

Developing a pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe

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DECLARATION BY THE STUDENT

Please take note that most of the work in this study has been completed pre-COVID-19

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Prof E Slabbert

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to:

- My God who guided me to complete this thesis amid my health challenges. You deserve all praise.
- My parents, Junior and Felix Chipfuwa, for bringing me into this world and for supporting all my educational endeavours. May God spare you for a long time still.
- My husband Liberty Chidzuu, for the support you provided during the data collection phase and writing of the dissertation. You were also my thesis editor and for that I am grateful. You kept pushing me even when my health was failing me.
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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to develop a pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe, using a case study of Chitomborwizi East small-scale commercial farms, an area in Makonde District in Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. The main income-generating activity in the Ward at the time of the study was small-scale agriculture but poverty was worsening because of low annual rainfall, frequent droughts, high input costs, limited access to bank loans and reduction of government subsidies for farmers, as well as the unfavourable global macro-economic situation. To stimulate economic activities in multiple sectors, tourism was targeted by the researcher as an option that could improve livelihoods in the area, given its potential for agri-tourism, water-based and cultural and heritage tourism.

The objectives of the study were to analyse tourism development theories and pro-poor tourism theories, conduct a resource analysis for pro-poor tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward, determine if domestic tourism demand existed for rural tourism in the area and how key multisectoral stakeholders perceived the development of tourism. Questionnaires were distributed to urban residents of Gunhill in Chinhoyi Town and semi-structured interviews were conducted to determine the perceptions of the community, its leadership, government departments and parastatals on tourism development in the area. The responses from the interviews and questionnaires were thematically and statistically analysed, presented and discussed.

The study showed that there was indeed potential for diversifying rural livelihoods by harnessing tourism opportunities to increase income levels. Development should be endogenous to the rural community, but this is only possible if community social capital is developed. Successful farming formed the basis for agricultural tourism which could be complemented by other attractions. However, the government would need to upgrade infra- and super-structure to adequately support tourism development. Key findings also indicated the need to build accommodation and provide quality tourism amenities to service the tourist trade. The results were utilised in the development of the pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe which is the main contribution of the study. This framework follows a different approach in developing tourism since it is foreseen that the current economic circumstances will not change significantly in the near

future. This framework is not dependent on the government which seems as the right approach at this point in time . It was concluded that domestic tourists could be attracted to the area and thus play a vital role in the economic development of rural Chitomborwizi East and poverty alleviation.

Keywords

Agri-tourism, community-based tourism, development theories, poverty alleviation, pro-poor tourism, rural tourism, Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis, Zimbabwe

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY 1

1.1	Introduction.....	1
1.2	Background of the Study.....	2
1.2.1	Poverty Defined.....	2
1.2.2	Poverty Incidence in Zimbabwe.....	6
1.2.3	Economic Development Policies and Poverty Alleviation in Zimbabwe	12
1.2.4	Tourism and Poverty Alleviation	25
1.2.5	Tourism and Poverty Alleviation in Zimbabwe	30
1.2.6	Tourism in rural Areas in Zimbabwe	34
1.3	Statement of the Problem	45
1.4	Aim of the Study	48
1.4.1	Objective 1: To Analyse Tourism Development Theories.....	48
1.4.2	Objective 2: To Analyse Pro-poor Tourism Development Theories	49
1.4.3	Objective 3: To Conduct a Pro-poor Tourism Resources Analysis in Chitomborwizi Ward in Zimbabwe.....	49
1.4.4	Objective 4: To Determine if there is Domestic Tourism Demand in Chitomborwizi East Ward	49
1.4.5	Objective 5: To Explain Stakeholders' Perceptions of Tourism Development in Chitomborwizi East Ward	49
1.4.6	Objective 6: To Propose a Pro-poor Framework that can be Implemented in Chitomborwizi East Ward	50
1.4.7	Objective 7: To Reach Conclusions and Make Recommendations for Pro- poor Tourism Development in Chitomborwizi Ward	50
1.5	Defining Concepts.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.1	Poverty Alleviation	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.2	Poverty Reduction.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.3	Pro-poor Tourism	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.4	Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.5	Rural area	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.5.6	Rural Tourism	Error! Bookmark not defined.
1.6	Research Structure.....	50
1.6.1	Chapter 1: Introduction and Background of Study	50
1.6.2	Chapter 2: The Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework	51
1.6.3	Chapter 3: Tourism Development Models and Theories	51
1.6.4	Chapter 4: Tourism and Poverty Alleviation Models and Theories.....	51
1.6.5	Chapter 5: Research Methodology.....	51
1.6.6	Chapter 6: Data Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion	52
1.6.7	Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations.....	52

CHAPTER 2 SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK..... 54

2.1	Introduction.....	54
2.2	Concept of Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Demystified	54
2.3	Vulnerability Context.....	59
2.4	Livelihood Assets.....	61
2.4.1	Human Capital.....	62
2.5	Social Capital	65
2.5.1	The three dimensions of Social Capital.....	66
2.5.2	Four Dimensions of Social Capital	68
2.6	Natural Capital	71
2.7	Physical Capital	72
2.7.1	Air transportation infrastructure.....	72
2.7.2	Rail and Road Infrastructure	73
2.7.3	Information Communication Technologies infrastructure	74
2.7.4	Water Infrastructure and Sanitation	75
2.7.5	Power Infrastructure and Associated Challenges.....	77
2.8	Financial Capital	80
2.9	Institutions, Structures and Processes	84
2.9.1	Tourism Structures at National Level	84
2.9.2	Institutions and Policies	88
2.10	Livelihood Strategies and Outcomes.....	89
2.11	Sustainable Livelihoods Application in Tourism	96
2.12	Chapter Summary	100

CHAPTER 3 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT THEORIES AND MODELS..... 102

3.1	Introduction.....	102
3.2	Evolution of Development	102
3.3	Modernization Theory	107
3.4	The Dependency Theory	109
3.5	The Neo-Classical Economic Theory	115
3.6	Alternative Development	117
3.7	Sustainable Tourism Development	120
3.7.1	Community Based Tourism	123
3.8	Alternatives to Development/ Post-Development.....	129
3.9	Chapter Summary	135

CHAPTER 4 TOURISM AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION..... 137

4.1	Introduction.....	137
4.2	Pro-Poor Tourism Defined	137
4.3	Pro-Poor Tourism and its Contestations.....	139
4.4	Value Chain Analysis in Tourism	149
4.5	Conclusion.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 156

5.1	Introduction.....	156
5.2	Research Philosophies	157
5.2.1	Pragmatic Philosophy.....	162
5.2.2	Research Approach	164
5.2.3	Research Strategies	165
5.2.4	Mixed Methods.....	170
5.2.5	Sampling.....	172
5.2.6	Data Collection.....	175
5.2.7	Data Analysis	179
5.2.8	Reliability and Validity of Quantitative research.....	182
5.2.9	Data Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research	183
5.3	Ethical process.....	185
5.4	Conclusions	Error! Bookmark not defined.

CHAPTER 6 EMPRICIAL ANALYSES..... 188

6.1	Introduction.....	188
6.2	Results of the Qualitative Research	189
6.2.1	Understanding the Participants in the Qualitative Research	189
6.2.2	Resources for Pro-Poor Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward.....	195
6.2.3	Infrastructure Available for Tourism Development.....	222
6.2.4	Stakeholder Perceptions of Tourist Development.....	228
6.3	Results of the Quantitative Research	239
6.3.1	Demographic profile of Gunhill residents.....	242
6.3.2	Travel for Tourism Purposes	244
6.3.3	Purpose of Travel	251
6.3.4	Travel Preferences	259
6.3.5	Travel to Chitomborwizi East Ward	262
6.3.6	Tourist expenditure in Chitomborwizi East Ward	273
6.3.7	Destination Evaluation Characteristics	277

6.3.8	Main conclusions from the quantitative analyses	278
6.4	Conclusions	Error! Bookmark not defined.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS..... 280

7.1	Introduction.....	280
7.2	Conclusions of the Study.....	282
7.3	Contributions of the study.....	287
7.3.1	Literature Contributions	287
7.3.2	Practical Contributions	289
7.4	Pro-poor framework	290
7.4.1	The development of the framework	290
7.4.2	Implementation of the pro-poor framework.....	290
7.5	Recommendations of the Study.....	296
7.5.1	Revamp the Education System in Rural Chitomborwizi East Ward	296
7.5.2	Establish Contract Farming Relationships with Agro-Tourism Businesses	296
7.5.3	Development of Horticulture Markets	296
7.5.4	Farming as a Tourist Attraction	297
7.5.5	Increased Securitisation of Chitomborwizi East	297
7.5.6	Value Added Activities A Source of Tourist Attraction	298
7.5.7	Collective Ownership of Accommodation Facilities	298
7.5.8	Development of Cultural Tourism	299
7.5.9	Development of Archeological Tourism	299
7.5.10	Health and Wellness Tourism	300
7.5.11	Revamp Infrastructure.....	300
7.5.12	Raising Community Tourism Awareness	301
7.5.13	Effective Collaboration Between Bodies Responsible for Tourism Development	301
7.6	Recommendations for Further Study	302
7.7	Limitations of the study.....	302
	Appendix 1: Interview guide for the community members.....	352
	Appendix 2: Interview guide for the key informants	353
	Appendix 3: Questionnaire to measure potential demand	355
	Appendix 4: Proof of language editing.....	363

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.4: Incidence of Poverty by Province in Zimbabwe	11
Figure 2.1: The Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) Framework	58
Figure 2.2: Dimensions of Social Capital	68
Figure 2.3: CAMPFIRE Governance Structure	87
Figure 3.1: Principles of Sustainable Tourism	121
Figure 3.2: Incompatibility of Sustainable Development and Sustainable Tourism	122
Figure 3.3: Relationship between ecotourism and community-based tourism	125
Figure 3.4: Principles of Bien Vivir	134
Figure 4.1: Characteristics of Pro-Poor Tourism	139
Figure 4.2: Benefits of Pro-Poor Tourism	142
Figure 4.3: Chitomborwizi East Tourism Value Chains	150
Figure 4.4: Impacts of Tourism	152
Figure 5.1: Case Study Research Process	167
Figure 5.2: The Survey Research Design Process	169
Figure 5.3: Two-Dimensional Mixed-Methods Sampling Model	173
Figure 5.4: The Framework for Data Analysis in Mixed Methods	180
Figure 6.1: Vicious cycle of poverty at the Chitomborwizi small-scale farms ..	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Figure 6.2: The Migration Remittances Web	207
Figure 6.3: Ritual of Integration of the Dead	219
Figure 6.4: The Survey Research Design Process	240
Figure 6.5: Previous travel for tourism purposes	244
Figure 6.6: Age and tourism demand	247
Figure 6.7: Gender and Tourism Demand	247
Figure 6.8: Income as a tourism determinant	249
Figure 6.9: Travel Purposes	252
Figure 6.10: Age and purpose of travel	253
Figure 6.11: Gender and Travel Purpose	254
Figure 6.12: Marital status as a determinant of travel purpose	256

Figure 6.13: Income and travel purpose.....	257
Figure 6.14: Level of Education as a Determinant of Travel.....	258
Figure 6.15: Reasons for non-tourism travel	261
Figure 6.16: Type of Journeys	262
Figure 6.17: Reasons for non-visitation of Chitomborwizi East Ward	263
Figure 6.18: Frequency of visitation of Chitomborwizi East Ward.....	264
Figure 6.19: Place of stay whilst visiting Biri Dam	265
Figure 6.20: Nights Spent while visiting Chitomborwizi East	266
Figure 6.21: Travel Party to Chitomborwizi East Ward	267
Figure 6.22: Activities Undertaken While in Chitomborwizi East Ward	268
Figure 6.23: Revisit Intention	269
Figure 6.24: Reasons for Revisit intention	270
Figure 6.25: Recommendation of Chitomborwizi East to potential tourists	271
Figure 6.26: Destination Evaluation Characteristics	277
Figure 7.1 Pro-poor framework: Level 1.....	289
Figure 7.2: Pro-poor framework: Level 2.....	290

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Vulnerability Factors	61
Table 3.1: Development Perspectives	103
Table 3.2: Spatial Scales of Dependency.....	112
Table 3.3: Comparison of alternative and mass tourism.....	119
Table 4.1: Case Studies of Pro-poor Tourism Interventions.....	154
Table 5.1: Major Paradigms.....	159
Table 6.1: Demographic profile of Small-Scale Farmers	189
Table 6.2: Profile of Key Informants.....	193
Table 6.3: Overview of Chitomborwizi East Traditional Foods and Medicines	215
Table 6.4: Demographic Details of Respondents	243
Table 6.5: Education Level and Tourism Demand	245
Table 6.6: Pearson Chi-square test: Education and Tourism demand	245
Table 6.7: Pearson Chi-Square Test: Age and Tourism Demand	247
Table 6.8: Pearson Chi-Square Test: Gender and Tourism Demand	248
Table 6.9: Marital Status and Tourism demand.....	248
Table 6.10: Relationship between Marital Status and Tourism Demand	249
Table 6.11: Relationship between Income and Tourism Demand	250
Table 6.12: Organisational Position and Tourism Demand	251
Table 6.13: Relationship between organisational position and Tourism Demand	251
Table 6.14: Relationship between age and travel purpose.....	253
Table 6.15: Relationship between Gender and Travel purpose	255
Table 6.16: Relationship between marital status and travel purpose	256
Table 6.17: Relationship between Income and Travel Purpose.....	258
Table 6.18: Education level and purpose of travel.....	259
Table 6.19: Type of Journeys.....	260
Table 6.20: Reasons for engaging in short-haul travel	260
Table 6.21: Travel to Chitomborwizi East	262
Table 6.22: Knowledge of Chitomborwizi East Ward.....	264
Table 6.23: Frequency of Annual Visits	266

Table 6.24: Mode of Transport	267
Table 6.25: Complementary attractions in Chitomborwizi East	268
Table 6.26: Experiences at Chitomborwizi East	272
Table 6.27: Recommendations for Improvement of Chitomborwizi East Ward	273
Table 6.28: Analysis of Mean Expenditure Per income group	274
Table 6.29: Analysis of Mean Expenditure per Age Group	275
Table 6.30: Tourist expenditure and education level.....	275
Table 6.31: Tourist Expenditure and Gender.....	276
Table 6.32: Tourism Expenditure and Marital status.....	276

CHAPTER

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Tourism is the world's largest industry, contributing about 10.4% to the Global Gross Domestic Product (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018). Rui (2018) affirms that global tourism revenue increased from US\$4.9 trillion to US\$ 5.6 trillion from 2015 to 2018. By 2027 tourism is projected to generate 11.4 % of global wealth, contribute 381.7 million to direct and indirect jobs and account for 7.2% of world exports (UNWTO, 2018)¹. The projected upward growth is one factor that has led to policy-makers' preference for tourism as an economic and human development strategy globally; particularly in the developing world (WTTC, 2018). In response, governments in developing nations annually commit huge financial resources towards the development of the tourism and hospitality industry to reduce poverty and to contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and sustainable development (Olorunfemi and Raheem, 2008). Proper implementation of pro-poor tourism strategies in developing countries creates employment and increased entrepreneurship through community ownership of small businesses that develop in relation to tourism (Sharmar and Tharpar, 2016).

The characteristics of tourism, which make it a pro-poor growth pathway, are that it is labour intensive and attracts tourists to destination areas, thereby creating opportunities for various linkages between hosts and visitors. A significant characteristic is that in poor regions, tourism relies on natural resources (Department for International Development [DFID], 1999; Isaac and Van der Sterren, 2004; Torres and Momsen, 2004). Africa is the only continent to have experienced a rapid increase in poverty since 1990 and therefore there is an urgent need for pro-poor growth strategies (Ashley and Mitchell, 2005); undoubtedly tourism is one such strategy. Evidence from Mitchell and Ashley (2006) revealed that partnership arrangements between the local people and the tourism industry; ownership of tourism facilities by the local community and

¹ All long-term projections are now uncertain due to the impact of COVID-19 on the industry

linkages between small to medium enterprises and mainstream tourism are some of the more effective pro-poor tourism strategies.

However, despite tourism's pro-poor links, many of those who oppose it argue that international tourism in third world countries frequently has negative impacts and, unless tourism is small scale, indigenously owned, environmentally sensitive and authentic (Mitchell and Ashley, 2006), it cannot achieve pro-poor growth. However, such small-scale tourism cannot significantly contribute to poverty alleviation, and it cannot be compared with the impact made by mainstream tourism. Despite pro-poor tourism's potential as a poverty reduction tool, it encounters numerous challenges, amongst which are income leakages, few economic linkages, imposition of non-economic costs on the poor through loss of resource access, as well as cultural and social disruption. Africa must then find ways to address the problems above, if tourism is to contribute meaningfully to the lives of those living in poverty.

1.2 Background of the Study

In this section attention is given to the key aspects assessed in the study.

1.2.1 *Poverty Defined*

Despite the existence of many global agreements on the need to eradicate poverty, there is still no consensus on how poverty should be measured, since it is multidimensional in character (Dawas, 2018; Letsoalo, 2015). Notwithstanding the said absence of a universal definition of poverty, money-metric and non-money-metric approaches are used to measure poverty. The monetary approach utilises a poverty line where an individual/household's poverty is judged based on a certain level of income or consumption expenditure (Naidoo and Stewart, 2007). In the above-mentioned classification, reference is made to objective and subjective poverty datum lines (Letsoalo, 2015).

From a subjective viewpoint, individuals express their perceptions of poverty in monetary forms (Nyasulu, 2010). Such typologies of poverty measurement include the Perceptual Poverty Line (PPL) (Ratcliffe, 2007) and the Leyden Poverty Line (LPL) (Ratcliffe, 2007; Narayan and

Petes, 2002). However, these descriptions are frequently criticised for their subjectivity as poverty means different things to different people and thus, based on these poverty dimensions, a common understanding cannot be achieved on what constitutes poverty.

In objective poverty measurements, poverty is defined as absolute or relative. The former employs a cost of basic human needs approach, which combines consumption for food and non-food items required to meet basic standards of living (Letsoalo, 2015); and the food intake method, which determines the amount of expenditure needed to secure human calorific requirements for basic living per day. Relative poverty compares poverty levels of individuals and households in relation to others in the same locality (Letsoalo, 2015). Proponents of the one-dimensional money-metric measure of poverty believe that income is a proxy that represents all forms of poverty.

However, another school of thought disputes the objectivity and subjectivity claims, asserting that poverty is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon to the extent that using just one dimension presents a myopic view of poverty (Burc et al., 2018). Given that there is no universal poverty measure, Letsoalo (2015) mentions other methods used to assess poverty:

- The Social Exclusion approach which determines the level of participation by individuals in each society. Limited participation by impoverished groups such as the aged, certain ethnic groups and gender, leads to impoverishment;
- The Participation approach enables people to provide a multidimensional viewpoint of what constitutes poverty;
- The Capability perspective considers poverty as deprivation of one's ability to exercise one's freedom and capabilities to function in a society.

As such, poverty is a multidimensional construct, but as to which dimensions to include in its measurement is still a debatable and contested issue. Malnutrition, housing, safety, health, income, education, literacy and availability of drinking water are some of the numerous poverty dimensions that continue to complicate our understanding of poverty. Ife and Tesorieo (2006) argue that definitions assigned to poverty are important since they form the basis for intervention strategies targeted at poverty alleviation. A protracted absence of poverty definitions will make its

eradication an unachievable dream. Therefore, despite the huge sums of money spent on poverty alleviation globally, poverty levels – by different descriptions – continue to soar, (Nyasulu, 2010) possibly due to its conceptualisation. The absence of a common definition of poverty has led to numerous definitions advanced to suit specific settings. From a statistical point of view, the World Bank defines poverty as any income below US\$ 1, 25 per person per day, and US\$ 2, for the poorest countries and developing countries, respectively (UNDP-HDR, 2005; Radcliffe and Wright, 2004). Despite its extensive reception, the above definition is criticised for its prejudicial nature, as in the UK, US and Japan poverty is defined based on income levels below US\$ 14 per person per day (Nyasulu, 2010), which is very different from the definition for developing and poor countries. If subjectivity persists in defining poverty, appropriate policies and intervention strategies to reduce poverty will never be developed. Perhaps the ideal scenario would be to develop a common definition while providing room for contextualisation in different geographical settings.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) developed a Human Poverty Index (HPI) which is a composite of lifespan, knowledge, and a decent standard of living (Kodero, 2005; Nyasulu, 2010), as shown in Figure 1.1 below.

