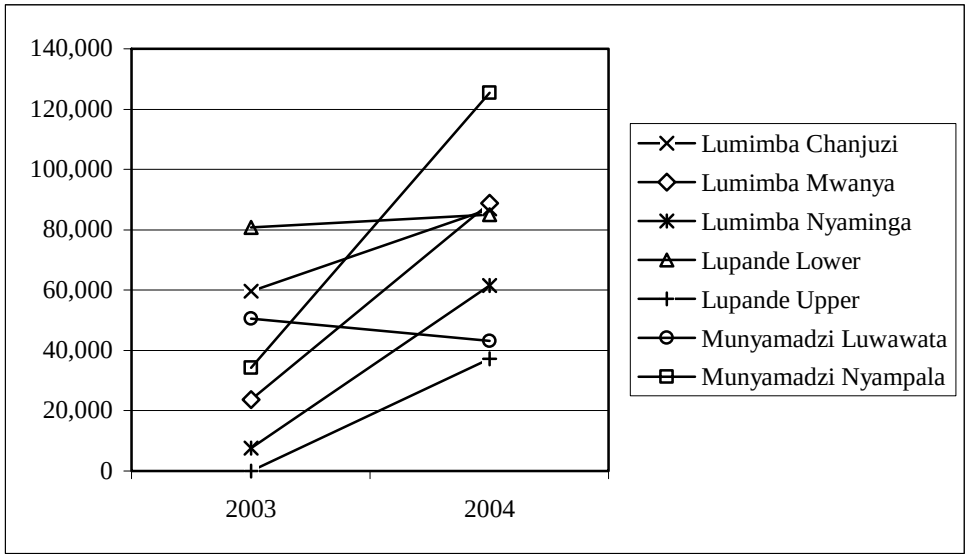
Table 6.3.2 Hunting License Revenue Contributions to Community Resource Boards

	2003		2004	
GMA	**Total Income (US$)**	**GMA Share (US$)**	**Total Income (US$)**	**GMA Share (US$)**
Lumimba Chanjuzi	59,700	27,075	86,975	35,163
Lumimba Mwanya	23,630	11,815	88,825	43,433
Lumimba Nyaminga	7,710	3,855	61,550	32,075
Lupande Lower	80,780	32,140	84,986	41,993
Lupande Upper	0	0	37,250	19,105
Munyamadzi Luwawata	50,520	25,260	43,130	21,780
Munyamadzi Nyampala	34,270	17,135	125,320	52,385
Totals	$256,610	$117,280	$528,036	$245,934

Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

Figure 6.3.1 illustrates the trends in hunting license revenues over the last two years. The South Luangwa GMAs (Upper and Lower Lupande) contributed US$ 80,380 in total income, of which approximately US$ 67,000 (83%) was retained by ZAWA. That Figure also shows that all the hunting blocks with the exception of Upper Lupande and Luwawata show large increases in revenue payments to ZAWA in 2004. This too requires further investigation. All hunting blocks are on a quota system against which they are required to pay 75% of the hunting and concession fees, regardless of hunting success. It would seem that there are missing data (which ZAWA admits may be the case) and also that either revenue collection in 2003 was incomplete, or that additional quota allocations were accessed in 2004 (which is an area of concern).

Figure 6.3.1 Trends in Hunting Revenue Collection in the South Luangwa Area, 2003 and 2004



Source: Zambia Wildlife Authority, 2005

In any case it would appear that ZAWA would benefit considerably from an internal audit of the administration and reporting of hunting revenue data.

Backlogs in payments due to CRBs from pre-ZAWA times, accountability problems with CRBs and logistical and investment problems still limit both the amount of funding that reaches CRBs and the effectiveness of fund use. Improving the ability of CRBs to manage and utilise their earnings effectively (which in several cases represent significant lump sum payments) is an area needing much more attention.

From policy and practical viewpoints it may be advantageous to restructure the distribution of both concession fees and hunting license fees. The former are effectively land rents and could be shared according to respective land responsibilities between CRBs, district councils and possibly ZAWA.

Hunting licenses by comparison, are regulatory responsibilities of ZAWA and the CRBs and should be shared by them alone. The share of hunting license revenues should depend on the respective extent of office and field contributions by the parties. The community component of hunting license fee would be based on agreed levels of management undertaken by them.

This would allow simpler procedures and greater predictability for all parties. Clearly this will have significant impacts on ZAWA's income and it is a policy issue that will require further thought. One offset option that has been raised before is for ZAWA to charge communities for the services that they provide to them (law enforcement, administration of concession tenders, administration of the hunting licensing system, dispute resolution). This is discussed again in Chapter 8.

The current licensing system is complicated and represents a costly workload on ZAWA in administration and especially monitoring. A simplified and more transparent and manageable system is now much needed – also a realistic transition in revenue allocation to all parties will be essential to avoid major financial restructuring in ZAWA and to support progressive financial management capacity building in districts and CRBs.

6.4 Hunting-Photographic Tourism Conflicts

With sound policies, effective planning and management and a professional approach by both the consumptive and non-consumptive tourism industries, it should be possible to obtain optimum integrated consumptive/non-consumptive utilisation from wildlife areas. Most hunting companies operate within an area of approximately 200 km^2. Most hunting blocks are in excess of 1,500 km^2 in extent. Conversely most photographic tourism operators can operate within an area of less than 200 km^2 and usually have lease prerogatives over only 5 to 10 ha.(Pope, 1995) – i.e. many more photographic operators can be placed in the spaces presently exclusively concessioned to one safari outfitter.

Although there are relatively few major conflicts between consumptive uses (hunting and culling/cropping) and the non-consumptive tourism industry, the objective is still far from being achieved – to the detriment of both industries and the economy. The following sections address some of the specific areas of inter-sector abrasion.

6.4.1 Lion and Leopard Hunting

Apart from reported localised disregard for national park boundaries in the northern SLNP and the Luambe National Park, most areas of inter-sector conflict stem from policy weaknesses. One prime example that affects lion and leopard populations on the interface areas between national parks and GMA is the current policy requirement that prime hunting areas have to conduct five classic safaris and seven mini-hunts, regardless of the hunting blocks real ability to support these quotas. Similar, but slightly reduced requirements apply to secondary hunting areas.

This policy is intended to ensure both that ZAWA derives the maximum possible revenues from each hunting block and secondly that a concessionaire does not sit on a valuable concession without using it.

If animal population data inputs and quota setting processes were transparent and adequate, this policy would be understandable. Regrettably the various inputs to the quota setting process are generally agreed to be less than satisfactory and incompatible with sustainable lion and leopard hunting.

But an acquisitive safari outfitter, and an under-funded ZAWA could find mutual benefit in driving these quotas upwards – to the detriment, not just of the population dynamics of these predators in the GMAs, but also in adjoining areas of national parks. The possible medium term impact of this policy needs systematic and independent review to verify, or reject the negative impacts suspected by long-term observations. It is noteworthy that other east African countries are already addressing these issues.

6.4.2 Quotas and Concession Fees

An associated issue is that safari hunting outfitters can sell their lion and leopard quotas together (lion with leopard), or separately. The area concession fee is paid per hunt. Presently, outfitters sell a combined lion and leopard classic safari wherever possible (and are driven to try and obtain sufficient lion and leopard quotas to do this – and to hunt as close to the national park boundaries as possible to attract animals out of the protected area to baits).

A more rational approach to using quotas and the setting of concession fees would encourage more sophisticated marketing (by permitting the selling of different combinations of hunting period and species), reduce the pressure on key species (lion, leopard, buffalo), and increase the overall income from safari hunting. As the number of areas available for true wild hunts world wide is likely to decrease over time (i.e. the market will be increasingly supply driven) this would appear to be a strategy worth considering to the benefit of all parties and especially sustainable wildlife management and a viable national park/GMA interface.

Nevertheless, achieving it will require “out of the box” think on structuring the regulatory and pricing structure for hunting safaris.

6.4.3 Elephant Hunting

While the public are generally divided on their philosophical approaches to hunting per se, elephant hunting evokes deeper emotions. Holding emotional viewpoints on hunting particular species is not particularly useful in developing a well structured approach to the utilisation of wildlife resources.

But elephant hunting has been banned in Zambia for many years and ZAWA's proposal to reintroduce it – in the final analysis largely on revenue generating grounds, has raised several concerns. The LSA have opposed the reintroduction of elephant hunting and they have presented well articulated arguments against it. In particular they: a) note the absence of scientific data to support the policy; b) doubt that sufficient benefits will accrue to communities to discourage existing levels of elephant poaching; c) note that little revenue will accrue to ZAWA itself (especially given the higher demand for supervision of elephant hunts); and d) that the policy will contribute nothing to an effective elephant management plan.

Further contrary arguments are now also emerging from elephant tracking studies in southern Africa. These show that these animals have strange and wide reaching habits (van Aarde et. al., 2005). These data, and research results from other elephant range states, demonstrate that greater forethought is required in developing Zambia's existing protected area system if these, and other large mammal species, are to be sustained in the presence of increasing economic pressure to fragment their erstwhile extensive home ranges.

It would seem that existing research results strongly suggest that a policy to reintroducing elephant hunting warrants suspension until valid data and independent professional observations can be available. More disturbing is that there is clear evidence that the future management of the species will be increasingly complicated.

While it is not the role of this paper to make unstructured recommendations on the hunting sector, the material in the above sections demonstrates that the hunting and non-consumptive tourism industries are inextricably linked. Unwise policy decisions on introducing elephant hunting, or any other policy, in one sector may not only have positive or negative impacts in that sector, but will almost certainly have a knock-on and possibly contrary effect in the other.

6.4.4 Sub-Divided GMAs

The animal quota arrangements discussed in section 6.4.2 need particularly close examination in GMAs that have been recently subdivided. There have been legal and other pressures put on ZAWA to ensure that the existing outfitter in a subdivided GMA is not disadvantaged (i.e. his/her quota is not reduced) and simultaneously, the new investors in the GMA have access to quotas that will attract their business interests in investing. The result has been a doubling or tripling of quotas for these areas. As the carrying capacities and animal populations of GMAs are in any case very poorly quantified, as are the predator/prey ratios and species' home ranges in different parts of the country, the quota policy cannot be sustained without major negative impacts.

Specifically, there is considerable danger that the valuable roles of GMAs as transit, breeding, nutrient source and seasonal foraging areas are being subverted – with immediate impacts on the viability of adjacent national parks and, therefore, the whole protected area system.

These arguments do not detract from the rationale that the sub-division of some GMAs is warranted. No outfitter is capable of hunting in or managing an area in excess of a few hundred km^2. Most GMAs are ten times that size.

Undertaken rationally, and assuming access to financial resources and managers/outfitters, a GMA subdivision policy could, in time, both increase the opportunity for financial returns, as well as improving the stocking levels and general viability of the overall protected area system. If this was combined with innovative approaches to conjunct consumptive/non-consumptive GMA planning and use, major benefits could accrue to all parties.

6.4.5 Earnings per km^2

A detailed investigation of the relative worth of consumptive and non-consumptive tourism is a major subject in its own right. As noted earlier there are strong arguments that photographic tourism (particularly poorly managed tourism) has bigger negative impacts on the environment than hunting tourism. Given the disproportionate relative densities of the two types of tourist this is usually a largely undisputed truism in the context of littering, road impacts, disturbance, sewerage outfalls and the like.

On the other hand the negative impacts on species' breeding processes from hunting are beginning to be more fully understood and early evidence (see predator and elephant issues above) suggests that less evident, but equally important, negative impacts are being created by hunting.