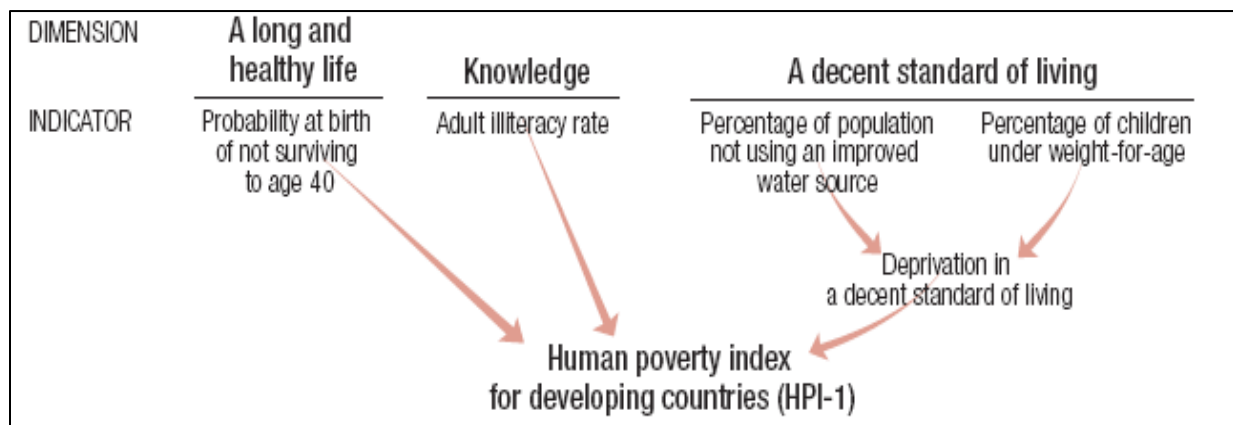


Figure 1.1: Expert-Driven Definitions of Poverty

Source: Nyasulu (2010)

The indicator on the “long and healthy life” dimension is life expectancy, while the indicator for knowledge is gauged by years spent in schooling by adults 25 years of age and above,

as well as the number of school-age children going to school and the number of years they will spend in school. Regarding the “decent the standard of living” dimension, the indicator is measured by Human Poverty Index. In 2018, Zimbabwe’s HDI value was 0.563, which put the country in the Medium Human Development category and was ranked 150th of 180 countries (UNDP, 2005). Human Development Index is a measure of the achievement of basic life dimensions of life expectancy, acquisition of knowledge and a decent standard of living. Therefore, significant progress needs to be made to improve the well-being of the populace by developing and implementing interventions targeted at increasing life span, knowledge acquisition and improvement of living standards. However, the simplicity of the HPI does reflect a certain weakness in that it conceals the relative importance of each indicator and possible reasons for indicator variations over time, since it is presented as an aggregated indicator value (Albert and Vizmanos, 2018). As a result of these deficiencies, many scholars have bemoaned the failure of the HDI to contribute to the development of relevant policies and strategies to curb poverty.

Given its shortfalls, the Human Development Index was replaced by the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (GMPI) which was developed by the Oxford University Poverty and Human Development Initiative and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The GMPI is a ten-indicator framework derived from poverty dimensions of health, education and standard of living, which characterise the HDI index as presented in Figure 1.2, below. The Index acknowledges the existence of inequalities at global, regional, national, and household levels (United Nations Development Programme, 2005; Oxford University Poverty and Human Development Initiative, 2019) as the reason for differences in measuring diverse poverty levels worldwide. The strength of the GMPI over the HDI lies in the use it makes of primary data from households and therefore assesses poverty at the individual levels (Albert and Vismanoz, 2018) unlike the HDI index, which makes use of secondary data from the country. The GMPI methodology generates indices on the incidence, prevalence, and intensity of multidimensional poverty (Albert and Vismanoz, 2018). In the GMPI, a score of 33.3% means a household is poor, whereas a score of 20% or more, but less than 33.3%, represents vulnerability to multidimensional poverty. In Zimbabwe, the GPMI measurement reveals that 31.8% of the population are multidimensionally poor, whereas 27.4% are vulnerable to multidimensional poverty (United

Nations Development Programme, 2019). The decline in the country’s economic stability, post the land reform programme, has played a pivotal role in increasing poverty levels in Zimbabwe, especially in rural areas where 80% of the population reside.

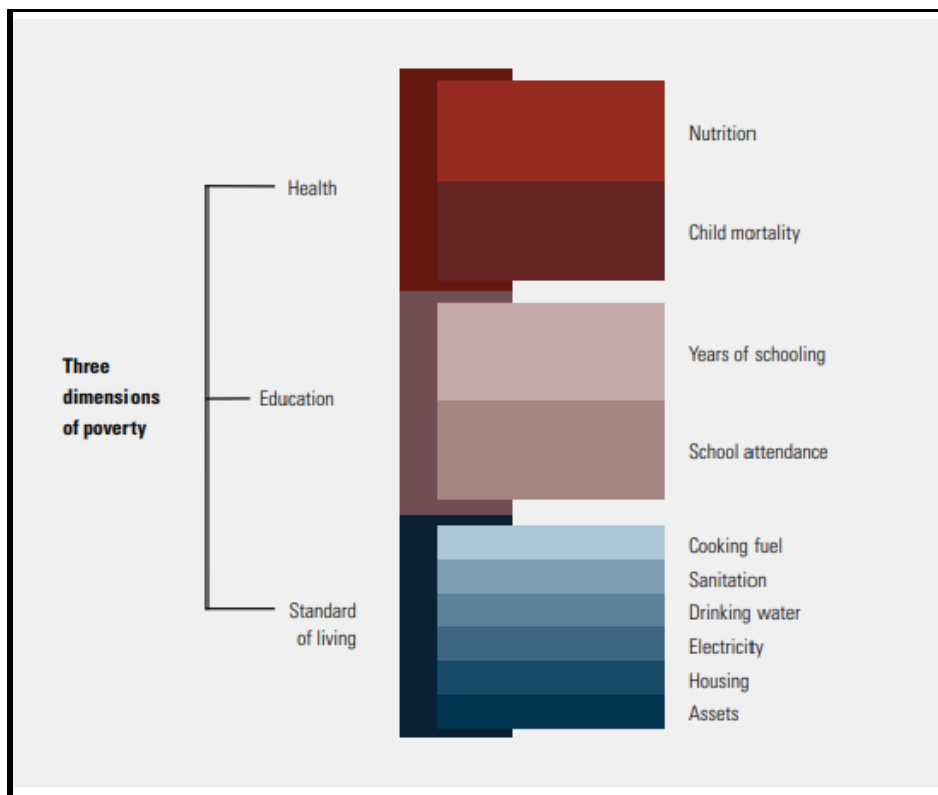


Figure 1.2: Structure of Global Multidimensional Poverty Index

Source: United Nations Development Programme and Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (2019)

1.2.2 Poverty Incidence in Zimbabwe

With reference to the above discussion, in Zimbabwe, poverty is defined as “the inability to attain a minimum level of well-being as defined by society” (ZimStats, 2017, 14). The previously mentioned money-metric and non-money-metric approaches are used to measure poverty in Zimbabwe. That country makes use of traditional approaches to poverty measurement, which includes Food Poverty Line (FPL), Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL), the Poverty Gap Index and Poverty Severity Index as well as the Gini coefficient. The term “Poverty Line” refers to the income and expenditure threshold that separates the poor from the non-poor (Touray,

2016). In the Zimbabwean context, Food Poverty Line (FPL) is the minimum consumption expenditure necessary to ensure each household member consumes a minimum basket representing a daily minimum energy intake of 2 100 calories (ZimStats, 2017; Department of Statistics South Africa, 2019). An individual is considered extremely poor if their per capita income falls below the FPL. The Total Consumption Poverty Line (TCPL) is another money metric measure that combines the non-food poverty line and the food poverty line to measure overall poverty (ZimStats, 2017; Department of Statistics South Africa, 2019). Households or individuals falling below the TCPL are considered poor. The Poverty Gap Index explores the average depth of poverty by establishing the poor's proximity to or distance from the poverty lines (ZimStats, 2017). The Poverty Severity Index measures not only the distance of the poor from the poverty lines, but the level of inequality amongst the poor (ZimStats, 2017). Apart from the money-metric, non-money measurements, other aspects such as access to and availability of health, education, housing, monetary remittances as well as level of migration and asset ownership need to be considered to establish poverty levels per household. Use of the different approaches attempts to address the multidimensional construct of poverty in the country. Figure 1.3 below shows the multidimensional elements of rural poverty in Zimbabwe's Mashonaland East Province as presented by the Ministry of Finance Development and Planning in 2016

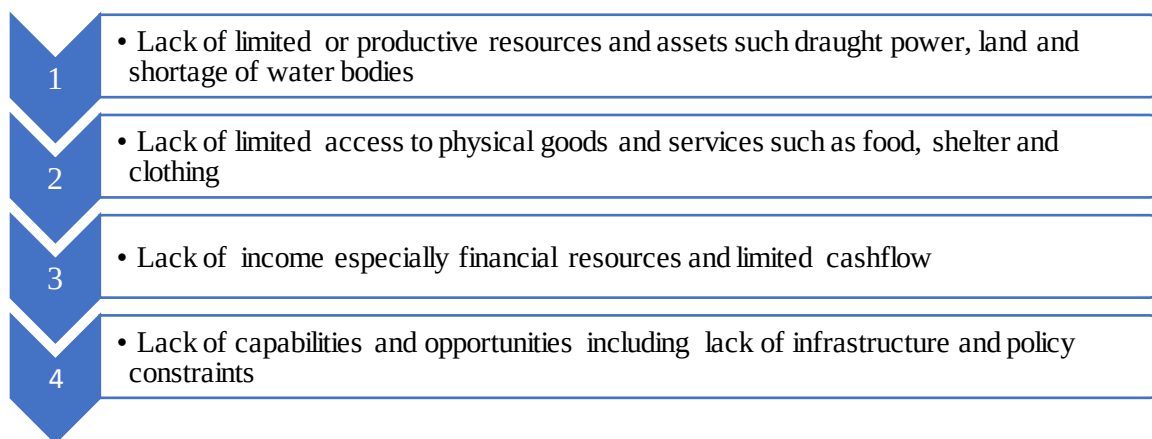


Figure 1.3: Multiple dimensions of Poverty in Zimbabwe

Source: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2016)

Zimbabwe has ten provinces, two of which are urban, whilst the rest are mixed rural and urban environments. According to ZimStats (2017), 69.2% of Zimbabwe's households live in rural areas where the prevalence, depth and severity of poverty is higher than in urban areas. Extreme poverty in rural areas is recorded at 40.9% as compared to 4.4% in urban areas (ZimStats, 2017). Mashonaland Central, Matabeleland North and Mashonaland West Provinces have incidences of poverty of 81.6%, 74.3% and 71.1%, respectively, as indicated in Figure 1.4 below (ZimStats, 2017). Mashonaland West also has a high incidence of poverty per household at 31.6%, after Mashonaland Central which recorded 41.2%, as indicated in Figure 1.5, below. Figure 1.6 below illustrates the incidence of poverty in the rural districts of Zimbabwe. Chitomborwizi East, the area under study, is in Makonde District in Mashonaland West Province where extreme poverty incidence is in the range of 51.2% to 64% (ZimStats, 2017). Given the fact that the area under investigation is in a district with a high incidence of poverty, it is important to find ways to alleviate it.

According to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2016), poverty incidence is high due to the poor performance of the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. Reasons for underperformance are cited as limited availability of extension services, shortage of inputs such as fertilisers and seeds, periodic droughts, undeveloped farmers' markets and rural urban migration. Extension services refer to farming knowledge and expertise provided by government agriculture officers to help farmers improve farm productivity. Moreover, insufficient research and operational budgets, reduced support from the private sector leading to limited mobility of personnel, and publication of literature on farming are some of the reasons for poor availability of agricultural extension services that have crippled farming operations. In response to the farming challenges, the government introduced an input support scheme to ensure that farmers have access to the necessary farming inputs. However, Echanove (2017) revealed that the scheme has been rendered ineffective because the inputs are either distributed late into the farming season; received as incomplete; or their distribution is fraught with corruption and nepotism. In addition, existing liquidity constraints have made it very difficult for farmers to access credit lines to fund their farming activities. The latter has further been compounded by lack of security of tenure, since

farmers have no full entitlement to farmland and therefore, cannot use their farms to guarantee bank loans (Country Report, 2010).

Consequently, agriculture's contribution to the country's GDP declined from 9.8% in 2010 to 8.6% in 2017 (African Development Bank, 2019). Agriculture contributes 10% to GDP and 60% of raw inputs to agro-based industries at national level (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2016); therefore, if productivity issues are not addressed, the national poverty alleviation project will never be fruitful. Chitomborwizi East Ward is reliant on farming as a livelihood option and therefore failure to develop solutions to prop up agricultural productivity is tantamount to accepting increased poverty levels. Since 52% of the labour force in rural areas depends on agriculture-related occupations, alternative solutions must be sought to diversify rural livelihoods.

High poverty incidence in rural environments calls for alternative strategies beyond agricultural production to take the rural populace out of poverty traps. Sustainable livelihood strategies and outcomes that could complement the decreased agricultural productivity in rural areas need to be identified with caution. This is because farming is the mainstay of rural economies and therefore any livelihood diversification that attempts to replace farming rather than complement it may not get the full support of the rural populace. Rural Non-Farm Economies (RNFE) unfortunately has not been developed because the key emphasis has been on increasing agricultural productivity without due regard for other livelihood options (Dalu and Dalu, 2019). Agriculture needs to be integrated with other non-farming economic activities that can lead to diversification of rural economies and consequently contribute significantly to poverty alleviation. Tourism appears a viable option for poverty alleviation in Chitomborwizi East Ward because of the potential tourism resources that the area boasts. Key attraction resources include village tourism such as agro-tourism, traditional cuisine, local people's lifestyle, traditional dance and music, marriage and funeral rites as well as African traditional religious ceremonies (Kanokanga et al., 2015).

Agro-tourism could thrive given the fact that it would be developed from an existing livelihood activity being pursued by the local community. Water resources such as Biri Dam and several other dams scattered across the farming area offer potential for water-based recreational activities such as fishing and boating. In the case in point, the natural capital that the local community has would make it easier to diversify into a rural non-farming economy by introducing tourism. Currently, the Government of Zimbabwe seeks to support Community Based Tourism Enterprises that offer niche tourism products that are unique and peculiar to their environments and therefore tourism initiatives could be developed in Chitomborwizi East with guaranteed government support (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2016). Consequently, in Chitomborwizi East Ward where the main activity is small-scale farming, but where area poverty persists through *inter alia* a decline in agricultural production, poor economic growth, limited job opportunities, ineffective pro-poor policies, unequal distribution of resources and globalisation as well as unfair trade patterns and systems (Country Report, 2010), tourism development could provide the answer.

Chitomborwizi East is located 20 km from Chinhoyi Town, the provincial capital of Mashonaland West Province. The town has numerous attractions that could complement tourism resources such as the Provincial Heroes Acre, Chinhoyi golf-course, Chinhoyi Caves and recreational park, which boasts small game and birdlife (Kanokanga et al., 2015). In addition, the population of the town of Chinhoyi could be the local tourists to Chitomborwizi East Ward. The proposed development coincides with the development of a domestic tourism strategy which is being developed to promote the participation of locals in the tourism industry by the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2016).

Faced with a scenario of escalating poverty levels in rural Zimbabwe, the research sought to use tourism as an opportunity for livelihood diversification in Chitomborwizi Rural Ward. The study area has readily available tourism resources, the potential to increase employment opportunities in the rural non-farming economy and could improve the access of previously disadvantaged community groups – such as women and youth – to economic activity.

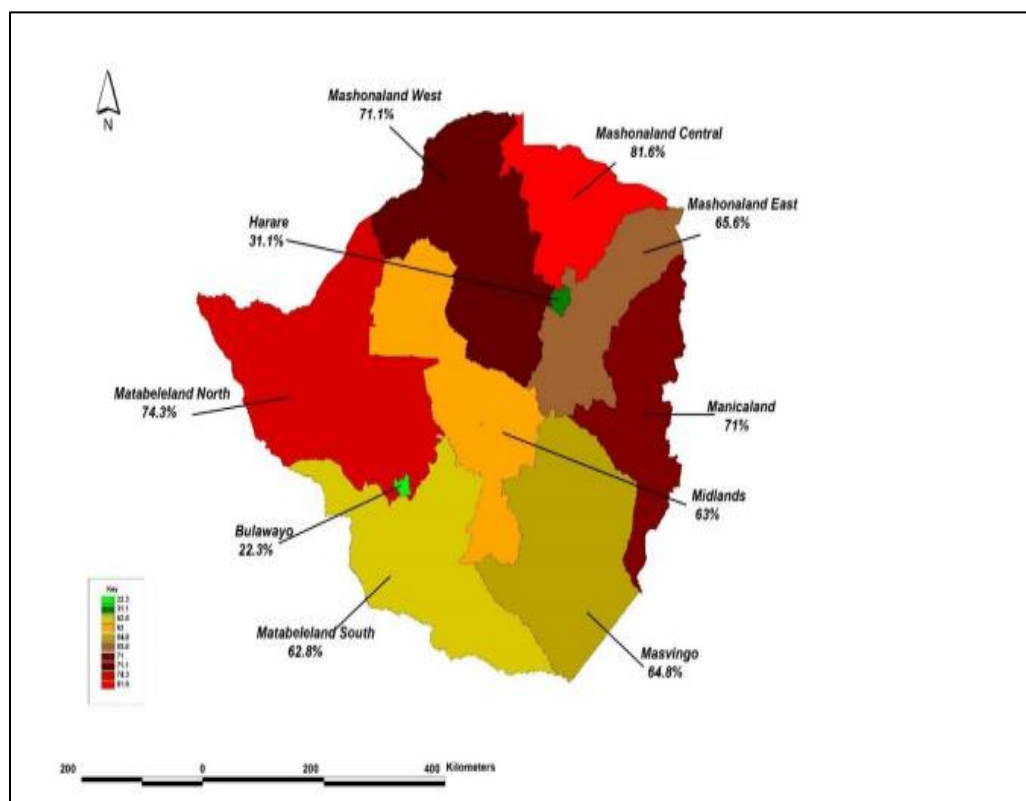


Figure 1.4: Incidence of Poverty by Province in Zimbabwe

Source: ZimStats (2017)

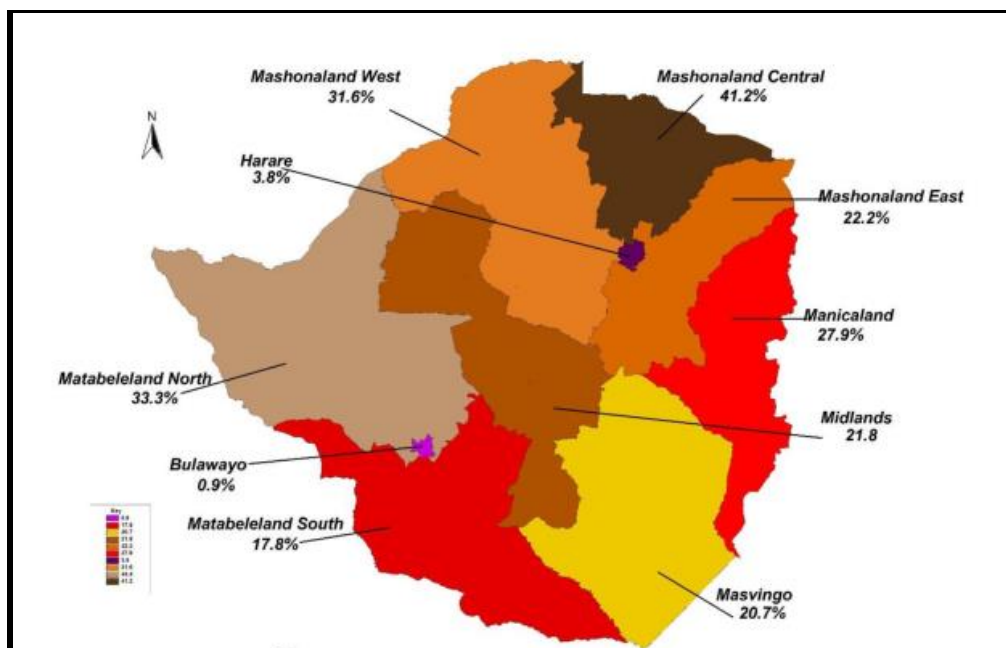


Figure 1.5: Incidence of Extreme Poverty by Province in Zimbabwe

Source: ZimStats (2017)

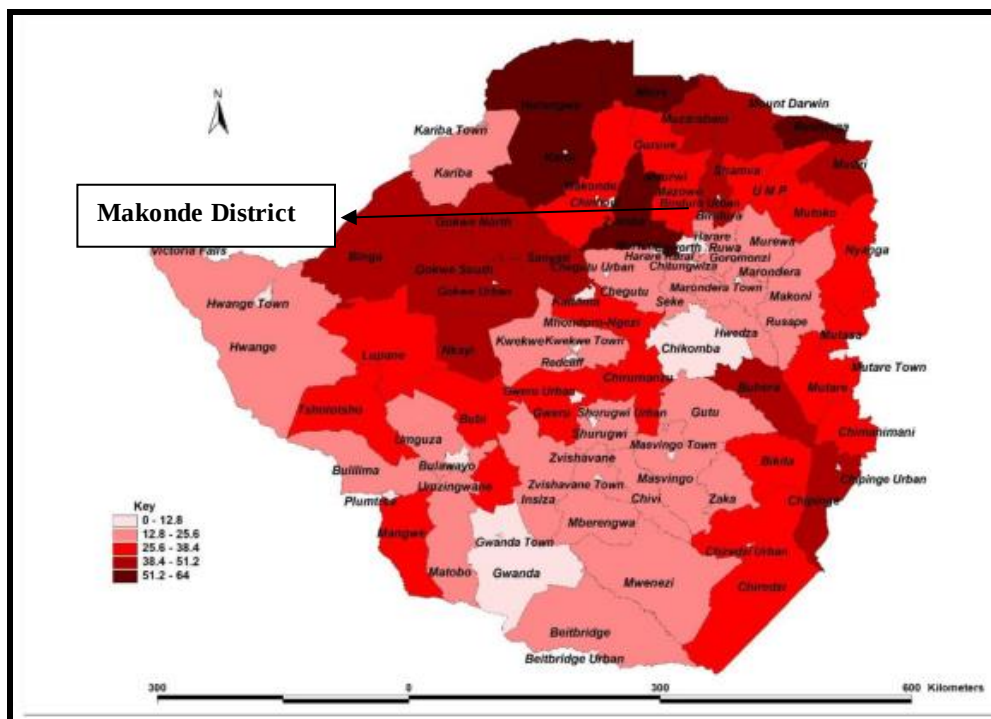


Figure 1.6: Incidence of Extreme Poverty by district in Zimbabwe

Source: ZimStats (2017)

1.2.3 Economic Development Policies and Poverty Alleviation in Zimbabwe

Dating back to independence in 1980, the Government of Zimbabwe has developed more than ten pro-poor growth and poverty-related strategies and policies. The policies included the:

- Growth and Equity Policy (1981)
- Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) (1991)
- Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (1994)
- Zimbabwe Programme For Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) (1996-2000)
- Zimbabwe Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (2001)
- The Ten Points Plan (2002)
- National Economic Recovery Programme (2003).

- Zimbabwe: Towards a Sustained Economic Growth-Macro Economic Policy Framework for 2005-2006
- National Economic Development Priority Programme (NEDPP) (2007)
- Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP I) (2009-2010)
- Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP II) (2010-2012)
- Medium Term Plan (2011-2015), ZIMASSET (2013-2018)
- Ten-Point Plan (August 2015)
- Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (2016-2018) (Kadero, 2005; Kanyenze, Chitambara and Tyson., 2017, p 4).

In addition to government efforts, contributions from non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to poverty alleviation include community support projects and the Social Dimensions Fund as well as capacity building and institutional strengthening programmes (Kadero, 2005). Despite the efforts aimed at reducing poverty, the situation continues to deteriorate steadily in Zimbabwe. There are no pro-poor tourism policies at the national level as tourism is not yet fully considered a mainstream option for poverty alleviation.

At Independence, the new government inherited a well-diversified economy driven mainly by the agriculture, mining, and manufacturing sectors (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). To counter colonial disparities, the new government came up with a blueprint coined “The Growth in Equity: An Economic Policy Statement” of 1981, which rejuvenated the productive sector and addressed the poor’s concerns through social development programmes (McLean et al., 1997). The policy intentions were based on socialist and democratic principles that supported rapid economic growth, full employment, price stability, efficient resource allocation and equal distribution of benefits to all stakeholders (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). To achieve further prosperity, the government launched The Transnational Development Plan (1982-1985) and First Five-Year National Development Plan (FFYNDP 1986-1990); both of which emphasised economic growth, employment creation, poverty reduction and equality (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). These policies boosted agricultural production in rural areas and transformed Zimbabwe into the breadbasket of Africa. However socialist-oriented policies led to government budget deficits,

which reduced the sustainability of poverty reduction and public investment programmes. Social spending increased from 25.7% in 1980-1981 to 34.9% from 1990-1991 (Central Statistics Office, 1998a cited in Alwang, Ersado and Taruvinga, 2001).

Faced with decreased government income vis-à-vis government expenditure, ESAP (referring to list of policies) was developed in 1991 as a transformative instrument from a socialist to a more liberal economy at the advice of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). It emphasised the need for sustainable economic growth, poverty reduction, reduction of the government budget deficit and deregulation of the economy through removal of controls on exchange rates as well as prices of goods and services (Mupedziswa and Gumbo, 1998; Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). Nonetheless, the objectives of ESAP were not fulfilled as the economic growth rate slowed whilst poverty and unemployment increased drastically. The ESAP policy demise is credited to lack of stakeholder participation in programme design, lack of national ownership and failure to include vulnerability factors such as drought. Lack of government commitment towards meeting the policy objectives contributed to its failure (Kamidza et al., 1989). ESAP could have registered significant success if there had been a sense of ownership of the project from the key stakeholders. Dashwood (1999) mentioned that the mechanism through which the poor could be assisted from the cost recovery measures of ESAP was the Social Development Fund (SDF) which failed to achieve the pro-poor objectives because of a slow start, scarce financial resources, bureaucracy, inappropriate strategies of targeting the poor, urban orientation, and bureaucratic paperwork processes (Dashwood, 1999).

In response to the ineffective SDF, the Government introduced the Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) earmarked to decentralise both the design and delivery of poverty-related projects by devolving participation to local community level (Dashwood, 1999). However, PAAP was constrained by the fact that the government lacked commitment to devolution of authority to local communities and government structures were too weak to handle the delivery of poverty alleviation programmes. Despite the numerous programmes aimed at the rural poor, they continue to be sidelined from participation and beneficiation (Dashwood, 1999). Poverty reduction requires

the political will of those in power to ensure the rural poor are the beneficiaries of pro-poor plans and policies.

The second phase of the structural adjustment programme, the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST), commenced in 1998, but it placed no emphasis on poverty alleviation, with merely a slight mention of PAAP (Zimbabwe, 1998a, cited in Dashwood, 1999). The programme was intended to overcome constraints to economic growth, employment generation and poverty reduction. Similarly, ZIMPREST, like ESAP, led to further deterioration of the economy, an increase in poverty and widening disparities between the rich and the poor (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). Failure of ZIMPREST was attributed to the lack of resources for effective implementation of the reform.

A predecessor of ZIMPREST, The Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) (2000-2001), aimed to reduce the government budget deficit and to mobilise concerned stakeholders to re-establish economic stability (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). MERP failed due to the withdrawal of funding from the donor community (Zimbabwe Millennium Development Goals, 2004). The MERP was followed by the National Economic Recovery Programme (NERP) (2003) which concentrated on agriculture-led economic growth, inflation reduction and improved viability of exports. The period spanning 2005-2006 saw the introduction of the Macro-Economic Policy Framework, which served as the pivotal point for policy interventions and programmes for that period. The policy's intentions were focussed on agricultural development, industrialisation, infrastructure development, investment promotion, social service delivery, poverty reduction, economic empowerment, youth development, gender equity, macro-economic stabilisation and strengthening of institutional capacity. Later, the National Economic Development Programme (NEDPP) that was launched mid-2006, was given the mandate of mobilising foreign currency earnings and reviving economy which was on the brink of collapse (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). Despite all the above policy prescriptions geared towards economic development and poverty reduction, poverty remains widespread and relentless, particularly in rural environments.

The years 2007 to 2011 saw the birth of the Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy (ZEDS) whose objectives were to achieve sustainable economic growth, poverty reduction and the inclusion of previously marginalised groups into mainstream economic development (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2011). The Draft Medium Term Plan (MTP), 2010 faced the stark fact that during 2007 and 2008, the Gross Domestic Product contracted by 50.3%, whilst inflation peaked at 231 million % in July 2008 and capacity utilisation in industry fell below 10% by January 2009; poverty remained widespread, infrastructure deteriorated, and the economy had become informal (Country Analysis Report for Zimbabwe, 2010). This demonstrates that even ZEDS had no significant influence on poverty reduction.

In 2009, the Government of National Unity (GNU) formulated a Short-Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP) whose emphasis was political stability, good governance, social protection, sound macro-economic management and economic growth. The programme stressed revival of the manufacturing, agriculture and tourism sectors as key to economic turnaround (African Development Bank, 2009). Identification of tourism as one of the key drivers of the economy in the policy blueprint is an indication of commitment to develop pro-poor tourism strategies. STERP contributed to economic stabilisation, which resulted in a real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate of 5.4% in 2009, 11.4% in 2010 and 11.9% in 2011 (Zimbabwe for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZIM ASSET), 2013). However, the growth was short-lived as a decline in growth was evident from 11.9% in 2011 to 10.6% in 2012 and to 3.4% in 2013. Despite the numerous policy intentions for poverty reduction, poverty remains a challenge in the country. If poverty is to be eradicated, pro-poor tourism policies need to be specifically created, rather than relying solely on economic development policies that take a narrow approach to poverty alleviation.

Although STERP had several achievements, a Medium-Term Plan was developed to stabilise the economy, reduce poverty, create employment opportunities and revive the capacity of the local industry to produce goods and services for the global market (Ministry of Economic Planning and Investment Promotion, 2011). Nevertheless, despite being a promising plan, it was never fully implemented because the 2013 so-called “harmonised elections” saw an end to the

Government of National Unity. The newly elected government then developed its own blueprint, ZIMASSET, to drive the economy (Ministry of Economic Planning and Investment Promotion, 2011). Despite its short existence, the plan voiced the need to develop tourism sustainably through diversification of the tourism product and provision of support for community-led tourism initiatives (Ministry of Economic Planning and Investment Promotion, 2011). It should be continuously emphasised that despite all economic policies from 1980 to date mentioning poverty alleviation as one of the goals, none has had success in doing so.

The Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Social and Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) (2013-2018) blueprint was developed to resuscitate Zimbabwe's ailing economy. ZIMASSET was built on food security and nutrition, value addition and beneficiation, infrastructure and utilities, and poverty reduction clusters (Uzhenyu and Vutete, 2016). Critical in the policy was the need to revive manufacturing and energy production, agriculture and mining to generate significant macro-economic growth. ZIMASSET identified Key Result Areas for tourism development under the value addition and beneficiation cluster. In this regard, a call was made to revive Community Based Tourism Enterprises (CBTEs) and develop domestic tourism through civil servants' visitor scheme packages (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013). Such strategic objectives were an indication of the desire by the country's leadership to promote rural development through community-based tourism initiatives. However, the blueprint experienced huge criticism because the citizenry was not involved in the formulation of the policy and many a time it was labelled "a ruling party document smuggled into government". Ultimately, without the buy-in from relevant stakeholders, the outcome of the blueprint was that it failed to generate the forecast 7.2% economic growth, while unemployment and poverty levels increased (Uzhenyu and Vutete, 2016). ZIMASSET failed because it lacked a detailed policy framework and proper execution plan (Sibindi, 2020).

To buttress ZIMASSET, in 2015 the Government of Zimbabwe came up with a 10-point plan that was presented by President Robert Mugabe at the 2015 State of the Nation Address (*The Standard*: 7 September 2015). The ten-point plan was as follows:

- Revitalising agriculture and the agro-processing value chain

- Advancing beneficiation and/or value addition of agricultural and mineral resource endowment
- Supporting infrastructure development in key sectors like energy, water, transport, and Information Communication Technologies (ICTs)
- Unlocking potential of Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs)
- Encouraging private sector investment
- Restoration and building of confidence and stability in the financial services sector.
- Promoting joint ventures and public private partnerships (PPPs) to boost the role and performance of state-owned companies.
- Modernising labour laws
- Pursuing an anti-corruption thrust
- Implementation of special economic zones to provide impetus for foreign direct investment.

The plan encapsulated agricultural revitalisation, strengthening of the agricultural and mining value chains, infrastructure development and re-engagement of international investment as well as the promotion of small to medium enterprises (*The Independent*, 28 August 2015). The ten-point plan points to agricultural productivity as key to economic development and consequently, poverty alleviation. Such a focus is central, given the fact that the rural areas' life blood is agriculture. Promotion of small to medium enterprises and infrastructural development will open rural environments to rural non-farming businesses that could contribute to the reduction of poverty. The plan failed to bring any significant progress, just as ZIMASSET had, before it, also failed, because security of land tenure was not reversed and therefore farmers could not present bankable plans to lending institutions to access farming loans. In addition, continued absence of climate change mitigation measures and lack of recapitalisation of the agro-based industries continued to stifle the growth of the economy (*The Standard*, 7 September, 2015). Failure of ZIMASSET and the ten-point plan has meant a perpetuation of poverty nationwide, especially in rural areas.

Zimbabwe Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (2016-2018) restated the Government's commitment to poverty alleviation by complementing ZIMASSET and the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (2016-2030). The I-PRSP poverty alleviation pillars are:

- Agricultural Productivity, Growth and Rural Food Security
- Social Sector development
- Private Sector development
- Infrastructural development
- Environment and climate change mitigation
- Gender, Women and Youth Empowerment
- Strengthening of Governance and Institutional Capacity.

Agricultural productivity continues to be a key focus of government's efforts to reduce poverty over the period 1980 to the present day amidst major constraints of climate change, inadequate funding, loss of land tenure and limited farm mechanisation in rural areas. Therefore, due to slow progress in growing the economy, efforts should be geared towards diversification of the rural economies to reduce vulnerability to structural poverty.

The Transitional Stabilisation Programme (2018-2020), a strategic programme of the implementation of Vision 2030, is the current blueprint in use. Vision 2030 aspires to develop an economically stable upper middle-class society by 2030 through focus on governance, macro-economic stability and re-engagement, inclusive growth, infrastructure and utilities as well as social development. Unlike other economic blueprints, the strategic intent of the paper is to address poverty through salient mechanisms such as involvement of the private sector in funding farming activities through issuing bankable 99-year farm leases; improvement of farmers' access to markets and the resuscitation of industry and industrial development to open opportunities for value-added production activities in mining and agriculture (Transitional Stabilisation Programme, 2018). In targeting small to medium enterprises (SMMs), the transitional programme has sought to increase market access, business, and support services for small businesses. These strategies no doubt will contribute to improvement of rural livelihoods whose mainstay is agriculture. Small-scale farming areas such as Chitomborwizi East will benefit from

such programmes. In support of tourism development, the blueprint speaks to the need to set up a tourism revolving fund to finance tourism development (Transitional Stabilisation Programme, 2018). However, a review of the programme implementation points to an upwards spiral in inflation, increased unemployment and decreased foreign direct investment (Sibindi, 2020) which will continue to exacerbate poverty levels.

In 2019, the Zimbabwean economy contracted, and inflation levels rose, leading to increased poverty levels. In 2018 single-digit inflation had persisted up to the end of the year, and at the end of 2019 an inflation figure of 521% was recorded (International Monetary Fund, 2020). In 2019, a GDP of -6.5% was recorded whereas in 2020, growth was expected to increase by 4.6% (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2019) which did not realise. Given that the economy of Zimbabwe is agriculturally driven, better rainfall, climate change mitigation measures, irrigation and mechanisation, timely financing, and provision of extension should see a 10.8% growth in agriculture (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2019). Agricultural growth should lead to multiplier effects in rural economies and consequently a reduction in poverty. Chitomborwizi is a small-scale farming area where agriculture is the main economic activity. However, agriculture has not reached its full potential due to a myriad of challenges ranging from unavailability of finance to buy agriculture inputs and farming equipment. Agriculture growth may provide opportunities for the development of agricultural tourism, which, it is hoped, will consequently lead to diversification of income streams for rural communities. Given this background of projected agricultural growth it therefore seems appropriate to propose pro-poor tourism development framework for rural Chitomborwizi East Ward.

Optimistic focus on economic growth in Zimbabwe has however been dealt a blow by the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Growth of the Zimbabwe economy was projected at 0.8% by the International Monetary Fund, 2.7% by the World Bank and 4.6% by the Government of Zimbabwe, but it has been stifled amid the growing global recession arising from the pandemic (Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions, 2020). According to the World Economic Forum (2020), global trade is forecast to drop by between 13% to 32% compared to the 12.5% fall witnessed after the 2008 recession. Local economic growth may not materialise because of trade disruptions,

travel bans, low remittances and export disruptions that threaten to reduce Zimbabwe's liquidity (Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions, 2020). Rural livelihoods in Zimbabwe have been dealt a blow because the pandemic has disrupted the rural-urban-agriculture supply chain. Rural farmers who have in the past supplied agricultural produce to urban farmers' markets have been left with no source of income. Clearly, poverty in Zimbabwe has not been alleviated, nor is it likely to be in the foreseeable future.

The tourism industry has not been spared the COVID-19 scourge, the pandemic having dealt a blow to the international tourism industry as arrivals world-wide are declining by 20-30%, which translates to a loss of US\$ 20 to 30 billion globally (UNWTO, 2020). However, post-COVID-19 recovery strategies identify domestic tourism leading the way to global economic recovery before international tourism picks up again (Mwai, 2020). Since the domestic market is the major focus of pro-poor tourism development in Chitomborwizi East, promotion of domestic tourism at national level will benefit this potential tourist destination. In the long term, international tourism arrivals will increase post the pandemic and the study area will likely benefit further from international travel demand in future.

1.3 Defining Concepts

The following concepts are core to the study and are therefore explained below.

1.3.1 *Poverty Alleviation*

Dewdney (1996:64) defines poverty alleviation as "short term relief from poverty symptoms, often by the state through transfer of payments but also and especially in developing countries through non-governmental organisations, donor community and self-help mechanisms". Therefore, poverty alleviation is a temporary measure to provide relief from poverty.

1.3.2 Poverty Reduction

Globally, many countries have made it a priority to combat poverty. Poverty reduction is an intervention aimed at a sustained improvement in the economic status of the poor, by raising incomes and creating new opportunities for employment which, in turn, bring about increased consumption, savings and investment (Riddell and Robinson, 1992:12). Poverty reduction is the long-term decline in the incidence of poverty because of an increase in the ability of poor households to help themselves through increasing subsistence output or gaining employment (Dewdney, 1996, p. 64). Studies by the Poverty and Inequality Institute (2007, p. 14) defines poverty reduction as a reduction in the number or percentage of people living in poverty. Therefore, this research seeks to establish how resources in Chitomborwizi could be used to develop rural tourism to diversify livelihoods and reduce poverty.

1.3.3 Pro-poor growth

Pro-poor growth is defined as growth that contributes to poverty reduction. Pro-poor growth is growth that maximises income gains for the poor in terms of attaining Millenium Development Goals (Klasen, 2007 p. 1). To achieve pro-poor growth, it is fundamental to ensure that the poor have access to assets, gender inequalities are eliminated and inclusivity of disadvantaged groups. DFID (2004) conceptualises growth as being pro-poor if the income of the poor grows more than the rest of the population. Therefore, the proposed pro-poor tourism is bound to increase the income level of students.