It is also a truism that the economic (and usually the financial) earning power of photographic tourism per unit area used is significantly greater in almost all areas. Unfortunately, arguments for and against the higher revenue contribution of photographic tourism rarely examine the overall economic investment needed to support the respective positions, so realistic comparisons are difficult. But particularly in the SLNP, with appropriate management, the negative environmental impacts of photographic tourism can be minimised to acceptable levels.

At present LSA operator contributions to ZAWA amount to some US$ 980,000 per annum. The amount for hunting revenue retained by ZAWA from the Lupande GMA is in the region of only one third of this amount (US$ 290,000). Both contributors utilise similar overall areas.

6.4.6 Protected Area Design and Management

What is more important, and this is supported by the earlier discussion, is that there appears to be an immediate need for a consultative, factual examination of how the ecological management of the whole protected wildlife system can be most efficiently and effectively implemented within an adaptive, but long term perspective.

This should examine realistically the options for a more flexible approach to classifying and using national parks, such as specific area management concessions, and even periodic, or localised safari hunting (although this flies in the face of traditional protected area criteria), and so on. More especially, a fully integrated approach to natural resource planning and management in GMAs and Open Areas is needed.

A wise, long-term approach to GMA/Open Area natural resource management offers considerable potential benefits from synergies between protected area design, improved and sustained livelihoods, the diversification of economic activities and simplified administration.

Conversely, failure to address these areas in the immediate future, will almost certainly lead to progressive, but rapid, negative and irreversible overall impacts for most area-based players. The ZAWA Five-Year Strategic Plan incorporates this wide use approach as a fundamental strategy (ZAWA, 2002). The onus is now on the private sector (including community entities), ZAWA and the Local Government administration to find a mechanism to initiate this review.

The danger of defaulting lies not only in the economic arena - environmental issues are equally pressing. While natural systems are characteristically resilient, they are also threshold sensitive. "Natural" systems under stress often appear to be healthy, although in reality they may be compensating heavily against it. Eventually, however, critical points are reached where the resource depletion used in stress compensation exceeds available reserves - usually resulting in a collapse of the system.

Sound research and monitoring mechanisms are the only way to avoid these situations – and at present these are inadequate. Changing the emphasis on research and monitoring must also involve creating awareness in the financial and policy halls of government that conservation agencies such as ZAWA cannot be entirely self-financing without subverting the role of protected conservation areas and their inherent future opportunities and cultural heritage values.

ZAWA cannot be expected to do develop protected area design and management solutions and generate research solutions alone and the private sector should be actively involved in developing cogent arguments to change present perceptions and to generate innovative, but realistic, forward looking ideas.

In summary, there is need for

- better data to be generated, analysed and made available to all users;
- improved monitoring and law enforcement;
- a better working partnership between ZAWA and its photographic and hunting operator clients;
- the encouragement of key research and the dissemination of those results;
- work on an improved protected area design and management system for the Lupande GMA (and adjacent GMAs) that will optimise the use of wildlife and landscape resources in the area and address topical issues (elephant, lion and leopard hunting).

Achieving this will also require a working team structure and must be supported by real decentralised authority for SLAMU so that bureaucratic delays are minimised and local management feel a real sense of developing appropriate local solutions.

7. Consideration 4 – Awareness of the Economic Contributions of the Tourism Industry in the Luangwa Safari Association Area

The private sector is driven by profit. Profit represents surpluses from transactions that can be reinvested. Without it economic growth in the conventional sense is not possible. There is some evidence that this concept is now appreciated more fully throughout the government bureaucracy, but much more needs to be done to incentive growth and the diversification of the economy and of the individual economic sectors. Only by doing so will Zambia establish greater economic security, as well as spin-off benefits in greater employment, more balanced regional development, foreign exchange reserves, and export opportunities. This section examines the financial (and to a lesser extent economic) contributions of the LSA members to these local and national economic goals.

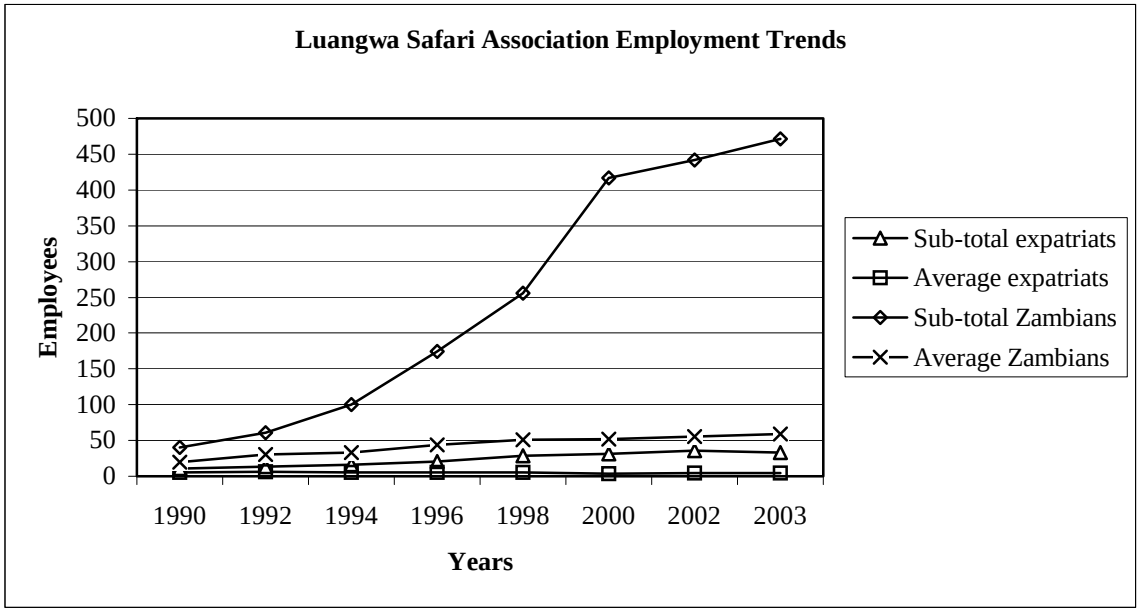
7.1 Employment in the Luangwa Safari Association Companies

7.1.1 Permanent Employees

Total permanent employment in LSA camps and lodges increased by over 1,000 % between 1990 and 2003, from a total of 51 in 1990 to 504 in 2003. While the magnitude of LSA employment is insignificant on a national scale, the trend and the tourism-related opportunities elsewhere in the country as a whole are significant. The tourism sector is the world largest employer.

Growth in employment among LSA operators is in Zambian nationals – increasing tenfold from 40 in 1990 to 471 in 2003. The gross number of expatriates employed has increased from 11 in 1990 to 33 in 2003, but the average number of expatriates per company has declined from 6 to 4 over the same period, as shown in Figure 7.1.1.1.

Figure 7.1.1.1 Employment Trends at Luangwa Safari Association Camps and Lodges, 1990 to 2003



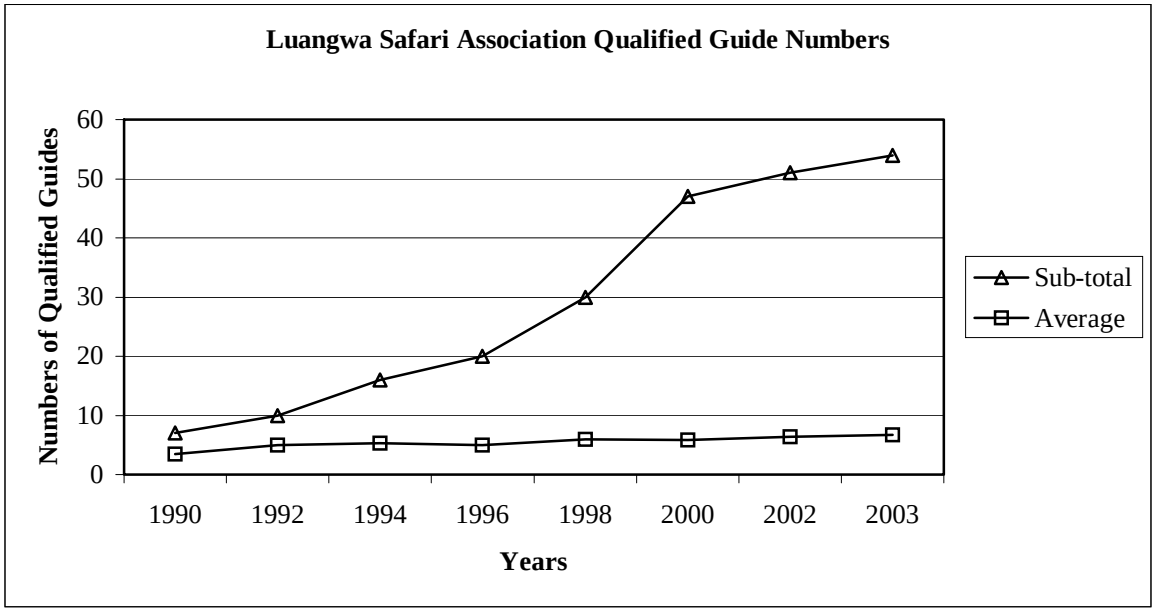
Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

There are now just over 500 full-time employees with LSA companies. In gross terms this represents an employee/client ratio of 1.98. This ration has remained unchanged since 1990.

7.1.2 Qualified Tourist Guides

There has also been exponential growth in the availability of qualified tourist guides - from 7 in 1990 to 54 in 2003, with an approximate doubling of the average number of guides per camp (see Figure 7.1.2.1). The tourism operators in the SLNP initiated a formal training and approval scheme for tourist guides. Although there have been criticisms of the scheme, the approach has since been adopted in other parts of the country. Possibly LSA should now review its scheme to ensure that it still represents best practice.

Figure 7.1.2.1 The Number of Qualified Safari Guides Employed at Luangwa Safari Association Camps and Lodges, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

7.1.3 Spin-Off Livelihood Support

Casual employment has varied with the growth in companies and investments. It is likely that many that were casually employed in the early and mid-1990's are now permanent employees, although this cannot be directly determined from the figures.

Overall the LSA members now employ some 700 permanent and temporary staff in the Mfuwe area, a significant growth from approximately 80 employed in 1990.

The spin-off benefits from this employment can be roughly measured by factoring 6 household individuals that are immediately provided with a livelihood directly, or through an employed bread winner. This is equivalent to a total of 4,200 individuals.

In reality, with the impact of the AIDS pandemic, the supporting umbrella frequently extends to 10 or more individuals, equivalent to immediate livelihood benefits from the photographic safari industry (excluding the Zambia Wildlife Authority who employ some 180 personnel and the local safari outfitters who employ another 20 to 30), extending to some 7,000 individuals of all ages.

7.2 Employment in the Luangwa Hunting Safari Outfitter Companies

Employment in the safari hunting industry is very seasonal. It was not possible to obtain detailed figures, but approximately 90 people are formally employed by the five safari outfitters operating in the immediate vicinity of the core SLNP tourism area and about 30 in the Lupande GMA (three western GMAs: Sandwe, West Petauke and Chisomo have not been included). In addition most of the companies will probably also employ a further 20 causal employees during camp building and closure (about two months of the year).