1.3.4 Pro-poor Tourism

Pro-poor tourism refers to tourism that is developed to reduce poverty. Defined simply, it is tourism that results in increased benefits for poor people (Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership, 2004). The benefits that accrue from pro-poor tourism are social, cultural, and environmental. The core aim of pro-poor tourism strategies is to “unlock opportunities for the poor, rather than to expand the overall size of the sector” (Ashley et al., 2001:2; Theerapappisit, 2009). Ashley et al. (2002) defined pro-poor tourism as any form of tourism that leads to increased net benefits for the poor, targets the poor and leads to pro-poor impacts through targeted interventions. The multisectoral

nature of the tourism industry, therefore, provides the poor with opportunities for increased participation in the tourism industry directly, indirectly and through induced opportunities.

1.3.5 Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis

The Sustainable Livelihood Analysis Framework [SLAF] is a tool for planning new development initiatives and evaluating existing livelihood initiatives (DFID, 1999). Kollmair and Gamper (2002) and Dearden et al. (2002) defined the Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework (SLAF) as an instrument for investigating poor people's livelihoods whilst considering any extenuating factors that have a bearing on their livelihood activities. The SLA approach identifies and develops the assets, strategies, and strengths of poor groups across all sectors to meet the livelihood goals of the community users (Farrington, 2001). The approach views people as operating in vulnerability where they have access to poverty-reducing factors. These gain their meaning and value through the prevailing social, institutional, and organisational environment which in turn influences the livelihood strategies that are open to people in pursuit of beneficial livelihood outcomes that meet their livelihood objectives (DFID, 2001).

1.3.6 Rural area

These are settlements where primary activities such as farming, mining, and fishing take place. Even though there is no common definition of a rural area, there are common characteristics that define rural areas such as low population levels, limited access to large cities, and considerable travelling distance to markets and places of work (Housing Assistance Council, 2008). Rural areas are often less developed areas than their urban counterparts as shown in Table 1.1 below. Rural areas are often characterised by high poverty levels and therefore alternative economic options are sought to diversify livelihoods (Iwu et al., 2018and). For this study rural areas are defined based on characteristics in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Comparison of Rural and Urban areas in Zimbabwe

DEFINING ELEMENT	RURAL AREA	URBAN AREA
Population	• Sparsely populated	• Densely populated
Industrialisation	• Peripheral to industrialised and commercial areas	• High levels of industrialisation and business activity
Amenities	• Schools, shops, healthcare facilities are few. • Areas they exist in are underdeveloped • Poor infrastructure development (electricity, internet connectivity, poor roads)	• Modernised and readily available amenities • Well-developed infrastructure
Living standards	• High poverty rates due to underdevelopment • Mainly agro based	• High standards of living due to modern facilities and services.
Socialisation	• Homogeneous collaborative communities bound by team spirit	• Population largely comprises self-seeking individuals
Health status	• Agriculture is the common activity with no serious disruption of ecosystems	• Industrialisation leads to destruction of ecosystems which compromises health of individuals
Development	• Slow pace of development with government and entrepreneurs less inclined to develop rural areas	• Fast-paced development

Source: Masarakufa (2019)

1.3.7 Rural Tourism

Rural tourism is defined as tourism which takes place in rural environments offering a countryside experience in which a variety of activities differ from those in urban areas (Nagy et al., 2017). Such activities include but are not limited to agro-tourism, nature tourism, cultural and heritage tourism (Nicolaidis, 2020). The UNWTO (2004) recognises key attractions in rural tourism as the area, heritage, life, and activities as shown in Table 1.2 below.

Table 1.2: Scope of rural tourism

RURAL AREA	RURAL HERITAGE
• forests, mountains • rivers, lakes (natural)	• traditional values • local values
RURAL LIFE	RURAL ACTIVITIES
• handicrafts • local foods • local activities • agricultural tourism • traditional activities	• jogging • hiking • watersports • fishing • cycling

Source: UNWTO (2004)

1.3.8 Cultural Heritage Tourism

According to McNulty and Koffi (2014) cultural heritage tourism is ‘based on the mosaic of places, traditions, art forms, celebrations and experiences that portray this nation and its people, reflecting the diversity and character of a place’ (p.7). Categories of cultural heritage tourism include:

- Historical attractions, monuments, or landmarks
- Museums, art galleries, or theaters
- Festivals, concerts, or performances
- Culturally significant neighborhoods or communities

1.3.9 Ecotourism

CBE also found its way into mainstream literature in the 1980s when sustainable environmental management and growth in enviro-centric tourists gained momentum (Diamantis, 1999; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Despite its popularisation, its definitions are also numerous and in constant metamorphosis (BjoÈrkp, 1990; Cheia, 2013; Donohoe and Needham, 2006; Fennel, 2001; Reimer and Walter, 2013; Teichmann and Pieters, 2015; Weaver, 2004; Wall and Tao, 1999), with Fennel (2001) presenting 85 ecotourism definitions. In the period stretching from the 1980s-2000, ecotourism definitions were devoid of the social dimension and its connection with communities. Realising this gap, Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) then went on to define it as environmentally responsible, enlightening travel to moderately undisturbed natural

areas to enjoy and appreciate nature, promote conservation, that has low visitor impact, and provides socio-economic benefits to participating local communities (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2014; Teshome et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the definition was also challenged for circumventing tourism impacts and sustainability (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). A better definition was then presented by The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) (2012), where ecotourism was defined as a type of responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people.

Even today, the search for a better definition persists because TIES's definition neglects issues of equity, benefits sharing, ownership and control of tourism by the local people for the local people (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Considering the current status quo, Donohoe and Needham (2006), Postica and Cardoso, (2014) and Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2019) revealed that lack of a common ecotourism definition is the reason for poor quality ecotourism experiences, inappropriate management controls and missing linkages between ecotourism and other forms of tourism (Fennel, 2002; 2003; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Consequently, ecotourism expresses itself in varied forms (Donohoe and Needham, 2006; Ross and Wall, 1999) some of which are self-destructive (Tsaur et al., 2006).

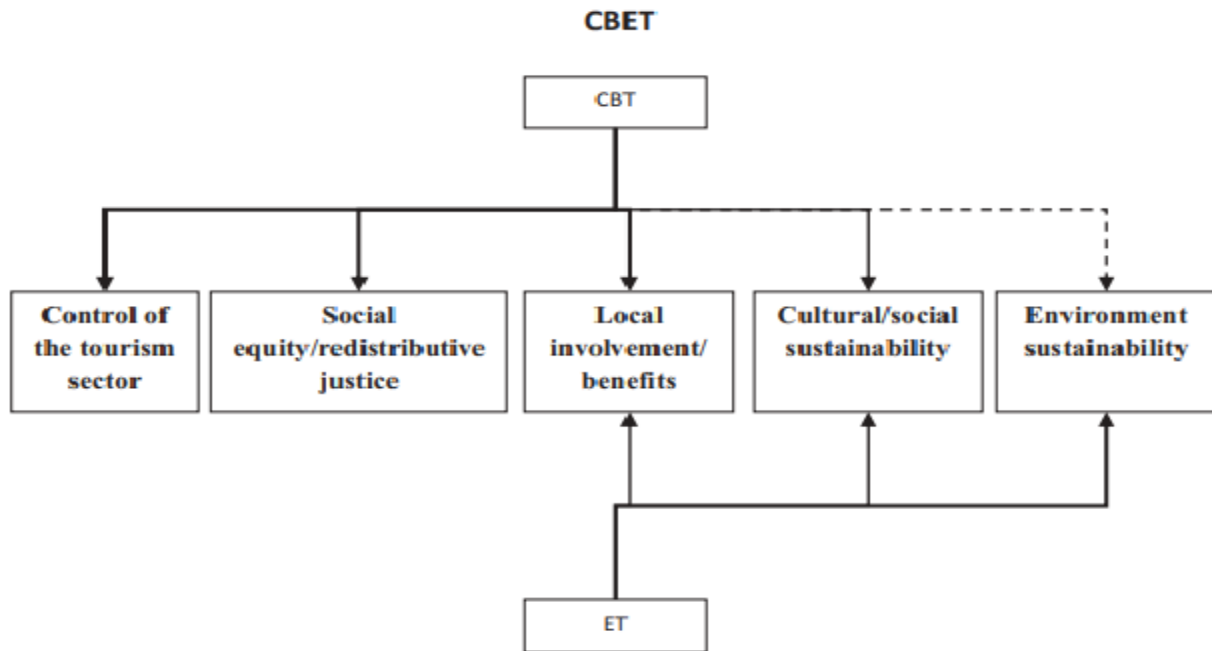


Figure 1.7: Relationship between ecotourism and community-based tourism

Source: Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2019)

For this discussion, ecotourism integrates travel, conversation and local participation which has been devoid in many developing countries (Che, 2006; Jalani, 2012, Leksakundilok, 2004; Tsaur et al., 2006). Overtime, predictions are that ecotourism will develop into mass tourism (Ross and Wall, 1999; Diamantis, 1999) because of its market driven capitalistic orientation (Leksandilok, 2004) and green washing activities by many tourism and hospitality operators. Figure 1.7 summarises the relationship between tourism and ecotourism

1.3.10 Tourism and Poverty Alleviation

In the 1990s, the Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership, a collaborative research initiative of the International Center for Responsible Tourism (ICRT), the International Institute for the Environment and Development (IIED) and the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), initiated work on pro-poor tourism (Ashley et al., 2001). In 1999, the Department of International Development (DFID) in the United Kingdom created a platform for the discussion of the nexus between tourism and poverty alleviation to abate adverse impacts of tourism whilst enhancing local participation and community benefits. The outcome of the conversation led the agency to

assign accountancy firm Deloitte and Touche, to conduct research on Sustainable Tourism and Poverty Alleviation and their findings bore out the concept of pro-poor tourism (Goodwin, 2008). The research was conducted in the United Kingdom and key respondents were development agencies and banks with a vested interest in pro-poor tourism (Deloitte and Touche, International Institute for Environment and Development and Overseas Development Institute, 1999). The report explored potential pro-poor tourism initiatives, enhancement of the net benefits from tourism and development of mechanisms for tapping into mainstream tourism to benefit the poor. The outcome of the research contradicted the historical view in which tourism had been regarded as a source of economic development and poverty alleviation a consequence of that process (Ashley et al., 2000). The research and report take the view that tourism development is driven by the aims of poverty alleviation (See Figure 1.8 below).

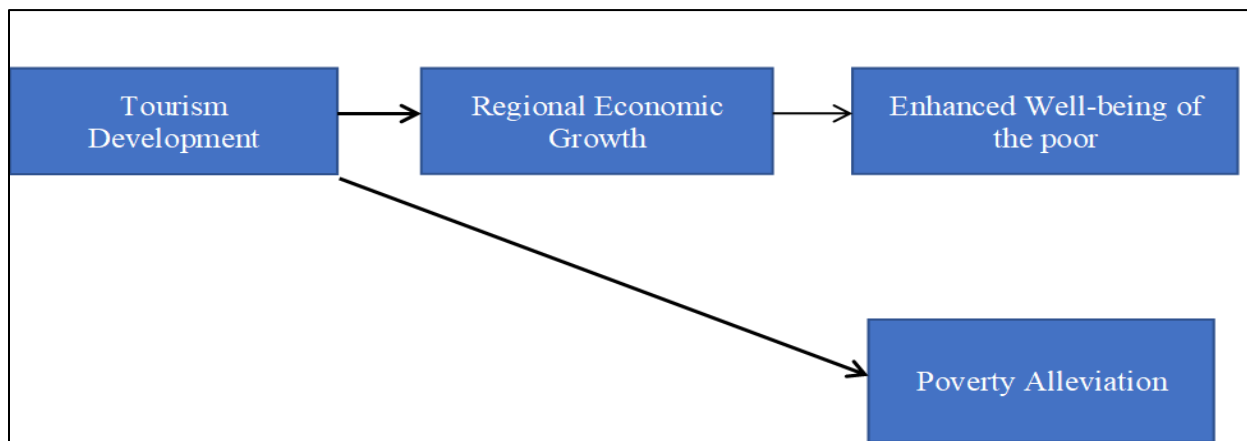


Figure 1.8: Paradigm shift of the link between tourism and poverty alleviation

Source: Hall (2007)

Pro-poor tourism aims to establish a direct link between tourism and poverty alleviation by underscoring the priorities of the poor in tourism development (UNWTO, 2001; Ashley et al., 2001). Many pro-poor protagonists believe that tourism's potential for poverty alleviation is greater in comparison to other economic sectors because of its size, labour intensiveness, and the numerous opportunities for business linkages it presents. This notion is opposed by the argument that tourism growth is frequently led by the private sector, resulting in high leakages (money flowing out of the area/country) and fewer linkages, loss of access to natural resources as well as

cultural and social disruption (Deloitte and Touche; International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED); Overseas Development Institute (ODI), 1999). Despite the advancement of the concept of pro-poor tourism, Harrison (2008) concluded that pro-poor tourism has not yet delivered the envisioned benefits to the poor. Key stakeholders in the tourism industry need to carry out further investigations into how pro-poor tourism's intended benefits can accrue to the underprivileged. Sychevens (2007) also argued that the term is loosely applied by donor agencies seeking funding for community-based tourism and ecotourism projects which have no pro-poor orientation. Such agencies use the pro-poor tourism semantics to camouflage non-pro-poor tourism activities to their benefit. Many contend that since tourism is driven by foreign, private sector interests it is not well placed to contribute much to poverty alleviation (United Nations, 2003).

Pro-poor tourism implementation has produced mixed results globally. Poultney and Spenceley (2001) mentioned that in South Africa, Wilderness Safaris partnered with a community and a local conservation agency in Maputaland to develop upmarket Ndumu Wilderness Camp and Rocktail Lodges, which are managed by Mathenjwa and Mqobela Tribal Authority respectively (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001). The partnership has created local employment in the lodges, led to vocational skills development as well as utilisation of local tourism services, such as local security and taxi services. Nevertheless, tourism development in Maputaland is constrained by lack of infrastructure such as roads, water, and electricity. Relevant authorities need to facilitate pro-poor tourism growth by creating a conducive environment through, for example, infrastructure development. Furthermore, ecotourism activities pursued at the Kruger National Park have benefited 41 500 people in Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces through employment generation and enterprise development (Saayman et al., 2012). Generally, in South Africa, tourism businesses procure their goods from the local environment, employ local people, and build partnerships with local communities (Saayman et al., 2012).

In Latin America, a tour operator called Tropical Ecological Adventures, developed pro-poor tourism packages run by certain Amazonian Indians (Braman and Amazonia, 2001). Tourists have the opportunity for overnight stays in the Huaorani Community in the Amazon where they

experience local culture and lifestyle. However, such benefits have been short-lived. In 2000, political instability in the Ecuadorian Amazon led to the closure of the local airport by the Civil Aviation Authority (Braman and Amazonia, 2001). Another prevailing challenge to the tour operator is the fact that the local community lacks the business acumen required to run and manage tourism enterprises. The success of pro-poor tourism requires a favourable political environment, sound infrastructure and possession of business skills and knowledge by the local people if poverty alleviation is to materialise.

1.3.11 Tourism and Poverty Alleviation in Zimbabwe

Many countries in the developing world, including Zimbabwe, have taken advantage of tourism to grow their economies. As shown in Figure 1.8, tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe declined between 1966 and 1979 because of the liberation war that erupted after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence. The war created an unsuitable environment for tourism to thrive (Mapira and Matura, 2018). Between 1980 and 1999, the average growth rate in international tourist arrivals increased by 17.5% and total receipts likewise also increased by 18% (Abel and Le Roux, 2017). The upward trend was attributable to a robust infrastructure and a favourable image of the country abroad. Though major tourism growth was recorded in the 1990s (Nyahunzvi and Njekera, 2013), tourism arrivals began to decline in 2000 because of political instability, the land reform programme and 2002 parliamentary election outcomes (Muchapondwa and Pimhidzai, 2008). International arrivals registered a 4.5% decline from 2000 to 2005 with the highest recorded declines being 14.7% and 15.9% in 2003 and 2005 respectively (Muchapondwa and Pimhidzai, 2008). Cholera outbreaks caused by poor sanitation were an additional contributory factor to the fall in tourist arrivals recorded in 2005 (Alex and Le Roux, 2017). The Global Political Agreement of 2009 and the dollarisation of the economy created an environment that revitalised the tourism industry. The said growth in tourism arrivals is also attributed to the rebranding of the country to ‘Zimbabwe: A World of Wonders’ (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2011). The trends in tourism development in the country are depicted in Figure 1.9.

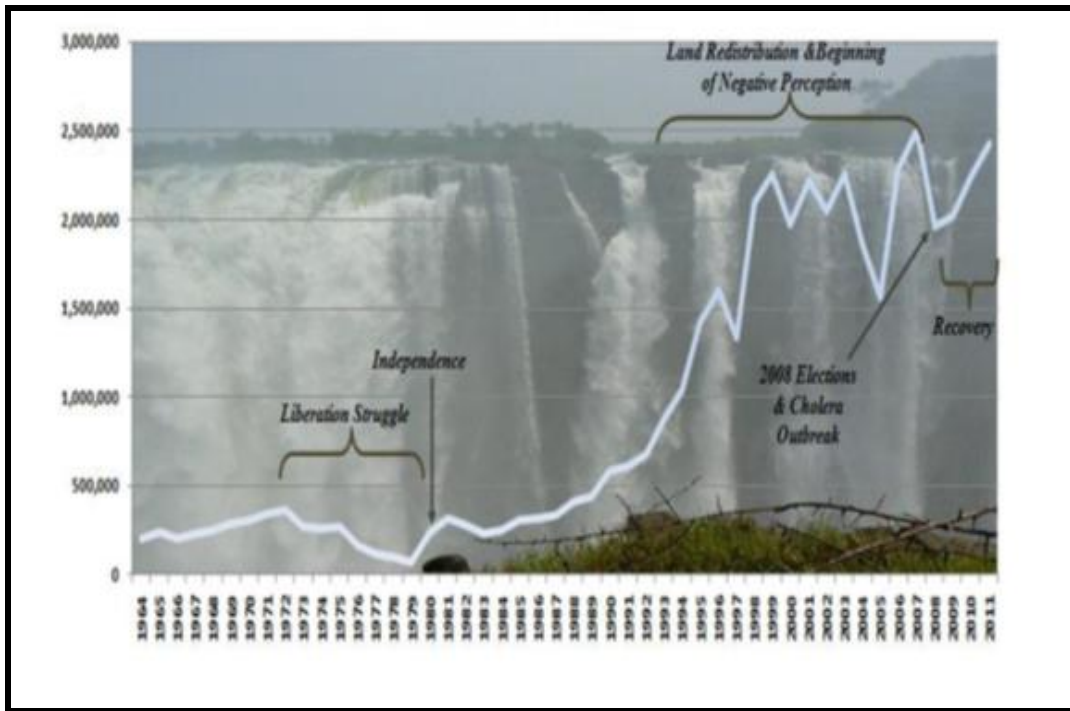


Figure 1.9: Trends of Tourism Development in Zimbabwe

Source: Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (2011)

Figure 1.10 indicates that in 2012, tourism arrivals in Zimbabwe fell by 26% because many of the economies that constitute the country's source markets were suffering from the effects of the 2008-2009 global economic recession (ZTA, 2012). A slow growth of the South African economy, the Eurozone crisis, a weak economy and higher unemployment levels in USA and lack of a direct air link to the Asian market all led to the plummeting number of tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe. By contrast, tourist arrivals increased in 2013, because many of the source markets began to recover from the catastrophic effects of the 2008 global economic recession (ZTA, 2013). Even more encouraging was the growth in receipts by 14%, despite just a marginal increase in arrivals during the same period. High yield, low volume tourism is an option that can be pursued by the country through strengthening marketing efforts in such source markets.

In 2014, Zimbabwe's economy grew by 3.1%. However, its full growth potential was unrealised because of a liquidity crunch, low investment inflows, power supply shortages and low domestic savings. Despite the prevailing economic conditions, tourist arrivals grew by 4.7 %

whereas receipts fell by 3.5% from US\$ 856 million to US\$ 827 million. In the following year a 9% growth in international tourist arrivals was recorded, mainly from the USA and UK as shown in Figure 1.9. Correspondingly, receipts grew by 7%. However, the domestic tourism market remained suppressed in 2014 and 2015 due to the harsh prevailing economic environment (ZTA, 2014). However, aggressive marketing campaigns undertaken by the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority to promote Zimbabwe as a safe tourist destination led to an increase in tourist arrivals from 2009 to 2015 (Mapira and Matura, 2018). To register tourism growth, the government needs to address infrastructure development issues, particularly upgrading of airports, road networks, sewage systems, water supply, and productivity of the agricultural and manufacturing sector which are key tourism enablers (Abel and Le Roux, 2017).

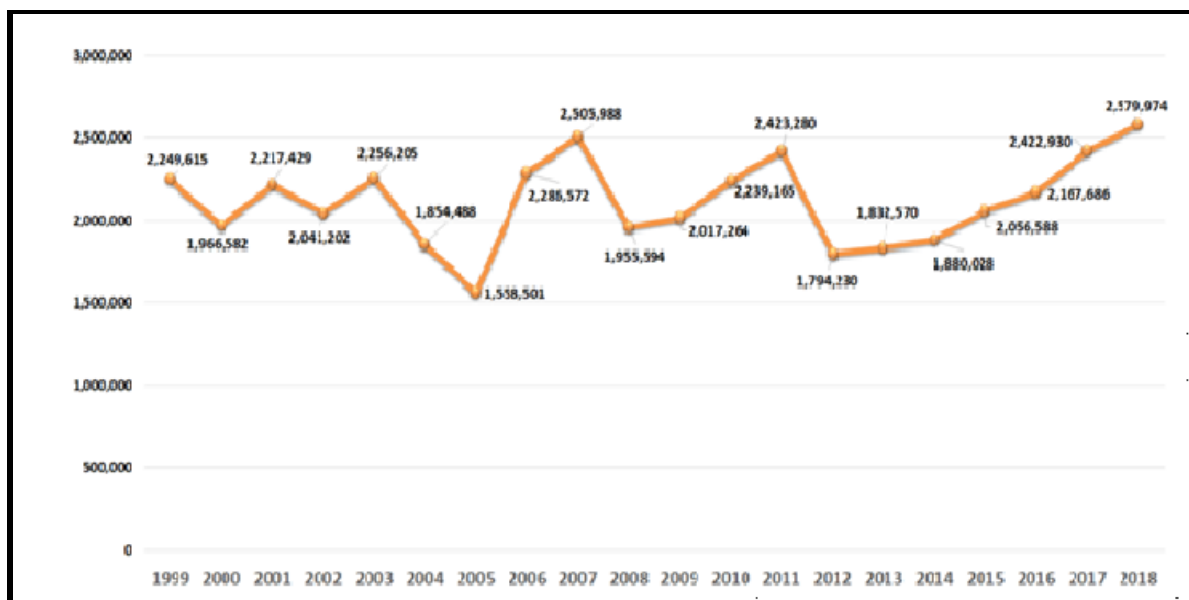


Figure 1.10: Foreign Tourism Arrivals in Zimbabwe 1999-2010

Source: ZTA (2018)

In 2016 a 5% growth in tourist arrivals was recorded due to positive economic performance of the country's source markets such as the UK, the Americas and Africa as shown in Figure 1.9 below. Unfortunately, receipts fell by 9% from US\$ 886 million to US\$ 819 million due to the ongoing liquidity crunch in Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2016). In 2017 arrivals increased from 2 167 686 to 2 422 930, marking a 12% increase from 2016. In defiance of the

liquidity crunch the tourism receipts increased from US\$ 819 million to US\$ 917 million because of continued economic growth in the source markets post-recession period (ZTA, 2017).

In 2018, the tourism sector continued its upward growth trend and registered a 6% increase in foreign arrivals which generated US\$1.051 billion (76%) in foreign receipts, up from US\$ 917 million in 2017. Domestic tourism contributed US\$ 335 million (24%) resulting in total earnings of US\$ 1. 386 billion. During the same year tourism contributed 7.2% to GDP, 5.2% to employment and 4.7% to total exports. Growth in the year under consideration was facilitated by new visa regimes, and increased airline connectivity of Zimbabwe with regional destinations. Such developments are key, since tourism has the potential to generate pro-poor gains, given its vast sectoral linkages. Even more encouraging is the fact that the Tourism Business Council of Zimbabwe projected that the country's tourism would contribute 50% to the country's gross domestic product and generate US\$ 7 billion annually until 2030 (Chamba, 2019). It is evident from the information discussed above that fuel shortages, the liquidity crunch and foreign currency shortages continue to militate against tourism development.

Pre-COVID-19, UNWTO projected an increase in tourism receipts from US\$ 500 million in 2002 to US\$ 2 trillion in 2020 globally (Abel and Le Roux, 2017). The forecast was tied to increased multiplier benefits in the global economy, thorough increased consumption of local goods and services, employment creation and development of opportunities for increased value chains. The optimism of the growth of the sector has been dealt a blow by the outbreak of COVID-19 virus which has hampered all forms of tourist travel at global level.

Domestic tourism travel in Zimbabwe continues to be dominated by business travel since leisure travel has been suppressed by economic hardships (ZTA, 2018). Domestic Tourism has been stifled by limited citizen awareness of travel opportunities, a non-holidaying culture, limited disposable income, absence of packages tailored for the locals and absence of a coordinated approach to promote domestic tourism (Mapira and Matura, 2018; ZIPARU, 2013). The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority does not acknowledge the contribution of domestic tourism to the economy in the way it does for International Tourism. This is evidence of the lack of prioritisation

of domestic tourism development. For a pro-poor tourism initiative to succeed in Chitomborwizi East, there must be a robust policy to promote domestic tourism at national level.

1.3.12 Tourism in rural Areas in Zimbabwe

Dating back to 1970s, rural economies' economic opportunities have been dwindling due to a fall in agricultural productivity (Sharif and Lonik, 2017). As a result, many rural communities have begun to diversify from agriculture to non-traditional activities such as tourism. Many proponents of rural tourism development believe that the future of rural areas lies in benefits created through tourism because rural tourism is easier to set up in comparison to investment in other economic sectors such as manufacturing (Sharif and Lonik, 2017). This explains why the government of Zimbabwe through its policies and economic blueprints has made clear its intention to link tourism to poverty alleviation (Zhou, 2020). Key is the intention to decentralise tourism to local communities to diversify livelihood opportunities and consequently reduce the poverty which is rampant in rural areas. Rural tourism in Zimbabwe has been centred on wildlife tourism at the expense of other potential forms of rural tourism. It must also be noted that wildlife tourism that is a subset of agricultural tourism particularly game farming. As such this forms the basis for delving on wildlife tourism at great length in the thesis since it is the predominant form of rural tourism. Agricultural tourism is a multifaceted concept. Agricultural tourism is a type of tourism where tourists visit farms to experience the life of farmers (Herman et al., 2014). Agricultural tourism has always played a significant role in the development of poverty-stricken rural areas (Lu et al., 2019). In addition, they further cited that there are two types of agricultural tourism products which are material, accommodation, land and agricultural production and human resources to provide labour at agro-tourism ventures. Bernado et al. (2004) viewed the supply side of agricultural tourism to consist of outdoor recreation, edutainment, hospitality services and farm direct sales as shown in Figure 1.11. Consequently, farmers in Chitomborwizi East could take advantage of such initiatives at their farms to reduce poverty. This is feasible because agricultural tourism offers opportunities for farmers to sell directly to consumers without necessarily going through commercial intermediaries and the middlemen thus increasing their profit margins (Yamagishi et al., 2021). In agreement, Garcia-Ramon et al. (1995) contended that agricultural tourism contributes to employment creation, multiplier effect of the rural economy

and livelihoods diversification. Regrettably, in as much as farmers want to engage in agricultural tourism, they often lack the relevant entrepreneurial skills and knowledge pertinent for tourism development (Phelan and Sharpley, 2012; Kokko, 2011). Lorenciana (2014) cited that one of the biggest threats to the development of agricultural tourism is climate change, limited finances, technical issues and limited availability of human resources (Moraru et al., 2016). This was further reinforced by Moraru et al. (2016) who reiterated that despite agricultural tourism being a favoured farm reinvigoration option, it does not provide the much-anticipated benefits. Despite these setbacks agricultural tourism is vital in diversifying rural economies and stimulating entrepreneurship even in non-agricultural and tourism areas. This boosts the rural economies and curtails rural urban migration by providing economic opportunities to rural inhabitants. Given the above discussion agricultural tourism does have a significant part to play in poverty alleviation in rural areas.

It must be acknowledged that agri-tourism is a form of tourism that has not been prioritised in Zimbabwe despite the willingness of farmers to encapsulate it to diversify their livelihoods. In research by Chikuta and Makacha (2016) farmers in Zimbabwe cited fishing, fruit harvesting, horse riding and provision of farm accommodation as major attractions they would promote at their farms. Despite the heightened interest by farmers to engage in agricultural tourism, there are challenges that need to be overcome. The National Tourism Authority (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority) firmly believes that agro-tourism has potential to diversify the tourism product, but the major challenge is lack of funding, poorly developed infrastructure, limited tourism knowledge and poor communication in rural areas (Chikuta & Makacha, 2016). Nevertheless, the National Tourism Authority is well positioned to support agro-tourism development by developing pro-agro-tourism policies and providing market intelligence information.

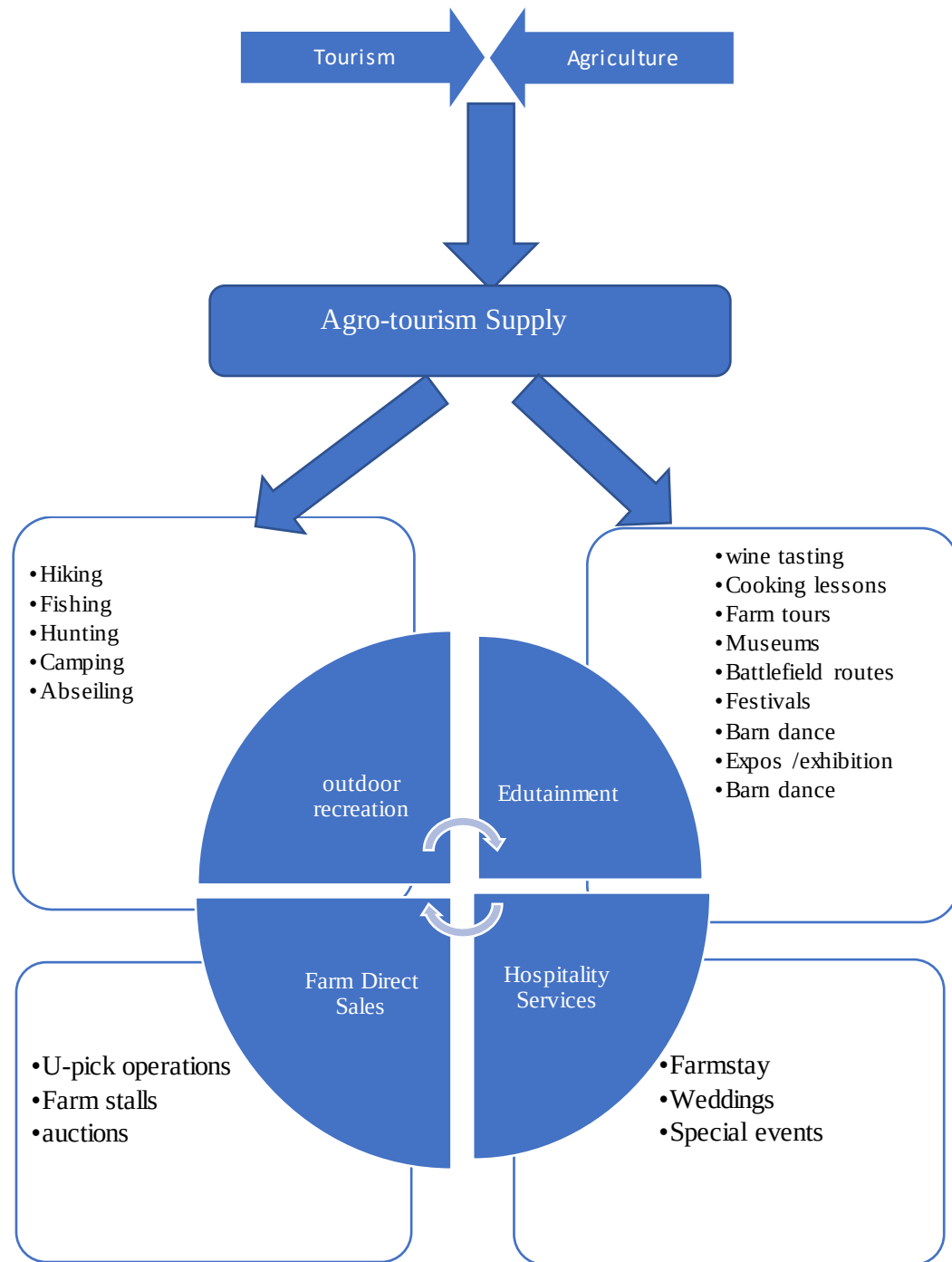


Figure 1.11 Agriculture supply products
Source: Adapted from Bernado et al. (2004)

Therefore, to fully understand the setting of the agricultural tourism which will occur in a rural setting, wildlife tourism particularly CAMPFIRE was explored at depth. The exploration

was to evaluate to what extent the current institutions and structures that govern wildlife tourism in rural areas could be tailored to non-wildlife rural tourism especially agro-tourism. This therefore justifies why the researcher explored the concept at depth.

In the 19th century, wildlife protected areas were set up by governments the world over to conserve the fauna and flora (Zanamwe et al., 2018; Ntuli et al., 2018; Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018). In the fortress system of conservation, hunting by local people residing in the vicinity of protected areas was considered illicit and therefore subject to criminalisation. At Independence, many African states adopted the unjust wildlife management techniques from the colonial epoch. However, this centralised approach to natural resource conservation failed to achieve the intended objectives because local communities remained marginalised in natural resource conservation and therefore did not support such initiatives (Matseketsa et al., 2018). Production and sale of agricultural produce, handicrafts, traditional mats, hand-brooms, wood and stone carvings, morula beer and others are livelihood strategies derived from use of natural resources (Matseketsa et al., 2018). If local people are dispossessed of their land which is a source of their livelihoods, then alternative livelihood strategies must be sought to compensate for loss of land, otherwise human-wildlife conflict will be on the rise. In minimal recognition of the above challenges, in 1978, Zimbabwe's Department of Parks and Wildlife Management (DPWM) under the colonial regime developed Wildlife Industries for All (WINDFALL), a programme aimed at reducing soil degradation in communal areas (Zanamwe et al., 2018; CASS, 1988; Moore, 1997). Community benefits from safari hunting fees, availability of game meat and reduction of human-wildlife conflicts were treated as secondary in the WINDFALL initiative (Moore, 1998; Metcalfe, 1993; Murphee, 2009). The programme failed because the link between ecological conservation and socio-economic development was non-existent.

In Zimbabwe community-based natural resources management is currently interpreted as a form of integrated conservation development projects which promote conservation and improvement of rural livelihoods through legal and commercial exploitation of resources (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018). Community-based tourism projects that have been developed at Amboseli National Park in Kenya and Bwindi National Park in Uganda (Mgyenyi et al., 2014)

that have integrated community socio-economic benefits and conservation bear resemblance to Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE programme. In Zimbabwe, wildlife conservation takes the form of either rural tourism in CAMPFIRE districts or private conservancies where large commercial farmers have been given full authority to manage wildlife on their farms. Before the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in 2000, 662 game farms and conservancies were registered under the Wildlife Producers Association of Zimbabwe (Chigonda, 2018). However, by 2015 a total of eight conservancies with a combined total of 100 private game farms and 37 CAMPFIRE districts, made up of 121 500 rural households, were recorded (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018). Conservancies were developed through the Parks and Wildlife Act of 1975 to reintroduce wildlife species that were in decline because of growth in intensive cattle ranching. Save Valley, Bubian and Bubyie are some of the conservancies that have been a success in wildlife management (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018; Chigonda, 2018). Local people find tourism-related employment at the conservancies as well as a ready market for their crafts and farm produce.

However, communities who live near the conservancy, despite getting the few employment opportunities, continue to live in abject poverty. Following the establishment of the Land Acquisition Act of 1992, the government made known its intention to resettle people in the conservancies. To retain full control and ownership of these conservancies the commercial farmers drilled boreholes and paid school fees for community children (Chigonda, 2018). The government through its local governance structures should have carried out a tourism value chain analysis to establish vibrant community-based tourism projects which include but are not limited to horticulture, making jewellery, handicrafts and artworks, culture and dance, as well as wildlife conservation for communities that reside close to conservancies (Hlengwa and Maruta, 2019). This neglect is not a surprise as even the Zimbabwe Tourism Development Master Plan (2017) and the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Blueprint of 2013-2015 emphasise the development of traditional key destinations such as Kariba, Hwange and Victoria Falls that lie in mainstream tourism.

To curtail the persistent human-wildlife conflicts that WINDFALL did not effectively address, the Communal Areas Management Programmes for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE)

was introduced in the 1980s by the Zimbabwean Government. Its guiding principles were that resources needed to be valued for their worth by the local communities and that 80% of the revenue from resource conservation should be received by local communities through a benefit sharing scheme (Logan and Mosley, 2002). Rural tourism in both consumptive and non-consumptive forms has been largely driven by CAMPFIRE (Logan and Mosely, 2010; Ntuli et al., 2018; Chigonda, 2018). Local communities who live in the vicinity of protected wildlife areas are central to sustainable management of natural resources such as wildlife, though their involvement remains limited (Ntuli et al., 2018; Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018). CAMPFIRE players include the government (Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management, District councils and councillors), the private sector (safari companies), hunters, local communities and individual households as shown in Figure 1.12 below (Tchakatumba et al., 2019; Chigonda, 2018). Benefits realised from CAMPFIRE include trophy hunting revenues, nature tourism opportunities, live animal sales and supply of game meat (Logan and Mosely, 2010). Practically, only 50% of revenue generated from CAMPFIRE goes to local communities, 4% to the CAMPFIRE Association, 15% to rural district councils and the remaining 31% is dedicated to wildlife management (Tchakatumba et al., 2019). This is not in agreement with the original intention of CAMPFIRE, which was to transfer 80% of the revenue to producer communities.

In a study carried out on CAMPFIRE projects in the Southern Lowveld of Zimbabwe, it emerged that withdrawal of donor funding and support threatened the survival of CAMPFIRE programmes. Between 1989 and 2003, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Norwegian Agency for International Development donated US\$ 28 million and US\$ 2.2 million respectively for technical support and capacity building for communities involved in the programme (Jones, 2004; Chigonda, 2018 Tchakatumba et al., 2019). During the donor epoch, donor funds, revenues from wildlife resources and employment created led to an improvement of livelihoods of rural households. Donors withdrew their funding from 2003 because of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) which led to hyperinflation and dilapidation of infrastructure including that used for wildlife management, increased poaching, and human encroachment into wildlife areas (Tchakatumba, 2019; Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2015; Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018). The impact of land reform on CAMPFIRE was

counterproductive because its life blood is international tourism demand and donor support. In the same study conducted by Tchakatumba (2019) in Chipinge, Chiredzi and Beitbridge Districts, household dividends from the CAMPIRE programme have either fallen or are inconsistently distributed post the donor era. Therefore, community members are left to rethink their support for the programme given the fact that benefits derived from conservation do not outweigh the costs associated with living in wilderness areas. In addition, income from non-wildlife initiatives such as livestock sales, casual labour, salaries and wages are much higher and therefore give better prospects for improved livelihoods. Clearly, communities see no point in supporting conservation without significant benefits. Households continue to bemoan the fact that they are the least-rewarded beneficiaries from the conservation initiative when compared with other stakeholders (Tchakatumba, 2019; Ntuli et al., 2018; Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2020).

As previously mentioned, despite numerous CAMPFIRE projects and aforesaid benefits, many rural people in Zimbabwe remain poor (Frost and Bond, 2008). Logan and Mosley (2002) reveal that the notions of community ownership and autonomy as well as land tenure issues reduce the success rate of CAMPFIRE projects. Unfortunately, the government continues to retain control of resources through Village Development Committees (100 households), Ward Development Committees (six villages) and District Development Committees (chairpersons from Ward Development Committees). Decisions are made by Rural District Councils (RDC) and safari companies on behalf of the communities including the apportionment of revenues derived from consumptive and non-consumptive tourism (Ntuli et al., 2018).