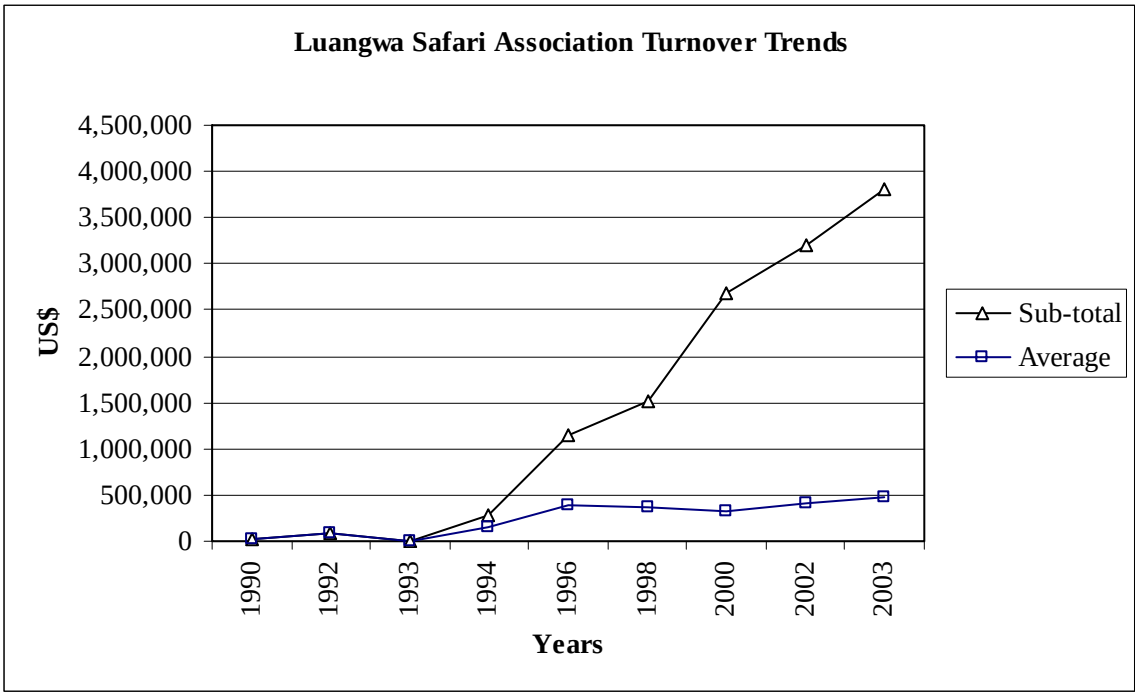
7.3 Investment and Business Turnover by Luangwa Safari Association Members

Total investment by LSA members since 1990 is in excess of US$ 5 million. Apart from a major investment by Mfuwe Lodge, other members have injected well over US$ 1 million over the period. Investment from Star of Africa and Lion Camp has further increased this investment level

Turnover trends have matched the levels of capitalisation, but probably also draw their strength from increasing critical mass and improved infrastructure, access, marketing and bed night growth.

Figure 7.3.1 shows the dramatic increase in turnover among LSA members since 1990, particularly gaining momentum after 1994. Growth in real terms has increased from just US$ 6,000 to over US$ 3.5 million per annum over the period from 1990 to 2003 (again noting that several operations contributing to tourism earnings in the early 1990’s no longer exist and are unrecorded).

Figure 7.3.1 Trends in Turnover Performance in the Luangwa Safari Association Grouping, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

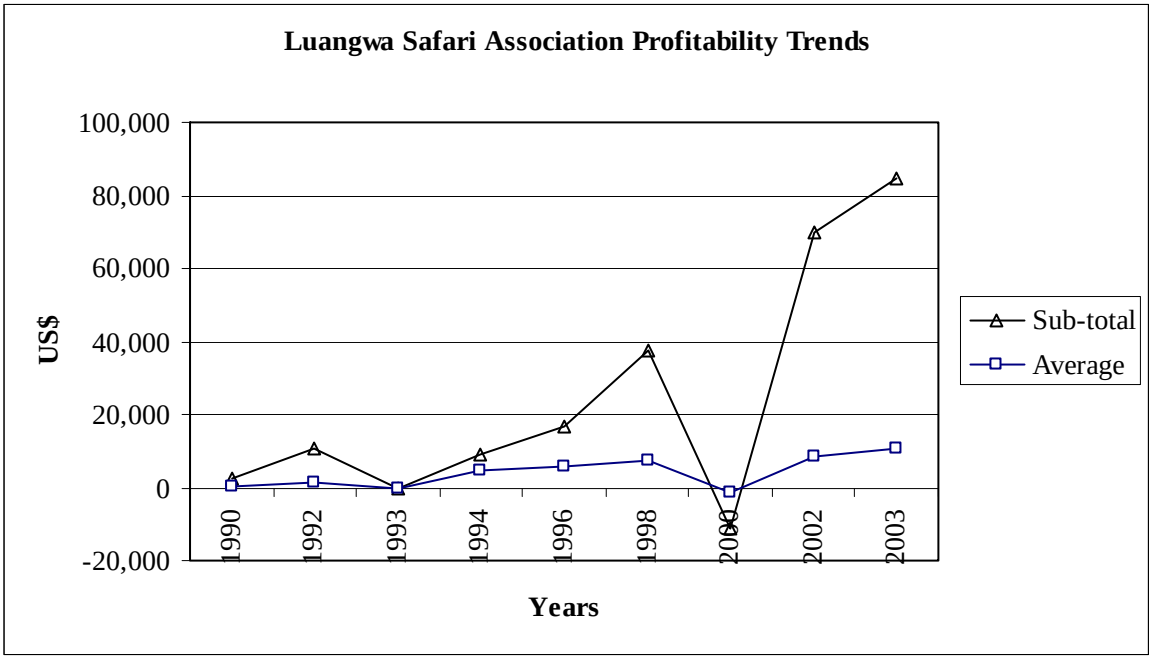
Profitability is more difficult to monitor, partly because actual loss figures were not presented in many cases. What is evident is that the profitability of LSA operations improved briefly in 1995 and 1996, but that profitability has only really become a sustained reality since 2002 (see Figure 7.3.2, but note the miniscule size of the cumulative annual profitability). The effect of significant investment in the mid-1990's on later profitability is also amply demonstrated by the losses in 2000.

To underline this situation a comparison of the cumulative recorded profitability of say US$ 211,000 to 2003, against an investment level of US$ 5.5 billion since 1996, provides a simplified averaged return of just 4.7% over the nine years to 2004. Not many business sectors would consider this as a viable proposition.

What is equally uncertain is the extent to which reported profitability adequately represents provisions for recapitalisation and the recovery of accumulated losses before 2002.

Although the position is improving, it is in the mutual interest of all that more work is required on the detailed mechanisms that are limiting profitability, and ways of addressing these constraints. This issue is returned to further on.

Figure 7.3.2 Trends in Profitability in the Luangwa Safari Association Grouping, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

7.4 Investment and Business Turnover by Luangwa Safari Hunting Outfitter Companies

It was not possible to obtain data on investments by safari outfitter companies. Because of the significantly lower client levels, safari outfitter investments are less fixed and lower than that required for photographic tourism operations – although there are some exceptions to this.

Using ZAWA minimum stipulated requirements for safari hunting outfitter investments it is estimated that each outfitter should invest in the region of US$ 300,000 to 500,000. This would indicate a total level of capital investment of some US$ 1.5 to 2.5 million for the five outfitters in the immediate vicinity of the SLNP core tourism area. In reality most hunting outfitters have been established on the back of existing businesses and rarely invest at this level. A realistic level of investment for all five outfitters is thus probably in the region of US$ 1.5 million and for the Lupande outfitters approximately US$ 300,000, although this could not be confirmed.

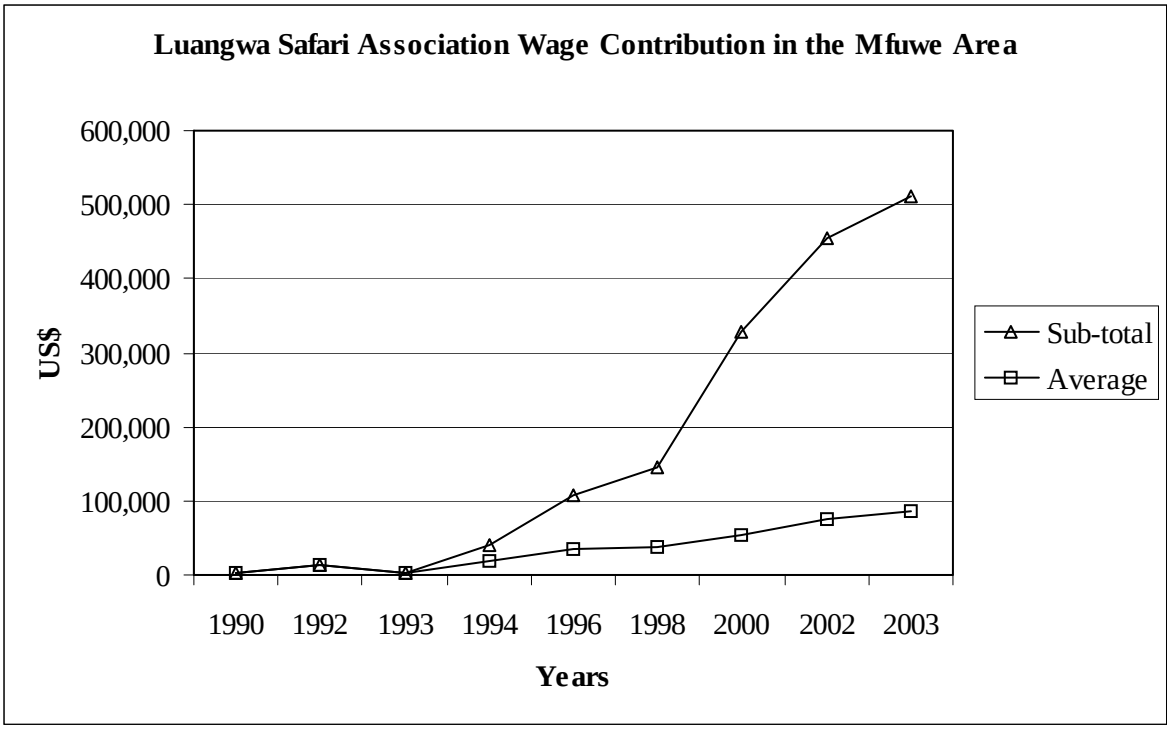
7.5 Financial Contribution to the Local Economy by Luangwa Safari Association Companies

The LSA members contribute to the local economy directly through salary and wage contributions to local employees and through the purchase of goods and services from the area.

Further indirect benefits are transferred by way of social programmes of the members – historically mainly contributing to health care and education, but increasingly also through community cultural tourism ventures.

Salary and wage contributions to the local economy have grown from US$ 2,800 in 1990 to US$ 510,000 in 2003 (see Figure 7.5.1). Collectively, the members are probably the biggest contributor to the local economy, although statistics for agriculture and businesses are not available to confirm this and would be interesting data if they could be developed.

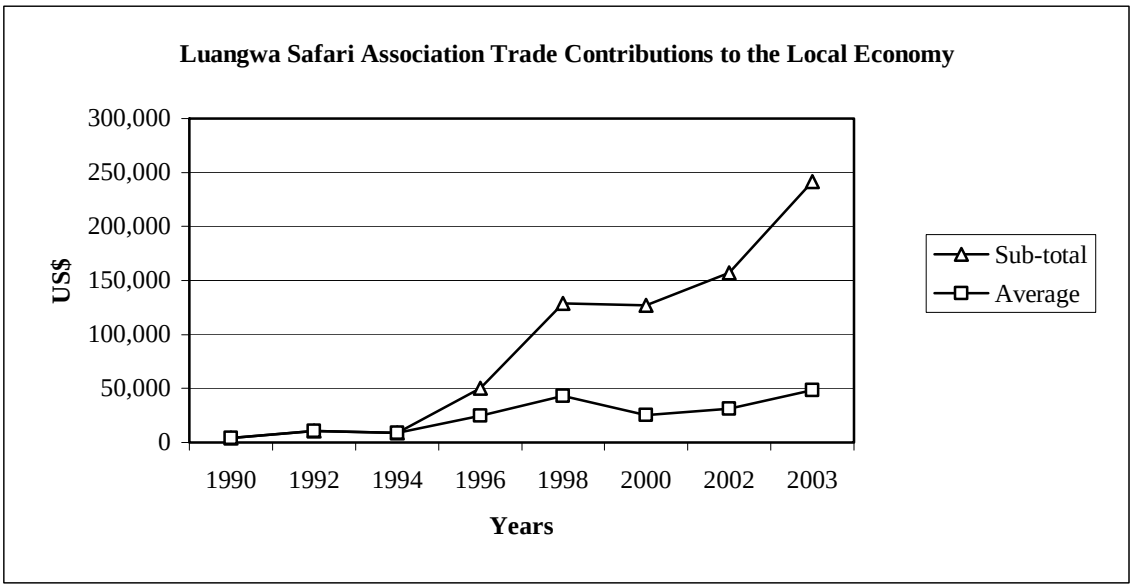
Figure 7.5.1 Luangwa Safari Association Personal Emolument Contributions to the Mfuwe Economy, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

The contribution from purchases and other business items has shown a similar pattern of exponential growth, particularly in the last two years. Total non-wage contributions now amount to close to US$ 240,000 per annum (see Figure 7.5.2). Combined with salary and wage contributions, the LSA tourism group is now placing nearly US$ 750,000 per annum into the economy in Mambwe District.

Figure 7.5.2 Luangwa Safari Association Business Contributions to the Local Economy, 1990 to 2003



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

7.6 Financial Contribution to the Local Economy by Luangwa Safari Outfitter Companies

In order to compare financial contributions to the Mambwe District economy the contributions of only the two Lupande GMAs have been considered. The magnitude of this contribution from the procurement of goods and services and employment payments amounts (based, because of the much smaller hunting safari client numbers, on 5% of that for photographic tourism operators), probably amounts to US$7,000 per annum.

Adding the probably labour payments for safari hunting outfitters in the Lupande GMA (say US$ 17,000, and the retained hunting fees (about US$ 60,000, see Table 6.3.2), this would indicate a total contribution into the local economy in the Lupande hunting blocks of some US$ 90,000.

7.7 Total Financial Contribution to the Local Economy by All Luangwa Safari Companies

The contributions into the local economy from all tourism entities is now approximately US$ 850,000, with the non-consumptive tourist sector contributing nearly 90%. This figure excludes ancillary non-consumptive services and enterprises producing tourism-related goods (curios, fabrics and the like), that are wholly or partly supported by the SLNP tourism industry. It also excludes social service contributions to education, health, road maintenance and the like.

7.8 Material Contributions to Social Services by Luangwa Safari Association Companies

Other intangible/non-quantifiable benefits in the form of improved health care, primary and secondary education and road maintenance are considerable but have not been calculated here. They include: rehabilitation and development of the Chiwawatala and Kawaza Schools and the Malama and Kakumbi Clinics, support to the South Luangwa Conservation Society (who support ZAWA's law enforcement activities), police posts, school scholarships, teachers wages, school supplies A social cost/benefit analysis will be required to establish these contributions.

Detailed figures for financial contributions to Mambwe area social services were not provided by all LSA members, but extrapolating data that was received suggests that this contribution may have exceeded US$ 100,000 in 2004 – all from photographic tourism operations.

7.9 Material Contributions to Social Services by Luangwa Safari Outfitter Companies

As noted already the safari outfitter companies thus far do not make direct group contributions to social services in the Mambwe area. Indirect support may come from CRB contributions originating from their hunting license revenue contributions, but these could not be established.

It is suggested that the LSA incorporates these companies into its contributory mechanisms once a planned framework has been established. Areas of direct benefit to the outfitter companies would be road maintenance and health provisions. It would also be beneficial to them in the longer term if they invested in support to the educational system in the Mambwe area.

7.10 Overall Financial and Economic Contributions of Tourism Operations in the Mambwe District

As noted earlier the combined direct financial contributions of the LSA member organisations and two hunting outfitters to the Mambwe economy is close to US$ 900,000 per annum. Put in perspective and spread over the 47,000 inhabitants of the district this represents a yearly contribution of some ZMK 500,000 per household.

Applied more directly to an estimated 10,000 inhabitants of the Nsefu/Kakumbi chiefdoms around Mfuwe the contribution increases to ZMK 2.6 million, or US$ 536 per household per annum. These figures exclude all non-LSA income streams (from other private and public sector employment, agriculture, fishing, informal tourism, building, trading and retail businesses, the curio and tourist goods trade and other occupations), and the social benefits of improved schooling and health, water supply, transport and national park access that emanate from LSA contributions.

7.11 LSA and Hunting Safari Outfitter Contributions to Regulatory and Other Taxes

The LSA members contribute regulatory payments to ZAWA, the ZNTB, the Ministry of Commercial, Trade and Industry, the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Mambwe District Council. The magnitude of the last two payments could not be clearly established, and the district council system would still appear to be largely ad hoc.

On the other hand the ZAWA and ZNTB payments are clearly established and comprise: tourist operating licenses, lodge and camp fixed and variable fees, park entry fees and guiding fees. Payments by hunting safari operators include fixed concession fees, various hunting license fees, professional hunter fees and trophy export fees.

7.11.1 Photographic Tourism Contributions to ZAWA

Table 7.11.1.1 indicates that the total contribution of the LSA members to ZAWA in 2004 amounted to close on US$ 1 million, with national park entry fees (at US$ 588,000) being roughly double the amount of all camp fixed and variable charges (US$275,000). Drives and escort charges raised roughly US$ 100,000 in 2004.

Table 7.11.1.1 Regulatory Contributions of the LSA Members to ZAWA, 2004

SOUTH LUANGWA NATIONAL PARK				
TOURISM FEES				
FOR THE PERIOD JANUARY TO DECEMBER 2004				
	SLNP	SLNP	SLNP	SLNP
SOURCE	USA $	ZMK	$ equiv	Total US$
Park Entry	550,436	183,783,850	37,894	588,330
Drives	77,300	18,993,500	3,916	81,216
Variables	117,808	85,668,928	17,664	135,472
Guide Licence	1,715	1,494,000	308	2,023
Boatcrossing	4,695	0	0	4,695
Escort Hire	25,140	0	0	25,140
Filming	460	0	0	460
Angling	15	980,340	202	217
Fixed Lease	139,940	0	0	139,940
TOTALS	**917,509**	**290,920,618**	**59,984**	**977,493**

Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2005

7.11.2 Safari Hunting Tourism Contributions to ZAWA

By way of comparison, Table 6.3.2 indicates that the safari hunting outfitters and resident hunts contributed a total of US$ 582,000 in regulatory payments in 2004. ZAWA retained approximately US$ 282,000 of this amount from all five hunting blocks surrounding the SLNP.

Given that the LSA members operate in an area roughly equivalent to the two proximate Lupande hunting blocks (where ZAWA recovered US$ 56,000 in 2004 after community payments), non-consumptive tourism apparently contributes, not just 90% of the economic benefits to the Mambwe area, but also 94% of the regulatory fees retained by ZAWA.

In these circumstances arguments raised by photographic safari operators for more access to GMAs warrant further consideration.

7.11.3 Direct and Indirect Taxation

The contribution of the LSA members to the national exchequer is more difficult to calculate and is beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, some estimates can be made.

Value Added Tax (VAT) is levied on most purchases at 17.5%. Direct and indirect taxation impacts on LSA members have been calculated by them (LSA, 2004, pers. com.) at approximately 19% of turnover of established enterprises and 29% of the turnover for a new operator. Assuming a 25% profitability on turnover (which few companies, if any have achieved) and corporate tax at 30%, direct taxation should absorb a maximum of about 7.5% of turnover.

The balance on the LSA calculations for Kwacha and Dollars indicate that a variety of indirect taxes, regulatory payments and social taxes (contributions to social needs) add a further 17.5% to 20.5% to the cost of doing business in Mfuwe. With the costs of supplies and consumables in Mfuwe being some 15% higher than Lusaka, the overheads on operating in Mfuwe are between 32% and 35% of turnover.

Place this in a regional context where doing business in Zambia has been calculated at between one and a half and twice the cost of that in countries of our southern regional competitors and its is astonishing that Luangwa Valley tourism has been as reasonably successful.

7.12 The Cost of Business for Luangwa Safari Association Members

The contribution of LSA members to various fiscal and regulatory requirements is worthy of closer examination as it represent possible areas in which existing constraints on sector growth might be reduced.

Because of the need for constant rehabilitation and improvement of facilities, and to cover seasonality constraints and periodic downturns in the market, it is generally considered that tourism enterprises should be generating well in excess of normal profit margins.

Unless circumstances will permit this, there is little likelihood that sincere, long-term investments can be encouraged into the sector in competition with more predictable enterprises.

LSA members noted during this survey that although they are paying their taxes, they are also voluntarily, but largely by necessity, required to: contribute to district and national park road maintenance costs; supplement local health and education services; and support local CRBs.

It is suggested that LSA collects data in these areas and makes a critical examination of the total cost of operating a tourism enterprise in the Luangwa Valley and the percentages that the various cost areas represents of turnover. Well argued proposals could then be developed for appropriate policy, regulatory and fiscal changes that would contribute meaningfully to tourism development.

A 2003 study (DSI, 2004) produced that data, shown in Table 7.12.1. While it is now somewhat dated, the general indications are clear – that Zambia is an expensive investment area – probably at least twice as expensive as South Africa and one and a half times the cost of operating in neighbouring countries.

Table 7.12.1 Comparative Costs of Business in Some Countries of the SADC Region, 2003

Comparison of Tourism Costs in Livingstone, Zambia with Regional Competitors (US$)				
Item	**Zambia**	**Zimbabwe**	**Botswana**	**South Africa**
Diesel (per litre)	0.66	0.18	0.38	0.28
Petrol (per litre)	0.85	0.21	0.39	0.28
Electricity (unit)	0.03	0,01	0.08	
Telephone (min)	2.10	0.12	0.88	
VAT	17.5%	15%	10%	14%
E-mail (month)	48.54	8.06	15.00	15.00
Wine	8.00	2.00	2.00	2.00

Source: DSI, 2004

The logistical cost of providing goods and services in the Mfuwe area has an additional on-cost over Lusaka-based businesses of around 15%.

8. The Way Forward

8.1 Preliminary Conclusions

The Luangwa Tourism Association members are collectively contributing very significant financial and material resources into the South Luangwa National Park, and particularly its eastern margins in the Lupande Game Management Area.

An investigation of the source of these resources has included a simple comparison of non-consumptive versus consumptive tourism has been undertaken. The subject is a study in its own right and effective contributions await further data. Nevertheless, the debate is important in the context of identifying optimum management priorities and investments for ZAWA, district councils and others in the area, because of the considerably higher financial contributions and economic multiplier effect of non-consumptive tourism.

This study, at this stage in the development of the Luangwa valley, suggests that there is ample room for both forms of tourist activity, provided that ZAWA initiates new approaches to planning the GMAs. These discussions will go much further than zonation, conjunct use and coordination and must involve district councils and community representation, as well as the consumptive and non-consumptive tourist investors. The objective should be to ensure that policies and practices are implemented that optimise productivity and profitability from both industries.