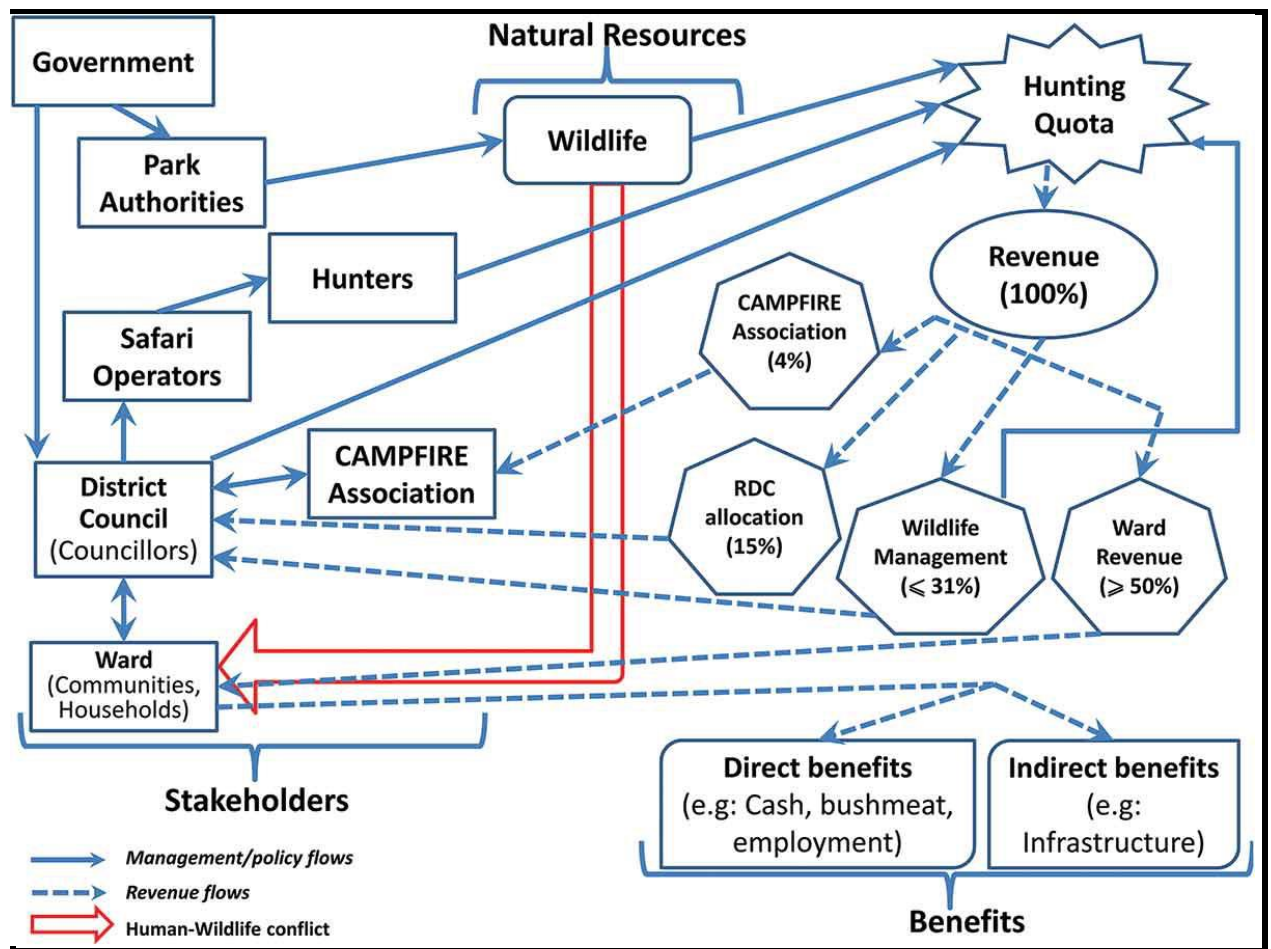


Figure 1.12: CAMPFIRE resource, stakeholder and revenue flow framework

Source: Tchakatumba et al. (2019)

In Binga, for instance, the RDC and a safari company planned to erect a fence to restrict wildlife movement without co-opting the local communities (Ntuli et al., 2018). In Chipinge the Mahenye community took the RDC to court to allow natural resources management to be devolved to that community (Ntuli et al., 2018). In all probability, the courts will rule in favour of the government because the belief is that if communities are given full control, they may decimate natural resources. Clearly the government is not committed to devolving wildlife management authority to the local people. At the onset of CAMPFIRE, the RDC was mandated to manage natural resources, particularly wildlife, on behalf of the communities and then gradually transfer the management to community wildlife management committees and traditional leadership once

full capacitation of the community was achieved. Unfortunately, full devolution of community authority to manage wildlife has not been achieved 40 years after the introduction of the programme. Part of the reason for RDCs clinging to power is their reliance on hunting revenues for their day-to-day operations (Ntuli et al., 2018; Chigonda, 2018). The government needs to entrust communities with full control of their natural resources if conservation and poverty alleviation objectives are to be achieved. 95.3% of Zimbabwean communities living closer to the trans-frontier conservation area want full control of their natural resources (Ntuli et al., 2018; Murombedzi, 2000; Balint and Mashinya, 2008; DeGorges and Reilly, 2009). If communities remain dormant partners in natural resource conservation, poverty will continue to wreak havoc in communities living next to the wildlife resources. In the case of Gaerezi Ecotourism project in the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe, the community's private sector partner Nyanga Dawn Flying Fishing Club set accommodation prices and licensing fees without consulting the community (Nyaruwata, 2011). In Chimanimani District in the same area, local communities bemoan lack of involvement in the establishment of Chimanimani National Park and Eland Sanctuary (Zhou, 2020).

A major problem bedevilling the programme is the variable application of the word “community” (Logan and Mosley, 2002; Nyaruwata, 2011). Even though groups of people may inhabit geographically contiguous areas, they are heterogeneous. Heterogeneity arises from variations in kinship, income levels, and differential access to resources and gender disparities. Multiple community goals and objectives make a communal approach to wildlife management even more difficult. To further compound the matter, wildlife is a fugitive resource² and property rights and ownership of the resource is difficult to assign at community level (Logan and Mosley, 2002). A case in point is that of Bulilima and Tsholotsho District in Zimbabwe where elephants cause damage during the rainy season and then migrate to nearby Tsholotsho District during the dry season where they are then hunted (Logan and Mosley, 2002). Based on the CAMPFIRE

² A resource that moves freely between properties and that may be claimed by any property into which the resource moves.

policy, the latter district is the producer ward of the wildlife resource and therefore should have full entitlement to the allocated hunting revenues (Logan and Mosley, 2002). However, it would be unjust to deprive Bulilima District of CAMPFIRE revenues since the district bears the brunt of the damages caused by wildlife during the rainy season. Therefore, quantifying the damage caused by wildlife, as a measure to apportion hunting revenues, would be preferable to giving each participating community an equal share of the hunting proceeds when they do not suffer the same negative impacts associated with wildlife. This question continues to be a topical issue.

The success of CAMPFIRE projects varies countrywide. A good example of a once successful CAMPFIRE project is in Mahenye village located in the South Eastern Corner in the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe. The village obtains hunting fees and lease fees paid on land belonging to the Mahenye community. Success indicators of natural resources conservation for poverty alleviation are infrastructure development and employment of ten locals in the lodges owned by African Sun (Balint and Mashinya, 2006). However, the project was also fraught with serious challenges including national political instability emanating from the FTLRP which consequently led to a fall in international tourism and a decline in community revenues. The governance of the project was also characterised by lack of financial accountability, delay in disbursement of hunting fees by the safari operator, misappropriation of funds and nepotism in existing employment opportunities (Balint and Mashinya, 2006; Nyaruwata, 2011). In some cases, research findings indicate that the elite population derives benefits from the CAMPFIRE programmes at the expense of the majority poor (Frost and Bond, 2008; Tchakatumba et al., 2019; Balint and Mashinya, 2006).

Rural tourism promoted through the development of cultural villages has become a secondary activity in many wildlife tourism hotspots designated as CAMPFIRE areas or conservancies and celebrated attractions such as the Victoria Falls and Kariba that attract mainstream tourists. Most successful community-based tourism projects are in the country's eleven Tourism Development Zones (TDZ) whose tourism resource base is mainly wildlife. These include Chesvingo Cultural Centre and Lodges (Great Zimbabwe TDZ), Hot Spring and Wellness Resort (Eastern Highlands TDZ), Venda Cultural Village (Limpopo TDZ), Tengenenge Cultural

Village (Mavuradonha, TDZ) and Mahenye Wildlife and Integrated Project (Gonarezhou, TDZ). Ko Mpisi and Kune Ngoma are typical cultural villages that exhibit the traditional life of Monde villagers who reside in Hwange District in Matebeleland North. The district is home to the world-renowned Hwange National Park, which boasts diverse wildlife and wilderness experiences and is just 100 km from the mighty Victoria Falls. At community level, villagers benefit from the cultural villages through local food supply, performing arts and the sale of cultural artefacts. Even though Ko Mpisi has been a successful business model, its counterpart Kune Ngoma cultural village continues to struggle financially due to poor product diversity (Runyowa, 2017; Government of Zimbabwe, 2016).

Inadequate marketing continues to stifle growth of community tourism initiatives as exemplified by the lack of a website for Ko Mpisi that could be co-hosted by other principal players in the industry to increase demand for its services (Runyowa, 2017; Community Based Tourism Master Plan, 2017). Generally, weaknesses inherent in community-based tourism enterprises are recognised by the Government of Zimbabwe (2017) as:

- Lack of effective marketing and poor product diversification
- Limited skilled manpower
- Limited knowledge of responsible tourism
- Inaccessible locations
- Limited understanding of tourism product and product distribution channels
- Lack of product development finance.

In rural areas where wildlife is not a key attraction it is difficult for communities to develop successful cultural tourism products due to the absence of a mainstream tourism market. Domestic tourism could offer potential for tourism development in these disadvantaged rural communities that are not endowed with huge attractions such as the “Big Five”. To develop non-wildlife tourism resources that are found in rural areas need to be inventoried and the perception of local communities regarding their support for tourism development established. An appropriate approach to community-based tourism that addresses the shortfalls of CAMPFIRE should then be developed in the study area to contribute to poverty alleviation.

Since CAMPFIRE is domiciled in areas rich in wildlife resources, rural areas without such resources continue to exist under the misfortune of poverty. This research seeks to engender a new approach to poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe by proposing community utilisation of non-wildlife resources for tourism development. Agro-tourism, heritage and cultural resources, events and water resources offer major opportunities for rural tourism development. Biri Dam in Chitomborwizi East Ward is situated on the Manyame River, about 120 km north-west of Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. The dam is a private sector development project promoted and funded by a consortium of large-scale commercial farmers who wanted to draw water from the dam for irrigating their farms. It is an earth-fill embankment which is 1 500 m long and 35 m high, with a 104 m uncontrolled spillway (Zimbabwe Committee on Large Dams, 2001).

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Chitomborwizi East Ward is a farming area in Makonde District in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. It is bound by Guruve District in the north and North east, Zvimba District in the east, Chegutu District in the south, Kadoma District in the South west, and Hurungwe District in the west and covers an area of approximately 8 680 km² as shown in Figure 1.9. The area is made up of 19 wards with a population of 174 000 people divided into two constituencies: Mhangura constituency (9 wards) and Makonde constituency (10 wards). The main income-generating activity in the ward is small-scale and resettlement agriculture. Most of the communal areas and small-scale commercial farms in the ward receive low rainfall of (450-650mm). The soils in the small-scale commercial farms are predominantly sandy with low fertility, low organic matter and low water-holding properties. High input costs, limited access to bank loans and reduction of government subsidies for farmers have led to the reduction of agricultural yields. Moreover, low levels of agricultural productivity and poor access to resources such as draught power, labour and finance as well as inadequate socio-economic infrastructure have hampered agricultural development in the farming sector. Poor agricultural productivity has led to a high incidence of poverty in the ward.

Therefore, confronted with an agricultural sector that offers few prospects for development, tourism has been targeted as an option that could offer better prospects for livelihood

improvement given the potential agro-tourism, water-based tourism activities and cultural and heritage resources that the area is endowed with and its potential to stimulate economic activities in multiple village sectors. Tourism value-chains span direct subsectors such as transportation, accommodation and food and beverages to include, indirectly, market-gardening, agro-forestry, and handicrafts, among others. The tourism potential is seriously compromised by the fact that the government of Zimbabwe (2017) identified 11 Tourism Development Zones (TDZ) which are areas of concentration of tourism activities and investments in its five-year Tourism Master Plan. The attraction base of all these zones – except for the metropolitan cities of Harare and Bulawayo – is wildlife. Given the fact that the area under study lies outside Tourism Development Zones and does not have a stock of the big five mammals most sought after by international tourists, it must harness its agro-tourism and cultural and heritage resources to cater for domestic tourism demand from nearby Chinhoyi town. Clearly, government investment in the study area is not a priority and therefore the community must find a means of resourcing its agro-tourism development potential, perhaps through partnering with a private sector investor. Culture and water-based tourism could complement agro-tourism.

Tourism in Zimbabwe is based on celebrated attractions such as Hwange National Park, Lake Kariba, Matopos National Park, Nyanga National Park, The Great Zimbabwe, and Chinhoyi Caves (Anon, 2018; Musavengane, 2018). Mutangi et al. (2015) bemoan the fact that little attention has been paid to rural wildlife tourism, let alone tourism in non-wildlife zones. In areas where the CAMPFIRE approach has been used to diversify rural livelihoods, activities remain disengaged from national and global processes and are often critiqued for their marginal approach to development (Gondo and Mugweni, 2007; Ntuli et al., 2018; Chagonda, 2018). Once again, evidence available suggests that the approach has not been successfully applied to forest and mineral resources, which is why many rural environments devoid of wildlife resources continue to experience an unmatched level of poverty. It must be acknowledged that wildlife is not the only resource that offers potential for rural tourism development. Rural residents are major custodians of cultural resources ideal for cultural tourism, but such potential remains untapped (Siwadi and Chaderopa, 2012) including in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Agricultural tourism resources, cultural and archaeological resources (traditions, rituals, crafts, rock paintings, rain-making ceremonies,

traditional court sessions, collective agriculture (*Zunde ramambo*) and funeral rites) (Mandizadza et al., 2014; Siwadi and Chaderopa, 2012) present opportunities for rural people to escape poverty traps by developing cultural tourism. Cultural tourism creates employment, generates incomes, and curbs rural urban migration and emigration to other countries (Siwadi and Chaderopa, 2012). In a study by Woyo and Woyo (2016), of Domboshaba monument located in Chinamhora communal lands and 35 km from Harare, tourism has resulted in increased multiplier benefits to the rural people residing in the vicinity of the monument. They revealed that community members have been gainfully employed, infrastructural development has taken place and a market for fresh farm produce is available to residents.

By contrast, at present there are no tourism activities taking place in Chitomborwizi East Ward despite the area's similar resource endowments. On the contrary, cultural and heritage tourism has in many instances not succeeded as a mainstream tourism product but rather as an add-on to the normal wildlife experience for which Zimbabwe has been known for a long time (Zimbabwe Tourism Master Plan, 2016). Biri Dam has the potential to boost agricultural production and consequently offer prospects for agri-tourism development as well as water-based tourism activities in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Hlengwa and Mazibuko (2018) and Hlengwa and Maruta (2019) revealed the potential of dams, natural forests, mountains, and valleys as tourism resources that can attract urban residents to rural environments. Successful tourism development may generate new economic growth by capitalising on untapped rural resources to pursue a diversity of livelihoods by complementing agricultural activities undertaken in the area (Isaac and Van der Sterren, 2004; Siwadi and Chaderopa, 2012).

The success of tourism in Chitomborwizi East relies on available domestic tourism demand. Unfortunately, at national level domestic tourism is poorly promoted. Mandizadza, Bhatasara and Nyamwanza (2014) expressed the notion that individuals escape from urban environments to enjoy rural life: "It is normal to see many urbanites scheduling to visit rural areas regularly for pure water, air, enjoyment of traditional dishes and to take a break from city life to be in unity with the universe" (Nyamwanza, 2014, p. 212). Such is an indication of the desire of urban dwellers to visit rural environments. However, despite several government documents

expressing the need to grow domestic tourism, implementation of domestic tourism promotional strategies remains in the pipeline. What is even more worrisome is the fact that local people and their resources are often “packaged” for consumption by foreign tourists, a sign of the negation of domestic tourism demand. Zimbabweans do not have a culture of holidaymaking; most citizens travel to their rural homes to see their friends and relatives rather than travelling around the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016). In a study by Kabote et al. (2019), domestic tourists prefer to travel to destinations that are closer to their homes because it is cheaper to do so. Chitomborwizi East Ward is only 20 km from Chinhoyi town and therefore with appropriate domestic tourism promotional strategies, Chitomborwizi East Ward stands to benefit. Even though potential exists for domestic tourism demand, Zimbabweans can hardly afford to visit tourism resorts because of low discretionary incomes (Mandizadza et al., 2014; ZTA, 2017, 2019). Pro-poor tourism success in Chitomborwizi East can only materialise if a domestic demand exists in Chinhoyi town and if strategies are developed to deliberately promote domestic tourism. The government of Zimbabwe projects that domestic tourism will grow in the short, medium, and long term by 2.5%, 5% and 7.5% respectively up to 2035. Given such projections, it is likely that the tourism potential of Chitomborwizi East could be unlocked for the benefit of the community. Therefore, a significant reduction in agriculture yields, high levels of poverty and the low priority of the area from a governmental perspective led to the question: what would the elements of a pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe be especially in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

1.5 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to develop a pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe.

1.5.1 Objective 1: To Analyse Tourism Development Theories

The objective reviews theory on development models embracing the traditional political economy, developmental economics, modernisation, neoliberal, alternative development, post-development and Millenium Development perspectives. The objective is premised on the link between tourism development and generic development theories. The fit between tourism and the different development paradigms is a determinant of whether tourism can be pro-poor and thus contribute to poverty reduction.

1.5.2 Objective 2: To Analyse Pro-Poor Tourism Development Theories

The purpose of the objective is to evaluate the theoretical and atheoretical underpinning of tourism and poverty alleviation, especially value chain analysis, in addition to promoting a discussion on successful pro-poor tourism case studies. The appropriate theoretical pro-poor tourism literature is evaluated on that basis in the context of Chitomborwizi East Ward.

1.5.3 Objective 3: To Conduct a Pro-poor Tourism Resources Analysis in Chitomborwizi Ward in Zimbabwe

The objective recognises the need for certain resource pre-requisites for tourism development to take place. It looks at attractions, amenities, physical and market access, and ancillary services as key to launching tourism development. The objective considers livelihood assets, policies, institutions, and processes that may shape rural tourism development. The objective is satisfied through interviews with the local community, local leadership and government departments that play multiple roles in pro-poor tourism development.

1.5.4 Objective 4: To Determine if there is Domestic Tourism Demand in Chitomborwizi East Ward

There is no doubt that tourism demand energises the whole tourism system. To satisfy this objective, a survey was conducted with residents of Gunhill, a suburb in nearby Chinhoyi town which is 20 km from the rural area being studied. If tourism demand exists, this, coupled with the availability of necessary resources in the supply environment, makes rural tourism development feasible.

1.5.5 Objective 5: To Explain Stakeholders' Perceptions of Tourism Development in Chitomborwizi East Ward

Stakeholders' perceptions are key to tourism development. The objective seeks to determine, through interviews, the perceptions of the community, its leadership, government departments and parastatals of tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. It must be acknowledged that tourism is multisectoral in nature and therefore, to get a balanced view, interviews were conducted with representatives from the Makonde Rural District Council,

Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate, Ministry of Home Affairs and Cultural Heritage and the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community and Small to Medium Enterprises.

1.5.6 Objective 6: To Propose a Pro-poor Framework that can be Implemented in Chitomborwizi East Ward

The objective is to establish the pro-poor tourism framework that can be developed in Chitomborwizi East and whether a communal or individual approach would be the ideal form of tourism development in the area.

1.5.7 Objective 7: To Reach Conclusions and Make Recommendations for Pro-poor Tourism Development in Chitomborwizi Ward

The objective seeks to draw conclusions and make recommendations on the empirical findings from the community and potential rural domestic tourists. The intention is to suggest pro-poor tourism strategies that are central to the community's aspirations for livelihood diversification.