Given no major negative externalities (reduction in global tourism downturn, international and national political impacts, increased competitiveness of regional and international countries), then significant continued growth in the tourism sector seems likely. What is evident is that at present, growth measured by most indicators is following an exponential form, albeit from a small base. This situation is likely to present both positive and negative impacts.

On the positive side there are indications that tourism operational and marketing skills are reaching a level where continued steady growth can be secured (provided negative externalities do not bear on the situation). This suggests that more employment can be expected for local communities and more revenues for ZAWA from increased tourist bed night and park entry fees National economic benefits, both directly through taxation and indirectly through the growth in tourism service industries and their multiplier effects, will also continue to grow.

The negative aspects mostly relate to the effects of rapid growth. Unless mitigating actions are taken early they will include the increased likelihood of:

i) more widespread and intense landscape damage;

ii) increased disturbance to wildlife;

iii) density-related deterioration of tourism experiences;

iv) a rise in theft and other delinquent behaviours driven by increasing numbers of tourists and their resources;

v) an increase in vehicle and particularly vehicle-pedestrian accidents in the densely populated Musumba – National Park gate road sector;

vi) particularly in the Mfuwe area, a heightened threat to the national park boundary and access zone because of uncontrolled urban growth (including deforestation and increased soil erosion);

vii) a shortage of skilled human resources.

Solutions must lie in an equally exponential, growth in awareness and understanding of the sensitive relationship between the needs of tourism, the livelihoods of those living with tourism and the viability of the ecosystems on which it is based.

Equally important will be the need for a rapid increase in the responsiveness of national park and district planners and managers to tourist and tourist-related demands and their associated impacts.

8.2 Recommendations Assumptions and Factors Influencing Tourism Performance in the Luangwa Safari Association Area

Early in this report a number of catalytic issues were identified that had contributed to significant tourism growth in the Livingstone area. One objective of this report was to identify catalysts that will contribute to manageable, sustainable and environmentally sensitive tourism growth in the Luangwa Valley.

Before those catalysts are identified there are a number of issues that are worthy of consideration. These are examined in the next paragraphs.

8.2.1 International Issues

8.2.1.1 Political Factors

Figure 2.2.1 on page 8 clearly demonstrated the significant negative impact on tourism in Zimbabwe of political disturbance and uncertainty. Zambia is currently benefiting from Zimbabwe's circumstances, but all should be mindful of the rapidity with which political uncertainties can impact on both existing tourism operations and on present and potential investments in the tourism sector. With an election year looming in Zambia it will be crucial that a clear message is maintained that current tourism and tourism investment-related policies will continue uninterrupted beyond 2006.

8.2.1.2 Regional Initiatives

There is no doubt that regional marketing initiatives by RETOSA are improving awareness of Africa's tourism potential. They are also increasing the potential for intra-African tourism marketing and investment. The downside to this is that competition will increase and Zambia, and the Luangwa Valley will need to be increasingly mindful of identifying, securing and maintaining market niches and standards.

8.2.2 National Issues

Developing a coherent national tourism strategy is an urgent priority for Zambia, particularly in the context of global and regional competition. Some of the issues that warrant consideration in this regard are developed in the following paragraphs.

8.2.2.1 Policy Environment

Tourism Act Zambia is currently without modern Tourism and Hospitality Acts and implementing these new Bills (tourism and hospitality have been separated in the legislation) has taken an unnecessarily long period of time. As the Bills are now in the process of passage through Cabinet and Parliament it is crucial that those involved ensure that there is full integration of the Acts and the Tourism Policy (that was developed in the mid-1990's). The next important document should be a National Tourism Strategy covering the next ten or so years.

Tourism Council of Zambia and the Zambia National Tourism Board Zambia's tourism is ostensibly private sector driven. And in this regard there has been some support for the Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ) – being the umbrella body representing all tourism organizations and operations in Zambia. However, the institution is still weak and if it is to have any meaningful impact there is need for a progressive increase in budgeted financial support to the TCZ, as well as a progressive enhancement of its regulatory powers. Both of these inputs will require consideration by Government of new approaches in the tourism sector. Ideally the TCZ should be in a position to self-regulate its members.

Once that logic is followed, the role of the Zambia National Tourist Board (ZNTB) requires further consideration. It would be cheaper and more effective if national marketing was largely within the private sector, but working closely with the MTENR. This will require a rationalisation of roles in the tourism sector.

Recent difficulties with enforcing tourism fees on restaurants provides further evidence that greater delegation of administrative powers to the TCZ could be a useful step forward, leaving the ultimate regulatory role for tourism to the MTENR. This is an issue that requires rapid action, which should include perusal of effective regional and international models. At the same time the private sector should be very aware that recommendations for institutional and functional strengthening and democratization of the TCZ have been on the table for many years. Positive action is now needed if credibility is to be built that will match Government's expectations of an organization to whom it should provide budgeted support.

A stronger TCZ will assist the LSA and its members and be able to lobby for appropriate shifts in tourism policy and tourism strategies – in response to the realities of international and regional trends.

Labour The cost of labour is generally considered to be high in Zambia. Basic wage levels are cheap in comparison with international rates, but other factors including food, educational, health and funeral benefits raise the real cost of wages. When accompanied by statutory taxes, pension and current legislation on retirement benefits, and given relatively low productivity levels, labour becomes an area of investment disincentive.

While employee grievances are in many circumstances not without their justifications, an employer's view of Zambian labour is in most cases inherently cautious. A cost of labour study in the tourism industry would be highly beneficial in removing misconceptions and supporting appropriate policy changes – probably to the long-term benefit of both employers and employees.

8.2.2.2 The Planning Environment

National Zambia's national planning environment is currently still evolving from the removal of the state planning approaches of the first governments. A more pragmatic and growth-oriented Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP) (2002 to 2005) is presently in use and its replacement under development.

Programme 4 of the TNDP focuses on the Luangwa Valley as one of five tourism development zones in the country, with a budget of US$ 6.8 million and targets for road network development in the North and South Luangwa National Parks, improvements to Mfuwe Airport and visitor centres in Chipata and Mfuwe. Simultaneously, the Government continues to subsidise ZAWA's operations to the tune of some US$ 800,000 per annum.

These initiatives indicate that Government does have a degree of real appreciation of the value of tourism in the national economy. This is further endorsed by the secondary focus of the PRSP being on tourism, with the "long-term vision for the tourism sector [being] to ensure that Zambia becomes a major tourist destination of choice with unique features, which contributes to sustainable economic growth and poverty reduction" (PRSP, 2002).

While these sentiments are applauded, from the viewpoint of the SLNP and other protected areas (both wildlife and forestry), greater efforts must be made to fully capitalise its conservation agencies so that they can grow from positions of financial security. This is an area where donor support can be used effectively, provided that government and the agencies involved have clear, transparent and monitorable plans, and support to employ management that can implement the plans.

This approach would remove the pressure on ZAWA and similar agencies to cover the costs of long-term biodiversity management from their own resources – which by force of circumstance is currently encouraging consideration of policies that are insufficiently researched, or inherently unsustainable.

Provincial and District Planning In the context of decentralised government, provincial and district planning administrations will now have much greater authority. This requires that ZAWA, the LSA and CBOs start to develop a much closer working relationship with these entities – and have the delegated authority to do so.

Key issues for district administrations in the Luangwa Valley include:

i) a major enhancement of their urban and district planning and planning control functions;
ii) a rationalised and coordinated approach to local taxation; and
iii) the progressive development of capacity in the coordination and integration of administrations in sub-district areas and the planning and management of their resources.

8.2.2.3 Working Practice

Codes of Practice Associated with further strengthening of the TCZ is the pressing need for the development of codes of practice for the tourism industry. These should cover the whole gamut of the trade, ranging from tourism guiding, to standards in guest houses, lodges and hotels, to training standards and accident and standardised liability insurance requirements.

As tourist numbers, densities and competition increases, so the chance of accidents and customer dissatisfaction will increase, with potentially serious impacts from litigation and exposure in the international press. Kenya has suffered serious reductions in tourist arrivals from this problem.

As the LSA has already pioneered tourism guiding standards, codes of practice is an area that the LSA could usefully develop and contribute to a national debate. Once again some work has already been done on a framework for standard setting under the Tourism Development Programme.

Training The foreseeable shortage in trained tourism personnel in the LSA has been identified in Chapter 3. This is an issue that also has a national dimension and requires serious consideration. A combination of a small existing cadre of trained tourism personnel, exponential growth in the tourism sector and the impact of HIV/AIDS is already being felt in tourism development.

Given the further reluctance of young trainees (in catering, accounting, housekeeping and so on) to work away from the main cities, there is a compounded difficulty. Presently this is being off-set by the employment of expatriate staff, which is both expensive and subject to lengthy, uncertain and expensive immigration procedures.

A useful immediate exercise for the TCZ would be to establish the present and future demands for trained tourism personnel in different categories and areas and to lobby for training support and short-term immigration policies that will support future needs and off-set immediate shortfalls. As literacy and training levels are particularly low in the Musumba/Mfuwe area the LSA should consider proposals to put to the TCZ, which might include suggestions for training incentives.

Hunting Licensing System The present hunting licensing system has shortcomings in the structure and application of licenses that have been identified for many years. While ZAWA has done much to improve the professionalism and simplicity of the existing system, the historical shortcomings still exist. A clean sheet review of the hunting licensing system is recommended that would:

- draw on best practice in the region;
- create a more flexible marketing arrangement for safari hunts;
- rationalise safari and resident hunting (possibly on a geographic basis and possibly also examining better utilisation and management of “Open Areas”;
- review and reorganise the resident, district and special license systems;
- establish a scientific, transparent and rational approach to quota setting in hunting areas; and

- develop a rational approach to the allocation of revenues from hunting among the main stakeholders.

This too would contribute to establishing a situation of mutual advantage to all players in GMAs and Open Areas and better define the economic value of consumptive and non-consumptive tourism in marginal land areas.

Hunting Revenues Simplifying the sharing of revenues in hunting blocks between ZAWA and CRBs was discussed in Chapter 6. The implications in the SLNP hunting blocks would be as shown in Table 8.2.3.3.1 (based on 2004 Lupande GMA concession fee/hunting license data).

The table indicates that the contribution to district councils (who currently get nothing) would increase significantly and CRBs slightly. ZAWA's income from these hunting blocks would decrease by approximately 27%. The difficulty that ZAWA will face with this scenario, aside from the impact on direct earnings, is their ability to provide the administration and law enforcement services generating the "other charges". On the other hand, if ZAWA were to progressively withdraw its permanent establishment in the GMAs and use those resources to supply the services, this would produce a reduction in both fixed and variable operating costs and gain legitimate revenues from GMAs.

Table 8.2.3.3.1 Possible Future Hunting Revenue Split

Revenue Source/Destination	2004 Totals	ZAWA	District Councils	CRBs
Now				
Concession fees	53,000	53,000	0	0
Hunting licenses	122,226	61,113	0	72,095
Total	175,226	114,113	0	72,095
New Scenario				
Concession fees *1	53,000	10,600	21,200	21,200
Hunting licenses *2	122,226	36,668	0	85,558
Other charges *3	0	30,000	-6,000	-24,000
Total	175,226	77,268	15,200	82,758
%age of current position		67.71%		114.79%
Notes:				
*1 - ZAWA takes 20%, Councils 40% and CRBs 40%				
*2 - ZAWA takes 35%, Councils 0% and CRBs 65%				
*3 - ZAWA gains administration and management costs deducted from Council and CRB shares				

Notes *3 a minimum estimate for law enforcement support and administrative costs for the five blocks.