1.6 Research Structure

The project comprises seven chapters:

1.6.1 Chapter 1: Introduction and Background of Study

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce tourism and poverty alleviation as the focus of the thesis, state the objectives and provide a rationale for the study. The study has been positioned within the context of tourism development in Zimbabwe while placing an emphasis on rural tourism development and its link to poverty alleviation in Chitomborwizi East in Zimbabwe. It explores at length how community-based natural resources management has been modelled into a contextualised Communal Areas Management Programme for Natural Resources (CAMPFIRE) with the intention to contribute to poverty alleviation. It provides an alternative to traditional wildlife tourism, offering rural non-wildlife tourism as a way of alleviating poverty.

1.6.2 Chapter 2: The Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework

Chapter 2 discusses the conceptual framework of the study by reviewing literature on Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) through tracing its origins and variants adopted by non-governmental organisations and development agencies. It discusses in depth the vulnerability context, livelihood assets, policies, institutions, processes, livelihood outcomes and which elements shape the livelihoods pursued by the rural people. An analysis of the application of SLA to tourism development concludes the chapter.

1.6.3 Chapter 3: Tourism Development Models and Theories

The chapter reviews the theories of development from 1800 to the present day with emphasis on the modernisation, dependency, neo-colonial, and alternative forms of development by placing tourism development within the above paradigms. A funnel approach is pursued to discuss the challenges of tourism development in the world at large, and Africa and Zimbabwe in particular. In the Zimbabwean context, a ten-year phased approach to the discussion of tourism development is taken, spanning the years 1980 to 2020 and exploring the challenges of tourism development at each phase. Lastly, sustainable tourism, rural tourism, community-based tourism, and ecotourism are investigated as pathways to pro-poor tourism development.

1.6.4 Chapter 4: Tourism and Poverty Alleviation Models and Theories

The purpose of the chapter is to provide an overview of pro-poor tourism, with emphasis on its historical evolution and benefits. Theoretical and atheoretical models of pro-poor tourism including its pros and cons are explored in-depth. In concluding the chapter, success stories of pro-poor tourism are evaluated, considering the nature of the pro-poor initiatives and stakeholders involved.

1.6.5 Chapter 5: Research Methodology

The purpose of the chapter is to outline the research methodology that was adopted to address the research questions and satisfy the research objectives. The discussion in the chapter

focusses on a justification of the pragmatic philosophy, adductive approach, mixed methods, strategies, and sampling designs utilised in the research. In addition, the chapter focusses on the development of the semi-structured interview guide and questionnaire that were used to collect data from the rural community of Chitomborwizi East and urban residents of Chinhoyi Town, respectively.

1.6.6 Chapter 6: Data Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion

The chapter discusses the findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. It presents the views of the local people on promoting tourism as a livelihood option by focussing on assets of rural people, the policies, processes, and institutions available to support tourism development as well as livelihood strategies and outcomes. Their views are critical given the fact that tourism development must gain support from grassroots level. The analysis of data was done through thematic analysis by establishing themes that emerged from the responses of the semi-structured interviews. Data from potential domestic tourists were presented and analysed using SPSS version 23. Descriptive statistics such as mean, frequencies and ANOVA were used to describe continuous data in the sample. Frequency tables, bar charts, histograms and cross tabs were used to analyse categorical data from the questionnaire. Inferential statistics such as Chi-square were used to test the relationship between tourism demand and variables such as age, income, gender, education, and marital status. Results from inferential statistics were generalised to the whole population.

1.6.7 Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations

The chapter draws key conclusions about the perceptions of the rural community, local leadership, and government agencies regarding rural tourism as a panacea for Chitomborwizi Ward considering the vulnerability of the area, assets owned by the local people, policies, institutions, livelihood strategies and outcomes. Conclusions were drawn about the characteristics of potential domestic tourism demand, paying attention to their views on availability of the 4As (attractions, amenities, access, and ancillaries) of the destination amalgam. The researcher

concludes the thesis by proposing areas for future research that the thesis did not cover, as well as engaging in self-reflection on the whole research process.

CHAPTER

SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The chapter discussed the concept of sustainable livelihoods analysis and its application in livelihoods construction. It traces the origin of the concept whilst at the same time analysing its pros and cons in livelihoods analysis studies. In applying the Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework (SLAF) as a conceptual framework for this research, evaluation of the vulnerability context, assets, livelihoods strategies and outcomes is cascaded from the national level to rural areas with a link being made to contextualise the elements of the framework to Chitomborwizi East Ward. Despite the SLAF being a people centred approach its weaknesses are examined at length in the chapter with a view to suggesting mitigating measures.

2.2 Concept of Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Demystified

Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) is comprehended as an approach, framework, and an objective of strategic development discourse that emphasises poverty alleviation, rural development, and environmental management (Darney, 2008; Maunder et al., 2001; Ellis, 2000; Ashley and Carney, 1999; Chambers and Cornway, 1992; Scoones, 1998; DFID, 1999; Carney, 1998, 2002). The approach sprang up in the 1990s to provide an understanding of how people make choices to pursue their ideal livelihood strategies to attain livelihood outcomes. Chambers and Conway, (1992) and Levine (2014) applauded SLA framework for its attempt to reverse shortcomings of top-down developmental approaches of the 1950s-1970s (Chambers and Conway, 1992; Scoones, 1998; Max-Neef et al., 2006; Lisocka Jaegerman, 2015). Furthermore, sustainable livelihoods approach further owes its existence to increased global focus on poverty reduction during 1990 to 2000 era (Scoones, 2009). It is premised on a central principle that promotes use of local assets and strategies for poverty alleviation at the expense of exogenous ideologies and philosophies (Temam, 2020). In line with the poverty alleviation agenda and sustainability mantra, Chambers and Cornway (1992) first made their publication about livelihoods in 1992 (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002; Carney, 1999; Chambers, 1992; Lee, 2008)

which was later validated by World Commission on Economic Development in 1987 (WCED, 1987). So clear was their view that poverty is a multidimensional concept whose solution relies on capabilities and assets at the disposal of the poor that they use to construct livelihood outcomes (Sen, 1987; Swift, 1989; DFID, 1999; WCED, 1987; Morse and McNamara, 2013). Chambers and Conway (1992) defined a livelihood as follows;

A livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living; a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain, or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long-term (p. 7).

Sustainable Livelihoods analysis is a clear indication that the traditional income approach of measuring poverty is insufficient based on the premise that poverty is multidimensional and embodies facets such as insecurity, lack of access to decision making at household, community and national level, health status, literacy, education, and access to assets as its determinants (Farrington et al., 1999; Racodi, 1999; Krantz, 2001; Sacoast, 2009). From its multiple perspective focus, SLA focuses on the role of multiple people, actors, and effective and viable strategies undertaken to achieve certain livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 2010; Rodriguez et al., 2011). However, the transdisciplinary nature of livelihoods makes practical implementation of livelihood approaches an arduous task given the fact that participating agencies are organised along sectoral lines and large volumes of data generated require careful presentation, analysis, and interpretation (Morse and McNara, 2013). Decomposing the rigid sectoral arrangements and structures is a highly complex task in livelihoods analysis.

Interestingly, the SLA departs from the widely held view by top-down interventionists that poverty-stricken people are homogeneous and for that reason they need uniform solutions. Heterogeneity that characterises poverty-stricken people casts a wider context in which to isolate opportunities and constraints that the poor face in pursuing their diverse livelihood choices. To validate above, Farrington et al. (1999) opined that livelihood approaches assume that individuals

pursue a diversity of livelihood outcomes such as earning more income, increased well-being, and improved food security among other outcomes by drawing on use of social, financial, human, natural and physical assets (DFID, 1999). A diversity of options means the poor have a wide choice of livelihood options that they may undertake to reduce their vulnerability to poverty. Possession and access to a diversity of assets cannot be downplayed as it is a means of livelihood security and consequently poverty alleviation (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008; Boer, 2012).

Since the 1990s, bilaterals such as Department for International Development (DFID), multilaterals including International Food and Agriculture Development (IFAD), Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), World Bank and World Food Programme (WFP), Non-Governmental Organisations such as (Cooperative Assistance for Relief Everywhere (CARE) and Oxfam and Research Institutes such as (Institute of Development Studies (IDS), Organisation for Development Initiatives (ODI), developed their own livelihood approaches adapted from the DFID SLA framework. Cut across themes typical in these approaches are fundamentals such as poverty reduction, sustainability, people orientation and macro-micro level linkages (Rodriguez et al., 2011; Bennet, 2010).

All livelihood approach recognises assets as crucial to development despite a prevalent weakness and limited focus on the relationship between sustainability and poverty alleviation (Rodriguez et al., 2011; Ashley and Carney, 1999). Sustainability issues especially climate change dynamics have not been given a fair share in the approach despite the vulnerability of the poor to climate change which has a negative impact of agricultural productivity (Scoones, 2009). Scoones (2009) raises a concern that future environmental changes and rural economic transformations over the long term have not been accounted for in the model a situation termed static and ahistorical (Du Toit, 2005). While others bemoan limited environmental focus of the framework, other critiques foresee limited environmental concerns advance into a major environmental focus that may disadvantage the poor (Ashley and Carney, 1999).

Limited attention paid to the link between translocal, transnational and global institutions in developing livelihood portfolios emerges as one of the weakest points of the SLAF (Lisocka-

Jaegerman, 2015; Bebbington and Butterbury, 2001). To the contrary, the macro environment plays a dominant role in that it overrides the processes that happen at the local level and as such cannot be trivialised (Scoones, 2009; Mensah, 2010). In evaluating the livelihood mix potentialities in rural areas, it is important to take account of the macro environmental factors.

The livelihoods analysis approach has been given credence for its people-centred, asset/capability basis, holism, micro-macro level links and its consideration of the vulnerability context of livelihoods (Lisocka and Jaegerman, 2015). In as much as the SLAF purports to be people-centred, the people element is obscure in the framework. Furthermore, the cultural element which characterises human beings and plays a key role in adoption of livelihood strategies is overlooked (Tao et al., 2010). In addition, disregards the fact that the poor use assets they own for recreation and tends to neglect non-material or non-economic assets in the social and cultural contexts of rural areas. To further complicate matters, common metrics for asset measurement do not exist as exemplified by the fact that land may be assessed on dual dimensions of access/ownership which can either be temporary or permanent (Morse and McNamara, 2013). It must be remembered that adoption of livelihoods as determined by assets owned is treated as solely instrumental in an act of defiance to meaningful lives and emancipatory power which allow people to challenge the structures, institutions and processes that mediate espousal of livelihood alternatives (Bebbington, 1999).

SLA's limited focus on governance, power, politics, economics, institution, and processes is one of the major sources of its criticism (Carney, 2003; Hussein, 2002). Concentration on people's livelihood choices without seeking explanations as to why such choices are made (Sakdapolrak, 2014) renders the framework incomplete. Intra household power struggles, conflicts and other dynamics are left out in livelihood adoption decision-making processes (Prowse, 2010).

Despite its popularity widespread acclamation as a tool to understand livelihoods, there is no universal definition of Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) (Chambers and Cornwall, 1992; Carney *et al.*, 1999; DFID 1999a; Ellis, 2000; De Haan, 2000; De Haan and Zoomers, 2005; Cahn, 2002). Even though the concept of sustainability is overhyped since its virgin appearance

in The Brutland Report “Our Common Future” by World Environmental Council for Development in 1987, the concept remains contested on all fronts. The terms sustainability itself is a neoliberal, oxymoronic and ambiguous term for which there is no unified understanding (Bonevac, 2010; Latouche, 2004). Wall (1997, 2002) further rubber stamped the lack of a common theoretical understanding by stating that it is unclear whether sustainability is a product, process, philosophy or programme as it continues to be treated as a boundary term (Scoones, 2009). Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis [SLA] framework shown in Figure 2.1 below is useful framework that provides a holistic approach to understanding poverty and its link to the poor’s livelihood assets, strategies, and outcomes in rural Chitomborwizi East Ward.

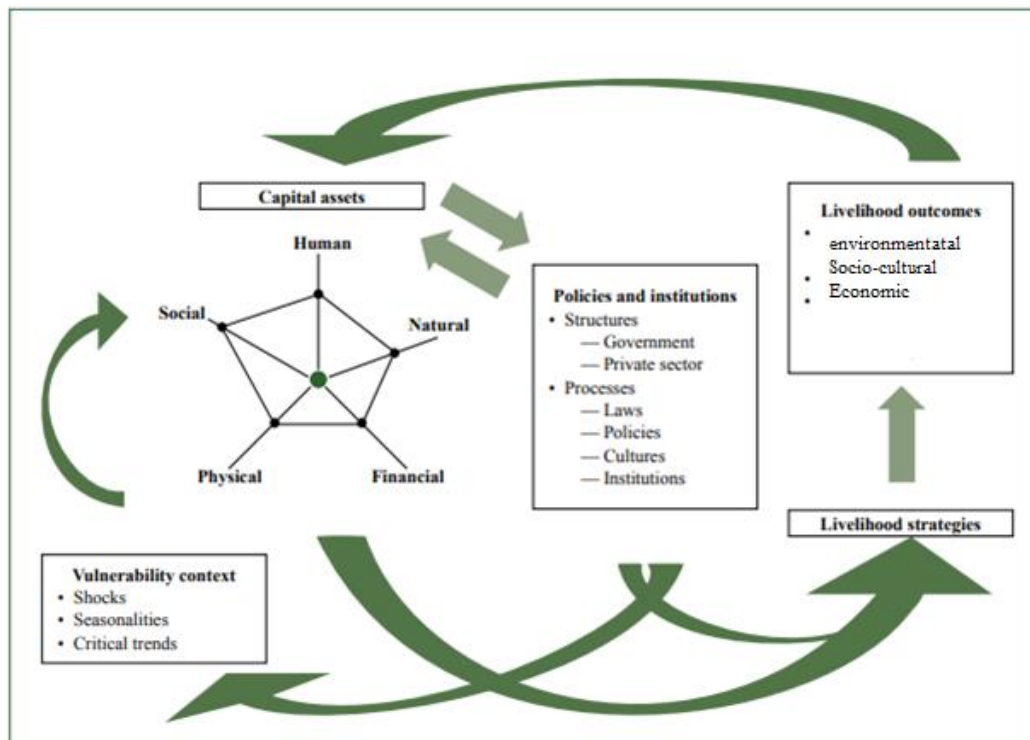


Figure 2.1: The Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) Framework

Source: Department for International Development (1999a) and Shen et al. (2008)

The framework was used to establish the vulnerability factors, assets, institutions, and processes that influences the adoption of tourism as a livelihood option in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Furthermore, it also established the nature of tourism related livelihood strategies and socio-cultural, economic, and environmental outcomes.

2.3 Vulnerability Context

Vulnerability context is referred to as the external environment in which the people exist and have limited control over (DFID, 1999). Vulnerability is defined in terms of the ability/inability of the individuals and groups to cope with, recover from and adapt to any external stress placed on their livelihoods and well-being (Kelly and Adger, 2000; Mensah, 2010). Serrat (2017) views vulnerability from two dimensions that is the external perspective defined from trends (resource stocks, population density, technology, politics, and the economy), shocks (climates, floods, disease outbreaks, conflicts) and seasonality (fluctuation of prices, production, and employment) which are categorised as drivers of resilience as shown in Table 2.1. The internal perspective comprises ex ante and ex post strategies to build resilience before and after exposure to trends, shocks, and seasonality (Larzarte, 2017). Simply put, livelihood resilience, defined as “a process linking the capacities of households and communities to respond to, recover and learn from changes and disturbances, and to reinstate, renew and reinvigorate their earnings and livelihood patterns disturbed or compromised by changes and challenges in the social and/or physical environment” (Nyamwanza, 2012a, p. 4). In rural Zimbabwe there are numerous trends and shocks that have affected livelihoods

The country has experienced a cumulative decline in temperature of 0.4 degrees over the past three decades and a 10-20% decline in rainfall (Mtisi and Prowse, 2012; IPCC, 2018; Svodziwa, 2018; Walker *et al.*, 2017). Heavy rains, flash floods, heat waves, strong winds and hailstorms occur periodically and damage crops and livestock (Green Climate Fund, 2019; UNDP, 2016). These unfavourable meteorological conditions reduced productivity of rain fed agriculture which is a major livelihood activity in rural areas. Given this scenario, rural farmers are at risk of being entrenched into poverty. Absence of irrigation infrastructure, deforestation, overgrazing, and riverbank farming further compound the impacts of climate change and make it even more difficult for the rural communities to circumvent poverty (Green Climate Fund, 2019; Dube, 2016; Svodziwa, 2018). Irrigation infrastructure allows all-year-round farming to boost rural economies and reduce the vulnerability of farmers to seasonal rainfed farming (Dube, 2016; Green Climate Fund, 2019). Unfortunately, progress towards mitigation of the impacts of climate change has been slow. Climate resilient inputs, smart agricultural production, and post-harvest technologies

as well as integrated stakeholder climate change mitigation plans have not been implemented to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change in rural areas (Green Climate Fund, 2019; UNDP, 2016). In addition, Lack of access to credit, high unemployment levels and lack of integration of rural economies into mainstream economies, lack of technical support, limited farm inputs, markets, and transport to take produce to the market further defines the vulnerability context of rural farming communities in Zimbabwe (Chirau et al., 2014; UNDP, 2016; NIR As such it is prudent to seek farm diversification options that can complement the decreased agricultural production. The area under study is not spared from the national adverse effects that have befallen the agricultural sector as outlined above. Tourism could help the rural people reduce vulnerability of agricultural productivity since it is a sector that is characterised by low entry investment requirements and relies on natural, cultural and heritage resources that are owned by the poor (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Tourism demand is frequently seasonal and as such tourism should be amongst a myriad of other livelihood options of the rural people of Chitomborwizi East. Benefits generated from tourism are confined to peak periods despite capital investments being made all year round.

Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward should be introduced as a complimentary activity to existing livelihood options and as one way of coping with rural stresses and shocks (Boer, 2012; Walker et al., 2017). Nevertheless, tourism is a volatile though resilient sector affected by political instability, currency fluctuations, liquidity crunch and health pandemics among other factors that influence tourism demand. Therefore, tourism should be an add on activity to core rural livelihood options rather than the sole activity (Boer, 2012). A global economic recession or outbreak of a pandemic can reduce tourism demand to Chitomborwizi East Ward, but the local people may cope with such vulnerability by pursuing other livelihood options. Natural disasters may destroy the natural capital upon which tourism depends. A case in point is the 2004 Tsunami which destroyed tourism destinations in India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Thailand and left communities that relied solely on tourism vulnerable to poverty (Boer, 2012). In the case of rural communities Kilimanjaro in Tanzania, tourism resources such as wildlife, waterfalls, and forests in Mshiri, Lyasongoro, Mweka and Foo villages have been affected by climate change (Minja, 2014). Disappearance of several fauna and flora, loss of glaciers, decline in precipitation and forest fires are some of the

effects associated with meteorological changes. Educating the local people to mitigate the effects of climate change is one way they may cope with climatic changes (Minja, 2014).

Table 2.1: Vulnerability Factors

TRENDS	SHOCKS	SEASONALITY
Population Trends	Human Health Shocks	Prices
Resource Trends	Natural Shocks	Production
Global Trends	Economic Shocks	Health
Trends in Governance	Conflict	Employment
Technological Trends		

Source: DFID (1999)

2.4 Livelihood Assets

Livelihoods capture use of resources and capabilities essential in building an acceptable standard of living, risk factors in resources management and institutional and policy contexts that may constrain or provide opportunities to pursue certain livelihood outcomes (Ellis and Freeman, 2004; Campbell and Sayer, 2003). A livelihood approach to rural poverty reduction recognizes five asset groupings which determine livelihood robustness of individuals, households, and communities (Ellis, 2000; Campbell and Sayer, 2003). These are categorised as natural capital (land, water, wildlife); physical capital made up of physical infrastructure (transport, roads, vehicles, secure shelter and buildings, water supply, energy and communications; tools and technology (tools and equipment for production, seeds, fertiliser, pesticides and technology); human capital (education, skills, health, ability to labour); financial capital (cash savings, goats, cattle, labour income, pensions and remittances); and social capital (networks and associations, trust and mutual understanding, formal and informal groups, shared values and behaviour, collective decision making, participatory decision making and leadership). Rural people can drive the development process by identifying and mobilizing existing assets to create local opportunities and livelihood diversification through negotiation of institutions, structure, and processes. Livelihood approaches such as the SLA approach emphasises an in-depth understanding of assets to determine livelihood opportunities, constraints, and outcomes (Carney, 1998). Assets such as infrastructure, health and education are public goods provided by the government and local people may not have control over investment in such assets (Ellis, 2000). However, the SLAF fails to

distinguish private from public resources to determine resources local people can exercise full control over (Mensah, 2010). Households that have a broad asset base are in a better position to transform these to a diversity of livelihood strategies in contrast with those that have a weak asset base. Despite possessing key assets to livelihood diversification, organisations, policies, practices, and power dynamics may impact on access and use of assets which consequently shapes livelihood strategies that are pursued. The prerogative of this study to establish the assets in Chitomborwizi East Ward could be useful for tourism development in the area. The next session describes the assets represented in the SLAF.