Applying new ways of looking at the situation, including redesigning and simplifying the hunting regulatory framework (to include transferring some responsibilities to hunting outfitters) offers possibilities. Current ideas for the use of donor funds to purchase blocks of hunting licenses for CRBs offer guaranteed revenues to ZAWA and increased management control of hunting quotas to CRBs.

However, a "home-grown", long-term, solution such as that suggested above will preclude the unintentional, but inevitable pitfall of donor dependence. A possible compromise could also involve the application of donor funds as an interim subsidy during a transition period, preferably to fund reorganisation and institutional and physical capacity building among all players (ZAWA, CRBs and district councils).

A satisfactory outcome will significantly improve the setting for better management of the GMAs, and also the framework within which the LSA members could participate more effectively.

8.2.3 Local Issues

8.2.3.1 District Natural Resources Management

There is a growing awareness that historical approaches to natural resources management in GMAs (although innovative when developed), have been overtaken by the rapidity of political and economic developments. The lack of a coherent and clear administrative structure for natural resources management within districts is now creating negative impacts in all areas – with spin-off impacts on tourism development through multiple taxation, unrealistic resource costs and inadequate planning.

Government has now put its weight behind the decentralisation process. This will enhance the role of district councils, but unless it is thought through effectively it will lead to further conflicts of interest between statutory bodies, line ministries and traditional leaders and the councils, as well as increasing financial demands from councils on tourism enterprises. It is suggested that the LSA initiates a multi-party discussion group to voice its concerns and identify possible solutions before the initiative is lost to bureaucratic processes.

At the same time, preliminary evidence suggests that non-consumptive tourism can make large financial and economic contributions to protected areas. Given the extensive areas normally allocated to hunting blocks it would seem timely for a more innovative and efficient approach to the use of GMAs, especially in balancing the allocation of space for consumptive and non-consumptive tourism uses. With careful planning this could significantly increase revenues, employment, and economic diversification in the Luangwa GMAs, as well as provide additional space for the anticipated growth in tourism over the next ten years.

8.2.3.2 Environmental Issues

The Luangwa Valley has been identified as a regional centre of biodiversity and contains interesting habitat complexes as well as endemic giraffe and wildebeest sub-species. Furthermore, the fragile nature of the Luangwa Valley floor – related to the underlying Karroo geology and the extensive areas of alluvial deposits – has been long appreciated. Identifying sound environmental land use practices for the region, and its upstream catchments, will be central to securing its biodiversity.

Wild animal population management is equally vital. While possible long-term natural cycles of animal (particularly elephant and hippo) density and habitat response may have been viable management options historically, range restrictions on these mammals now require a more proactive approach to wildlife ecology and management (FAO, 1978).

Effective proactive management responses in the absence of scientific information will be excursions in disaster management and must be avoided. ZAWA presently has few financial resources it can allocate to research, and few qualified and experienced researchers. Critical strategic moves must involve increasing awareness in government of the need for biodiversity costs to be subsidised, and for ZAWA and the LSA to take a more active role in encouraging targeted research projects from local and international research institutions with the funds to support useful outputs.

8.2.3.3 Tourism Growth Projections

Projecting growth in tourist arrival numbers is a complex issue in a situation of high existing growth. Will current growth continue, will growth create growth on growth, will the system begin to reach saturation and result in slower growth? These are all possibilities.

We have projected tourism growth making clear assumptions that both internal and external factors will not have major negative impacts over the next ten years to 2015. The projections that follow both extrapolate from data sets of the last few years. The first projection is for growth in national tourist arrivals. Because the breakdown into different classes of tourist is now dated and uncertain, only the total tourist figures have been used.

Growth in Tourist Arrivals in Zambia Figure 8.2.3.3.1 presents a growth model based on two assumptions:

i) due to growing market synergies (especially the Visit Zambia 2005 programme) and infrastructure development, growth over the next few years will accelerate from 11.86% (the average from 1999 to 2003), to a maximum of 16% in 2009 (with an average of 14% per annum);

ii) thereafter growth will flatten rapidly and then slow as Zambia reaches its market potential and growth begins to exceed capacity, moving from 14% growth in 2010 to 5% in 2015, with an average over the period of 8.5%.

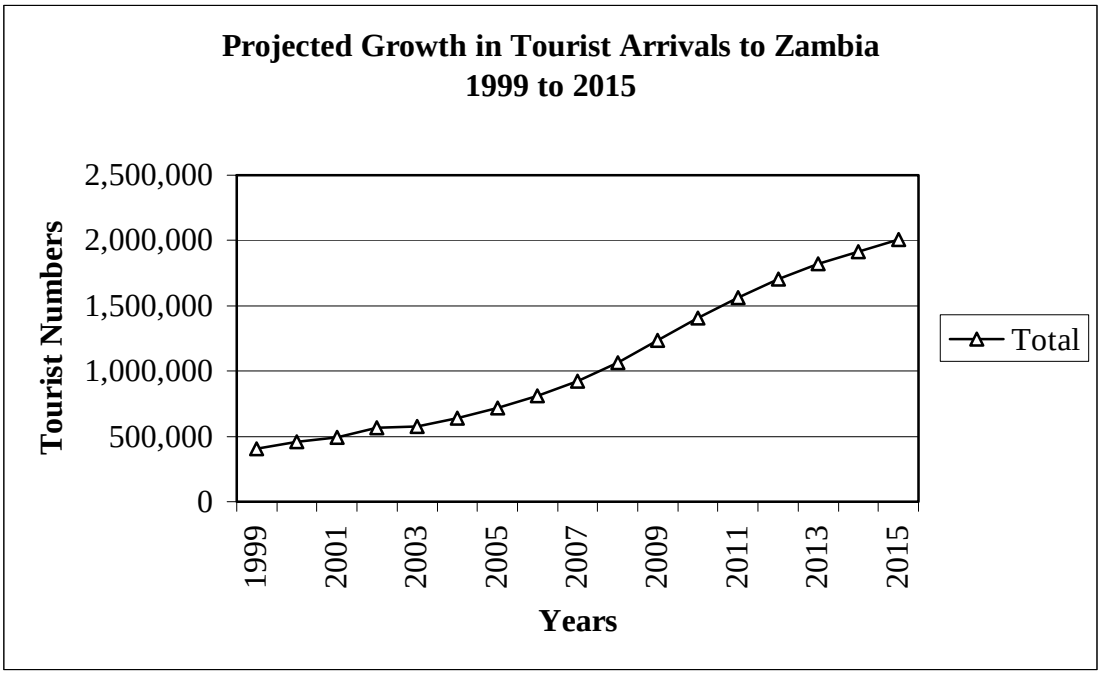
This projection will yield just over 700,000 tourist (all categories) in 2005, 1.4 million in 2010 and just over 2 million in 2015. It should be noted that Zimbabwe recorded around 2 million tourists in 1999 and as noted earlier, Zambia should be able to emulate or exceed Zimbabwe's historical performance. In that context the projection is can be considered conservative.

Tourist Arrival Projection for the South Luangwa National Park

The second projection is for growth in tourist arrivals to the SLNP. From 1998 to 2003 growth averaged just less than 10% per annum – slightly lower than the national figure. This is as one might expect because all visitors to the SLNP are likely to be bone fide tourists.

Projecting the SLNP tourist arrivals is complicated by the presence of data for both international and domestic tourists. Average growth in these two categories since 1998 has been 8.01% and 16.93%, respectively.

Figure 8.2.3.3.1 Projected Growth in All Tourist Arrivals in Zambia to 2015



Source: Department of Tourism, 2004

Currently the SLNP captures just under 3.5% of all tourists arriving in Zambia. The present projection increases this percentage slightly to 3.55% in 2015. The projections shown in Figure 8.2.3.3.2 for the SLNP are based on the following assumptions:

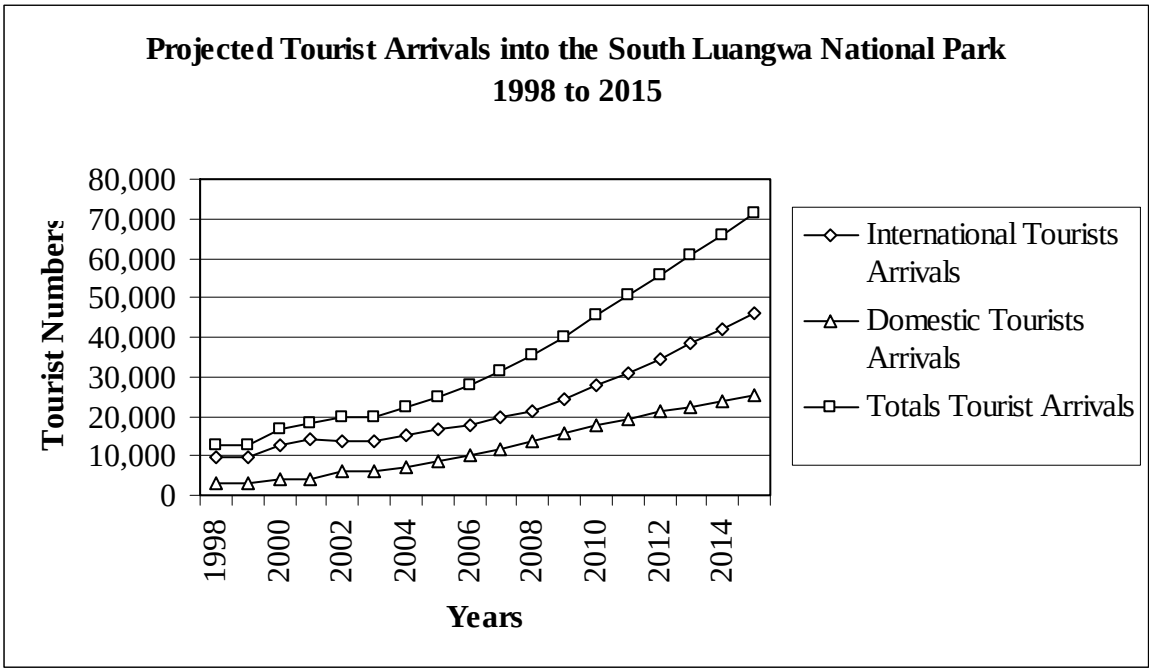
i) international tourist arrivals will grow by an average of 12% per annum over the period to 2009, starting at an extrapolated figure of 9% and rising to 14% in 2009 – in the light of existing trends and the impact of the Visit Zambia 2005 marketing.

   Thereafter growth is projected to slow progressively to 9.5% per annum in 2015 – still building on the national parks international reputation for a "real" wilderness experience – to a total of nearly 46,000 international tourists (compared with the 2003 total of just under 14,000;

ii) by comparison domestic tourist numbers have been projected to grow at just under their present rate of 16.9% per annum, from a total of 6,000 to just under 16,000 in 2009.

   From 2010 growth is expected to slow to 6.5% per annum, as the market is absorbed and spending power limits provide further controls. The projected 2015 total of 25,000 domestic tourists indicates that a substantial proportion of these tourists will be Zambian nationals. To what extent the Luangwa Valley will be able to compete with the multiple attractions of the Victoria Falls, and with international attractions, will depend on a combination of disposable income, pricing, access costs and marketing.

Figure 8.2.3.3.2 Projected Growth in Tourist Arrivals to the South Luangwa National Park



Source: Luangwa Safari Association, 2004

8.2.3.4 Projected Tourist Densities and Impacts

The up-shot of this projected growth in visitors to the SLNP is that approximately three times as many tourists will have to be accommodated. There are estimated to be approximately 65,000 bed nights available at the moment, so it is expected that growth will absorb existing bed night capacity in about 2013 (with the simplistic assumption that all available beds equal beds with tourists in them). In reality single tourists, cancellations, marketing inefficiencies, transportation problems and other constraints mean that a maximum of possibly 85% of all potential beds can be filled through a year – say 55,000 bed nights. This total could be met in 2012.

Allowing for these inefficiencies some 83,000 bed nights will have to be available in 2015 if this projection proves accurate. This will mean a growth of 23,000 bed nights – or approximately 80 beds. This is equivalent to more than two large lodges, or seven bush camps, or a combination thereof.

Of more interest is the impact that these tourist numbers will have on tourist densities in the national park. There are two key considerations:

i) how will increased tourist numbers be dispersed in the vicinity of the Mfuwe Bridge; and

ii) how can vehicle densities in the park be maintained at the ideal value of around 0.1 vehicle per km of road?

According to the projection, overall tourist population densities in the 9,000 km^2 of the national park will increase from 0.09 per km^2 now to 0.26 per km^2 in 2015 – assuming that only some 10% of the national park is actually used by tourists. If the total area used was increased to say 15%, then tourist densities would reduce to 0.18 per km^2.

Unfortunately, as approximately 76% of all accommodation currently used in the LSA area is within 15km of Mfuwe Bridge, or passes over it regularly, this situation is seriously compounded. In effect over 300 tourists per day are using an area of approximately 150 km^2 – or two tourists per km^2. With a threefold increase in total tourist numbers by 2015 this could increase tourist densities around the Mfuwe Bridge to 6 per km^2 in 2015.

Measured in vehicle terms, and assuming five passengers per vehicle, an acceptable theoretical vehicle density of 0.17 per km of road, increases to an unacceptable 0.38 per km. A proposed optimum level for high quality, low density driven safaris is 0.1 vehicle per km of road. To maintain a vehicle density level near 0.1 will require approximately 500km of road – or an additional 375km of road developed over the next ten years (37km per year).

It is in these circumstances that the importance of reliable and sufficiently detailed statistics can be appreciated. Equally, it demonstrates that innovative thinking will required over the next five years to offset what will otherwise probably be a growing disincentive to the Luangwa Valley's traditional tourist clients.

Tourist arrival densities and flows at Mfuwe Airport will also warrant close inspection in the near future. Modelling of peak flight arrival times, particularly in the handling of aircraft, luggage and security and immigration processes will be needed and will probably determine a significant extension of the current floor area of the airport and possibly also of the parking apron.

8.2.3.5 ZAWA Operations

South Luangwa Area Management Unit One contribution that ZAWA can make to securing sustainable and environmentally sensitive tourism growth in the Luangwa Valley area has been discussed above in the context of the hunting industry.

Its other real supporting role will be in the full implementation of its Five Year Strategic Plan – 2002 to 2007 and its successor documents. Areas of particular relevance to the LSA members and the public will be in:

i) the real decentralisation of management responsibility and authority, and of its budgeting and accounting function;

ii) improvement in skills levels and numbers of key personnel in ZAWA's SLAMU management team

iii) providing necessary investment in additional road and staff infrastructure in the national park, and continued and improved approaches to law enforcement;

iv) encouraging the National Road Agency to upgrade key access roads into the Mfuwe area (particularly the Chipata-Mfuwe and Petauke-Mfuwe roads); and

v) improved tourist information facilities.

The SLAMU Phase V plan includes provision for additional roads and airfields, and it would appear that earlier plans for a trans-Luangwa route linking Eastern and Northern Provinces fortunately, have been cancelled. But there are several key issues that need more critical examination.

Firstly, development in and around the national park has concentrated on a narrow riverine strip along the Luangwa. As a result the vast majority of the national park area is barely utilised for tourism. There are difficulties in access these up-slope areas: lack of roads; difficulty in accessing water; lower animal densities; high tsetse fly infestations and locally, higher risks of sleeping sickness; and limited numbers of access points across the Luangwa River and down the Muchinga Escarpment.

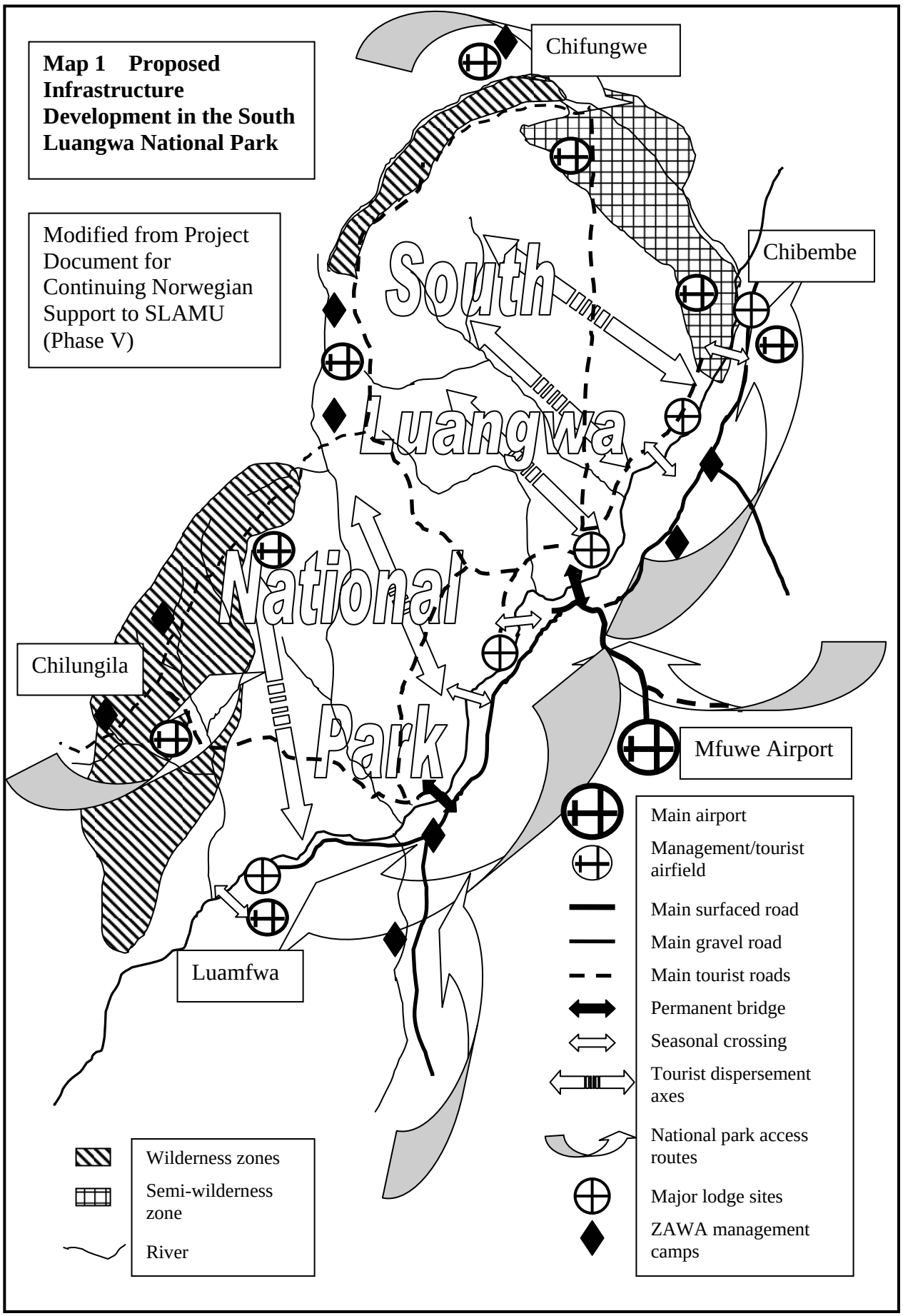
Overcoming these problems requires careful planning, but much of the basic research and planning is already available. For example, Appendix 4-B, Plan II of the UNDP/FAO Tourism Plan for the Luangwa Valley sets out a detailed plan for roads and bridging points that is linked to a variety of points of special interest around the national park.

It differs markedly from the Phase V proposals in two notable and important respects. There is much more emphasis in the UNDP/FAO document on east-west linkages within the national park that follow the tributary interfluves and create looping accessing for tourism into the hinterland. There is also emphasis on access all along the east bank of the Luangwa River – thus permitting greater all-weather access to more crossing points (see Map 1).

Most documents accept that all-weather access is a variable term, but should mean that there is all weather access most of the time – allowing for periodic flood passage across drift-type drainage structures, and probably a prohibition on heavy transport during the wettest months (January to early March).

Using this definition a reasonable extension of the tourist operating season could be accomplished in many areas in November and December, and again in April and May. It would also improve access for park management and law enforcement, and most especially decongest the present single permanent crossing point into the national park at Mfuwe Bridge by encouraging investment away from it. Increasing the number of approved seasonal pontoon crossings would also help achieve that objective. Providing seasonal airfields in the back country would provide a further mechanism for decongesting the road from Mfuwe Airport into the national park.

The other area needing additional work, where adequate research results do not exist yet, is in developing a network of secondary game viewing roads. These roads should be designed using queuing theory, inter-visibility indices, load factors and other techniques, to ensure that vehicle densities are held below a proposed level of 0.1 vehicles/km.


Map 1 Proposed Infrastructure Development in the South Luangwa National Park
Modified from Project Document for Continuing Norwegian Support to SLAMU (Phase V)
Chifungwe
Chibembe
South
Luangwa
National
Park
Chilungila
Mfuwe Airport
Luamfwa
Main airport
Management/tourist airfield
Main surfaced road
Main gravel road
Main tourist roads
Permanent bridge
Seasonal crossing
Tourist dispersement axes
National park access routes
Major lodge sites
ZAWA management camps
Wilderness zones
Semi-wilderness zone
River

To make this affordable will need new approaches to road design. At present SLAMU has three categories of road: a) major gravelled roads, secondary gravelled roads and graded roads on in-situ material (with or without localised embankments).

At vehicle densities of the magnitude being proposed on most national park roads and the travel speed that are designated, wide carriageway gravelled roads are an unnecessary luxury. Provided there is a safe passing width then a single class of narrower, secondary gravelled road would be adequate. This would substantially reduce the construction, and recurrent and periodic maintenance costs.

Two lower classes of graded roads could then be considered:

a) those with a similar width to the secondary gravelled roads (say 4m plus shoulders); and

b) graded tracks with periodic passing bays.

By careful route selection to maximise travel on sandy and silty soils, a network of these roads could substantially increase the total length of tourist roads and at relatively low cost, particularly if care was also taken to ensure that the network design was functionally efficient (i.e. it created a natural hierarchy of roads).

Planning Partnerships Hitherto, ZAWA has considered national park planning and management solely its responsibility. While that is undisputed in a legal and regulatory sense, new circumstances now warrant a re-think of that policy. Developing national parks and tourist facilities must take consideration of the hopes and fears of the private sector who are the drivers for these developments.

As these private sector players grow in number and contribution to ZAWA's viability, so it should be important that a more consultative approach is developed to national park planning and management – without losing the final right of veto and regulatory control. In effect much of this is already happening between ZAWA and the LSA. But formalising the relationship through a Consultative Park Management Committee would offer several advantages:

i) it would formally recognise the important roles played by all the stakeholders (and membership could also include representation from the resident private sector, its businesses and CBOs);

ii) it would create a formalised periodic forum for discussion and contributions;

iii) it would allow grievances to be aired openly and require mechanisms to be developed for grievance procedures;

iv) it would bring on board a wider range of perspectives on core issues; and

vi) it would provide mechanisms for expertise to identified that may not be available within any one organisation.

The outcome could also encourage the LSA to develop funding support to commonly agreed agenda issues (which could range from a jointly operated, attractive, tourist information office, to planned approaches to health, education and training delivery).

8.2.4 Growth Catalysts

Mention was made at the beginning of this report of the importance of identifying real catalysts for tourism development. This last section looks at those issues and makes some further recommendations. Without a critical mass, tourism growth will inevitably be slow and mechanisms for achieving it are, therefore, paramount.

8.2.4.1 Electricity

Improved reliability of electrical supply and increased availability will reduce operating costs for tourism operations. Provided there is balanced development, there should also be spin-off benefits for village electrification and electrification of health services.

8.2.4.2 Telecommunications

Secure telephone and internet connection through the Mfuwe exchange are improving, but there is still room for improvement. Adequate telecommunications is probably the most important technology supporting the tourism industry. One rider is that a environmentally sensitive policy on telephone and cell phone masts should be a prerequisite for national park areas.

8.2.4.3 Airline Services (International and Domestic)

Increased direct international flight access into Mfuwe (only flights from Malawi currently arrive at Mfuwe) would increase the direct tourist catchment area. Achieving this may be through lobbying to airlines and the airline regulatory authorities, and improving linkages between existing international and domestic airlines.

These initiatives should also be accompanied by immediate thought to architectural solutions to handling present and anticipated increased passenger flows through Mfuwe Airport, and also to handling and managing a wider range of larger aircraft types (including parking stand strength, refuelling capacity and aircraft servicing).

Domestic airline services and schedules are improving steadily, but there is need for further thought to improving the scheduling of connections to international flights arriving in Lusaka.

8.2.4.4 District Access Roads

The importance of well maintained road access into the Mfuwe area and along the east bank of the Luangwa River has been discussed.

All weather access from Chipembe (and its link to Chipata) in the north to Luamfwa in the south should be a priority. This would immediately offer increased opportunities for additional pontoon crossing points into the national park. It is considered that access to present and potential private sector lodges further south should be a secondary priority.

Of equal importance is a bituminous surface upgrade to the Chipata – Mfuwe and gravelled upgrade to the Petauke – Mfuwe road, as well as minor upgrades on roads accessing the north-western and south-western corners of the national park.

The key issue with road access to points from outside the national park is that they should be planned for, and be accompanied by planning and regulatory policies, that encourage the diversification of access points into the national park.

The improvement of roads always brings the downside of increased traffic and vehicle speed, with a close correlation to accidents and road damage. Designs that force reduced speed (through calming devises and speed limits) will be increasingly important in the Musumba-Mfuwe area with its high population density along the roads.

8.2.4.5 The Cost of Goods and Services

The costs of providing goods and services to the LSA area are at least 15% more than core costs in Lusaka. Finding ways to reduce this overhead through increased economies of scale should be a priority for the LSA.

8.2.4.6 Taxation

Multiple taxation and tedious regulatory requirements have long been the bane of the tourism industry in Zambia. Not much has been achieved in reducing this administrative and financial load on the industry – and it should be an area of priority. While each tax may in itself be small, the cumulative effect of the multiplicity of forms of taxation is onerous in administrative time and cost.

If the LSA was to address only two areas of financial impact on its members it would be worth addressing taxation, and overheads on goods and services. Together these probably represent some 30% of turnover.

8.2.4.7 Township Planning

Preparing a formal urban development plan, and associated planning by-laws, for the Masumba/Mfuwe area, and making provision for the expected growth in the population, will be critical to maintaining a tourist-friendly approach to the national park – and to maintaining an environmental buffer zone along the east bank of the Luangwa River. As forest biodiversity is high in many areas, the use of forest reserves, or joint forest management may offer buffering solutions.

LSA should consider supporting the framing of zoning laws and council bye-laws and ensuring that they will address the pressing problems of deforestation, soil erosion and conversion of land use, as key areas for its involvement.

This could be facilitated by establishing a dialogue between the district council, community representatives (business and other) and the tourism industry (in its Governmental and private sector forms) to resolve immediate urban sprawl problems until a clear and controlled planning framework and protocol is in place.

8.2.4.8 National Park Planning

The future of the SLNP depends to a large extent on the innovation and demand from the private sector. A first step to merging the objectives and priorities of ZAWA and the LSA members should be through a widened dialogue with ZAWA to address anticipated tourism density and product diversification issues.

This should include:

i) consideration of ways of utilising a wider range of habitats and of a more extensive approach to use of the whole National Park area;

ii) mechanisms for developing sites of cultural, archaeological, palaeontological and geological/landscape interest (with suitable provisos for protecting these sites),

iii) while also ensuring that the low density "Luangwa Experience" is not compromised by congestion in the main entrance gate area and the limited network of all-weather roads;

iv) identifying and developing more all-weather access points into the National Park – although this is a difficult physical problem along the Luangwa River; and

v) designing more attractive entrance structures with associated visitor information centres.

8.2.4.9.1 Innovation in Tourist Products

If Zambia and the SLNP area are to maintain their market share of wildlife-based tourism, then continual innovation is needed. Regulatory authorities must be mindful of the need for constant innovation and encourage appropriate new initiatives.

8.2.4.10 Tourist Circuits

The Livingstone area has developed principally on the back of the attraction of the Victoria Falls, but the associated benefits of short tourism circuits into Botswana, Namibia and Zimbabwe should not be underestimated.

The LSA members could do much to increase the inherent attraction of the Luangwa Valley by developing tourism linkages with nearby adjacent areas, particularly along the Muchinga escarpment, the Bangweulu basin, Shiwa Ng'andu, the North Luangwa and Luambe National Parks and facilities in Malawi.

One of the competitive advantages held by Kenya and Tanzania is the wildlife and beach combination. Future thought should be given to establishing similar linkages with Lakes Tanganyika and Malawi, and Mozambique.

8.2.4.10 Cooperative Approaches

Finally, the growth in tourism in Zambia has long been constrained by limited infrastructure, low numbers, regional competition and varying policy environments.

Well-planned and steady growth in tourism in the South Luangwa National Park area demands a cooperative approach to matching the revenue expectations of ZAWA, communities and the district council to the realistic ability of the private sector tourism sector to contribute (without compromising their basic profitability needs that underpin future growth and consolidation) within a competitive regional and global market.

Success with these ventures will:

- match park investments with agreed tourist growth projections and zone plans;

- place peripheral developments around the National Park into ordered frameworks that will be easier to service and have a reduced negative impact on tourists and tourist perceptions;

- assure the local community of sustainable revenue contributions to their livelihoods; and

- importantly, gradually develop a trusting and constructive working partnership among the main stakeholders. As noted earlier this could be encouraged by a more interactive approach to national park management through the creation of a Consultative Park Management Committee.

At a future juncture it would also be beneficial for the LSA to consider extending its membership to photographic and hunting outfitters in rest of the Luangwa Valley. This would considerably enhance the opportunity for planning and management debates and overviews regarding the whole Luangwa ecosystem.

In global terms Luangwa Valley tourism is miniscule, but in a Zambian context its contribution to employment, GDP and government revenues is significant. Moreover, real tourism growth in the LSA area is a recent phenomenon, with positive parameters being experienced only within the last five years. Present projections suggest that within ten years, with real cooperation among the local partners, these numbers will probably have trebled. Government benefits will grow accordingly.

It is worth remembering that the tourism industry, because of its wide interactions, has a significant economic multiplier effect on the economy and on government revenues. The nature of Zambia's tourism multiplier effect has still to be evaluated, but a study in Kenya (TTC, 1996) suggests that it may exceed a factor of 2. Thus if the LSA turnover figure is taken to represent tourist dollars spent in the LSA area the government is currently likely to earn in excess of US$ 6 million.

9. Closing Remarks

Crystal ball grazing is an activity for those lucky enough to have time on their hands. The SLNP area requires more immediate and decisive actions if accumulating negative impacts are not to change it beyond recognition in the near future.

One possible ideal view of the future SLNP would be of a balanced spatial distribution of development and activities, brought about by incentives for tourist operators to utilise the full catenary sequence between the eastern and western escarpment and the Luangwa River. The present concentration of development along the narrow Luangwa riverine strip (less than 10% of the national park area) would be diluted and the tourist opportunities enhanced by the resulting more diverse and interesting range of tourist experiences.

Another key development would be a thoroughly balanced system of access points into the national park. This will require all-weather access along the east bank of the Luangwa river to and between Luamfwa and Chibembe. Tourist road access from the west would also be beneficial through Lusiwasi and Mutinondo. However, the historical temptation to marry access into the National Park with inter-provincial transit routes between the Eastern and Northern Provinces will hopefully be rejected. It should be appreciated that the National Park is a recreational area, not a transit route. The two objectives have very different requirements.

The real selling point of the SLNP is its low tourist densities, something that is increasing rare in world tourism. With effective national park planning, the 9,000 km^2 of national park should be capable of carrying higher tourist numbers than it does now, but still retain to-day's low densities. This is not without its problems. The National Park by and large has a reducing carrying capacity for wildlife as one moves away from the Luangwa channel. Also as noted earlier, access to perennial potable water is more problematic away from the main alluvial channel. On the other hand, vistas tend to improve as one proceeds up the catena towards the escarpment, and the diversity of landscapes and of animal species (although the latter at lower densities) also increases.

Perhaps the most obvious dream is for a more uniform and less nodular distribution of human population and economic activity around the national park, thus reducing environmental and other pressures on key tourist entrance areas (principally Musumba/Mfuwe), on the resources of the national park itself and spreading the distribution of tourist benefits more widely and evenly. The future of the South Luangwa National Park will depend in large measure on how effectively the multitude of potential stakeholders can reach consensus on key issues and ensure that resolutions are implemented effectively. The LSA tourist operator group includes among its numbers some of the best trained and educated, and increasingly influential members of the local community. Tourism can provide an increasingly bright and stimulating future for these individuals.

Is in their interest as much as any other group, to develop sound arguments that will demonstrate elegantly and conclusively to the communities and administrators of Mambwe District that tourism in the South Luangwa National Park and its associated GMAs can offer a secure and sustained livelihood - provided its key wildlife and environmental assets are maintained.

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Annex 1

Recommended LSA Tourism Statistical Template

South Luangwa Tourism Association – Tourism Statistics

Year						
Company						
Type of Entity (hotel, lodge, camp, camp site)						
No. of Company Entities	**Hotel**	**Lodge**	**Permanent Camp**	**Seasonal Camp**	**Bush Camp**	**Camp Site**
Names						
Production						
Bed Nights						
Total available bed nights						
Total bed nights recorded						
Vehicles						
No. viewing vehicles						
ZAWA contributions						
Park entry fees						
Fixed lease fees						
Variable lease fees						
Other						

Accounts						
Total capital investment						
Total annual turnover						
Profit before tax						
Full-Time Employees *2						
Expatriates						
Zambian nationals						
Qualified guides						
Total value of wage packet						
Total value of wage packet into area						
Casual Employees (part time)						
Total casual employees						
Total casual employees from the area						
Total casual wage packet						
Total casual wage packet to area						

Community Contributions						
Type of contributions to local community social services: (schools, clinics, CRBs, police, etc.)						
US$ value of contributions to local social services						
Services other than labour bought from local community sources: (wood, thatch, sand, etc.)						
Value of purchases from local community						
Expenditure in local shops and services						
NOTES						
*1 Any tourist service enterprise (curio producer, curio retailer, material producer, etc.)						
*2 Employed for a full season						