2.4.1 Human Capital

Human Capital is made up of skills, knowledge, labour, and good health which make it possible for people to undertake different livelihood strategies and to achieve certain livelihood outcomes. Choice of economic activities is constrained by the level of education and skills as well as the health status of individuals (Carney, 1998). This is supported by Saenz and Morales (2006) who alleged that educational achievement is a leading measure of human capital given its importance in securing and generating employment for individuals. Human capital is a pre-requisite to use other assets in the SLA asset pentagon (Boer, 2012) as in Figure 2.1 above. Emmanuel (2017) acknowledged that rural people often lack the skills that are pivotal to tourism development. The public sector must step in to create programmes that make it possible for the rural people to acquire the relevant tourism skills that will lead to self-sustenance and economic independence (Iwu et al., 2018).

The tourism sector is one of the four pillars of Zimbabwe's economy including mining, agriculture, manufacturing (Matanga, 2018). Zimbabwe is a country that is rich in cultural and heritage as well as wildlife tourism resources. However, human capital remains a constraint to the country's competitiveness relative to other destinations in Southern Africa. Abel, et al. (2013) cite the skills flight pandemic of the 2000-2008 economic downturn as the main cause of human capital woes experienced by the country. An underperforming economy is the reason for poor remuneration that comes with unabated skills flight and a fall in industry standards. Apart from

exodus of employees in the tourism sector to greener pastures, quality of training for tourism and hospitality employees has fallen.

Matanga (2018) and Nhuta et al. (2015), Zimbabwe National Tourism Plan (2016) and Zhou (2018) agreed that Universities in the country are churning out graduates who lack the necessary practical occupational skills which is caused by a theoretically skewed curriculum that naturally lands graduates to management positions. The Zimbabwe Tourism Master Plan (2017) reported a dearth of skills in service delivery, critical thinking, tourism economy and transferrable skills among the graduates from educational institutions. Production of unskilled graduates is a result of exclusion of industry practitioners from participation in curriculum design, inexperienced practical trainers, and existence of outdated training facilities.

The acute shortage of requisite skills is due to absence of a pre-selection criteria that targets learners who have a passion for careers in tourism and hospitality industry. At present educational qualifications and profit-oriented enrolment targets of tertiary institutions influence the type of learners enrolled on the programmes (Nhuta et al., 2018; Matanga, 2018; Abel et al., 2013). Even if the country boasts of a diversity of tourism resources, lack of a well-trained human resource base impacts negatively on visitor experience.

Human resource development roles are scattered across various Ministerial Development Agencies (MDA) and National Human Resource Development (NHRD) institutions tasked with addressing human resource development needs. In many instances these bodies tend to operate in silos. The outcome is lack of a coordinated and integrated approach to human resource development which undoubtedly perpetuates a shortage of the required industry skills (Matanga, 2018). He further proposed a standalone ministry to manage all talent for the sector. In the current institutions, tourism and hospitality manpower planning is not aligned with the industry's macro-economic targets and as a result, learning institutions produce graduates without the right competencies to meet national economic targets. As a measure to address the gap, industry targets and manpower needs must be defined, learners must be equipped with relevant skills and their industry performance must be monitored (Matanga, 2018). This eliminates the need to retool and

retrain graduates at a cost of private and public sector. The prevailing national human resource development challenges by extension affect the development of rural tourism.

The rural communities may have the unique natural capital but without a knowledgeable and skilled work force to deliver the right tourism experiences, tourism will not generate direct, indirect, and induced benefits for the rural inhabitants. Community Based Tourism Master Plan (2017) revealed that rural tourism success is hampered by lack of business acumen in marketing, finance, operations, and human resources as well as specialist skills such as tour guiding and wildlife management (Zimbabwe Tourism Master Plan, 2020). Knowledge on wilderness resources is critical given the fact that rural areas are endowed with natural resources that play a major role in tourism development. The lack of requisite sector skills is further compounded by the fact that tourism and hospitality education is not included in the basic education curriculum (Marunda, 2014; Marunda and Chaneta, 2014). Review of the curriculum to incorporate leisure education is key to ensuring that rural graduates who do not progress to tertiary education may use the skills gained from basic education to participate meaningfully in rural tourism development.

There is a need to review training programmes and strategies to align with the needs of the tourism and hospitality sector to ensure graduates who have the relevant competencies are produced. Such skilled graduates will contribute visitor satisfaction by developing memorable tourism and hospitality experiences. Skills shortages reduce destination competitiveness at any scale because absence of skilled graduates means a dearth of tourism expertise to support rural communities wishing to invest in tourism development. An overhaul of the basic and tertiary education curricular will play a pivotal role in eliminating skills mismatch in the tourism and hospitality industry which may cost both the public and private sector. However, this can only be achieved with a proper coordinated strategy between private, public sector, donors, and non-governmental organisations. The above strategies may fail to achieve the intended outcomes if the government fails to steer macro-economic growth and stability to improve the remuneration of employees within the sector to curb migration of skilled labour to neighbouring countries. With a wealth of available skills tourism development in rural areas will register record growth that will lead to meaningful poverty alleviation.

2.5 Social Capital

Social capital has been extensively researched in areas of sustainability, innovation, economics, and poverty alleviation, amongst other areas (Martinez et al., 2016). Social capital is a multidimensional, indescribable concept with no precise definition (Woolcook, 1988; Portes, 1988; Coleman, 1988; Bourdieu, 1986; Moscardo, 2012; Lehner, 2014; Huggins and Johnston, 2010). Its functionality and perspectives remain fluid with numerous possibilities for further research of the concept (Aldrich and Meyer, 2015; Green and Haine, 2016; Moscardo, 2012; Larsen and Bærenholdt, 2019). Social Capital denotes different but related concepts such as rules, norms, obligations, reciprocity, and trust embedded in social relations, social structures, networks, and society's institutional arrangements which enable individuals and community members to achieve objectives through solidarity (Narayan, 1997; Alder and Kwon, 2002; Moscardo, 2012; Moscardo, 2014). It entails networks and connectedness as well as group memberships which increase people's trust and ability to work together to access resources (Putnam, 1995; DFID, 1999). Broadly social capital is communication (Coleman, 1988), institutional network resources (Bourdieu, 1998) and individual effort need to achieve group objectives (Fukuyama, 1995b). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998:243) considered social capital as the sum of current and potential resources derived from the network of relationships possessed by a social unit.

Despite research on social capital and tourism being relatively novel, available evidence points to a significant role it plays in sustainable tourism development (Zahra and McGehee, 2013; Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2010; Ritchie and Echtner, 2010). Social capital in tourism is a vicious circle where it determines tourism success while on the other hand inequalities created in the distribution of tourism benefits have the potential to reduce social capital (Borlido and Coromina, 2018). A wealth of social capital is a source of power and influence, dissipation of information and creation of solidarity among community networks (Alder and Kwon, 2002). Communities with a high level of social capital undoubtedly register success in tourism development compared to those that lack it (Sainaghit and Baggio, 2014; Svendsen et al., 2014; Moscardo et al., 2017). Social capital is a proven huge asset in the development of tourism in Korea and Gambia (Jones, 2005; Park et al., 2012). However, in some instances, parochialism and deviant behaviour that arise from community solidarity may stifle innovation and growth (Garguilot and Bernassi, 1999).

Increased emphasis on social capital research has been driven by the growing realisation that residents are key players in tourism development and their collective efforts determine tourism development success (Gursoy et al., 2010). Several authors have attempted to define social capital from its multiple perspectives. Bonding social capital is inward looking and focuses on relationships between residents and institutions while bridging social capital takes an outward looking perspective to link local communities and external agencies such as government and the private sector that support, share resources and information on community tourism development (Zahra and McGhee, 2013; Jameson, 2014; Putnam, 2000; McGee et al., 2010; Berado, 2014). Szreter and Woolcock (2004) put forward the linking capital perspective as another categorisation where relationships stakeholders such as Non-Governmental Organisations, politicians and the public sector that wield high levels of power that is important for decisions that affect livelihoods. In their study on the role of social capital in community tourism in Ecuador, Membiela-Pollan et al. (2019) developed a framework to categorise social capital as in Figure 2.2 below.

2.5.1 The three dimensions of Social Capital

The structural dimension of social capital is made up of the network ties, network configuration and appropriable organisation. Access to decision making information and opportunities that are inaccessible to people outside such networks defines network ties (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). In this dimension, social capital developed in one context may be transferred to another context as in the case of family relationships becoming useful assets in the workplace (Fukuyama, 1995b; Coleman; 1990). In the case of Chitomborwizi East Ward, existing kinship ties present a wealth of social capital that is important in tourism development by the households involved. Such appropriable organization of social capital is key to information dissipation for decision making. The cognitive dimension encompasses shared language, vocabulary held in established networks that form the means of information sharing and benefits evaluation. Shared narratives denote paradigmatic and narrative modes of sharing knowledge and information through stories, myths, and metaphors (Mbembela-Pollan et al., 2019). The people of Chitomborwizi East Ward speak the Shona Language which makes collective action easier because the similarity in language makes it easier for them to comprehend each other.

The relational dimension of social capital is defined as the personal relationships that people have in the network by virtue of past occurrences (Granovetter, 1992; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Trust, identification, norms, obligations, and expectations present the broader view of the relational dimension. Social capital is a critical input in state-led tourism governance structures in rural areas. In such arrangements, trust and power play a significant role in determining the level of social capital stock (Kugler and Zack, 2017; Canavan, 2017; Lenao, 2017). Trust refers to expectations for good intentions developed by an individual/group for others (Dirks, 2000). Political trust with its dialectical nature develops either from community or government level institutions to influence tourism development processes (Nunkoo, 2017). Locally trust that develops among local community members influence locals' level of trust in public institutions involved in tourism development. In the top-down approach community trust in state institutions is a product of good governance and administration by the government through deliberate efforts to protect civil liberties and promote transparency (Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2017).

In Mauritius, allocation of land for tourism development is dependent on the applicant's relationship with the ruling elite. Where such inequalities exist, mistrust of the state by citizens undermines existing social capital. It must be further understood that trust is dependent on the processes and outputs of governance mechanisms that are in place (Christensen and Laegreid, 2005). Processes define the legitimate decision making and the engagement of all key actors in tourism decision making while outputs are benefits that are derived coordinated efforts of the various stakeholders (Nunkoo, 2015). These two factors contribute to building of trust between communities and local institutions. However, in cases where tourism benefits are not equitably shared, lack of trust for government institutions by residents as in case of Niagara communities in Canada is the ultimate result (Nunkoo, 2015). In the same region, transparent dissemination of precise tourism related information in a non-partisan manner by government institutions is a building block for social capital. However, political trust is only generated based on the willingness of government institutions to engage communities, act ethically and balance power-sharing between government and other stakeholders (Moscardo, 2012; Moscardo, 2014). Overall a high level of trust generates increased cooperation and coordination in community initiatives

(Fukuyama, 1995a; Gambetta, 1988; Putnam, 1993, 1995). Good intent, competence, reliability, and openness of actors all influence the level of trust embodied in local communities and institutions (Ring and Van de Ven, 1994; Giddens, 1990).

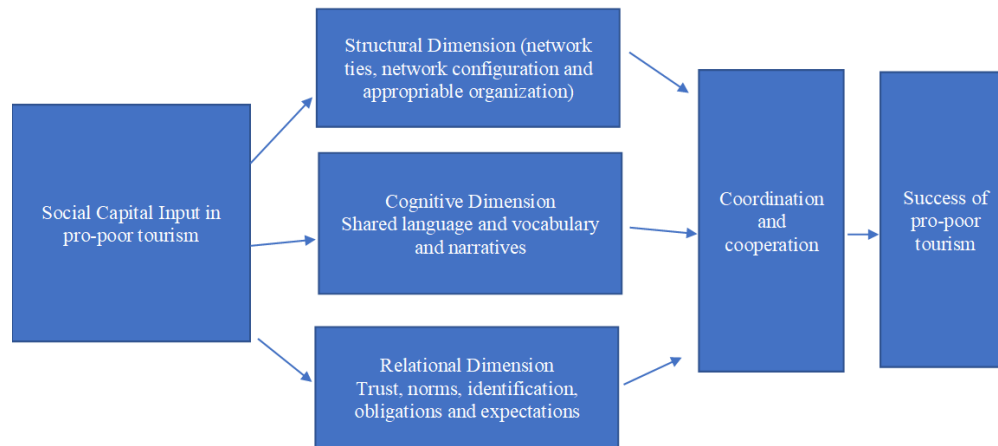


Figure 2.2: Dimensions of Social Capital

Source: Adapted from Membiela-Pollan et al. (2019)

2.5.2 Four Dimensions of Social Capital

Nunkoo (2017) discussed social capital from four perspectives which are communitarian, network, institutional and synergism perspectives. Social capital is fundamental to community-based tourism development (Zhao et al., 2011; Campopiano et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2017). In the communitarian view trust, norms and reciprocity derived from local groupings promote sustainable tourism development in poverty stricken rural environments (Jones, 2005; Hwang and Stewart, 2017; Nunkoo, 2017). However, such homogeneous local networks devoid of diversity that emanates from external associations may promote solidarity that compromise tourism development.

The network view is based on mainly inter and intra-relationships dominated by tourism entrepreneurial networks. In this instance bonding social capital enables tourism entrepreneurs to share information that is relevant for decision making within the community. Bridging social capital arises from local business linkages with external players to share information and business

acumen (Nunkoo, 2017). The challenge inherent in the network perspective is its tendency to marginalise community members outside the established business clusters (Taylor, 2017).

In the institutional view, social capital accumulates from political, legal, and institutional frameworks set up by the government and private sector (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2017). Nunkoo (2017) hastens to warn that the institutional view neglects relevance of local social capital. Tourism development in rural areas requires the political will of the national governments because they formulate tourism policies that are pro-poor in addition to developing a sound infrastructure to facilitate tourism development. In the absence of relationships with such institutions, tourism development may be stifled. However, a balanced representation from all stakeholders manifests itself in the synergistic view.

At the tail end is the synergistic view which pools together government, local community and businesses networks with the aim of encouraging equal participation by all key stakeholders in tourism development (Abby et al., 2016). In this synergistic view lack of trust between government and civil society frequently leads to conflict which compromises sustainable tourism decision making (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). Closely tied to a high level of trust is power. Power shapes the ability of individuals to participate in decision making concerning rural livelihoods. Policies that advocate for the inclusion of local communities in pro-poor tourism decision making often result in equitable power distribution amongst all actors (Nunkoo, 2015). In a study of residents in Niagara, Canada the amount of power wielded by residents was a factor that increased trust in public institutions.

In the case of the farming community under study trust in state institutions is almost non-existent due to corruption, lack of transparency and nepotism engaged in by government officials in programmes that are geared towards supporting agricultural development in the small-scale farming area. Farm inputs are made available to those community members who support and are affiliated to the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) PF bigwigs. If tourism development is spearheaded by state institutions that local communities do not already trust, resentment maybe the outcome. The unbalanced beneficiation observed by community members

from current state projects is a seed of community disgruntlement and division as local community members who have benefited from the above-mentioned programmes are considered corrupt. Given the current circumstances, the stocks of social capital that are pre-requisite for tourism development are at a relatively low level. The state must have the will to transform its governance structures and processes to regain trust from local communities to foster tourism development. When local communities trust their networks and local institutions, they are willing to take risky investments in new projects. Trust is therefore a necessary precondition for the development of tourism in the study area as now no such initiatives exist. Trust will lead to increased cooperation among community members who are tied to a network which further leads to the accumulation of increased trust. Bonding and bridging social capital must be balanced as successful community tourism development is a product of the two types of social capital (Xue et al., 2020). The local communities must build social capital through their internal associations and networks while at the same time using external linkages with government and private sector agencies to promote tourism development. Tourism is multisectoral in nature and as such communities should work with multiple stakeholders to achieve their intended tourism objectives.

Carney (2003) and Light and Dana (2013) hold the cooperationist view that absence of social capital limits access to effective use of other capitals needed to pursue certain livelihood outcomes. However, in as much as several authors bring out the positive roles played by social capital, it has its shortcomings. Exclusion of other individuals from social networks and associated benefits coupled with restrictions on individual freedom are the more common negative impacts of social capital (Birendraet *al.*, 2018). In Chitomborwizi East Ward, tourism development has potential to benefit only those in established social networks and who can access to information, knowledge, and take advantage of existing tourism related opportunities. Pro-poor tourism must be all encompassing and inclusive.

2.6 Natural Capital

Natural Capital refers to natural resources such as land, forests, water, and fauna which are useful for derivation of livelihoods (DFID, 1999). The poor's livelihoods depend on natural resources which underpin commercial and subsistence activities that often provide a safety net to vulnerable conditions (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2008). In developing countries natural capital contributes 26%, 13% and 2% wealth in low, middle, and industrialised countries respectively (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2008). Indigenous resources such as water, landscape, scenery, culture, and heritage and architectural resources have potential to contribute to the development of tourism in rural peripheral regions (Almstedt et al., 2016; Blapp and Mitas, 2018; Situmorang et al., 2019; Cvijanovic et al., 2017). Today's tourist is interested in consumption of the rural landscape, serene environment as well as the nostalgic appeal of the rural settings (Mutambara and Muthembu, 2018). Padilha and Hoff (2011) revealed that livelihood diversification using natural capital to develop a leisure industry contributes to transformation of rural areas that is brought about by tourist expenditure. Entrepreneurship and employment creation, infrastructure development, environmental conservation, build-up of community identity, cohesion and social capital are some of the rural tourism development benefits (Mutambara and Muthembu, 2018; Polo and Fraiss, 2010; Ratten et al., 2019). Rural areas are faced with increased decline in economic activities which has forced many rural inhabitants to migrate to urban areas in search of better economic opportunities (Gao and Wu, 2017). The development of tourism will broaden economic prospects in rural areas and repopulate rural areas. Therefore, natural resource endowments are necessary, though not adequate condition for rural economy diversification as other assets are also required. In rural Serbia, shortage of infrastructure, superstructure and limited awareness hampers the development of tourism and its contribution towards poverty alleviation despite the presence of huge stocks of natural capital (Gao and Wu, 2017).

In Zimbabwe tourism development in rural areas relies on wildlife tourism dotted in and around conservancies and areas in the periphery of national parks. Areas that are endowed with non-wildlife tourism resources are not prioritised in tourism development since it is commonly understood that rural tourism is synonymous with wildlife tourism. Rural communities that boast

of other natural capital should be given the opportune time to develop to achieve poverty reduction objectives. The area under study is endowed with a dam, cultural, historical, architectural, and farming resources that have potential to turn the economic fortunes of the farming area that is in a state of decline. Rural areas contribute to the development of ecotourism because they possess the natural, cultural, and historical resources that contribute to tourism development whilst minimising impacts on local communities (Mutambara and Muthembu, 2018).

2.7 Physical Capital

Physical Capital refers to ‘the basic infrastructure (transport, shelter, water, energy, and communications), production equipment and the means of pursuing livelihoods’ (Carney, 1998, p. 7). Emmanuel (2017) revealed that the major challenges confronting tourism development in the world’s peripheral regions are unavailability of water, electricity, and robust communication networks. Availability of physical assets is necessary to facilitate livelihoods diversification through tourism. Air, road, rail, water, sanitation, and power is critical to tourism development globally.

2.7.1 Air transportation infrastructure

Domestic air access and international air access in Zimbabwe remains constrained. Iconic destinations such as Hwange, Eastern Highlands and Masvingo are inaccessible by air (Abel et al., 2013; Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017). As a result, these destinations continue to be under marketed since major tour operators no longer include them in travel packages to Zimbabwe by virtue of them being inaccessible by air (Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017). Decline in tourist demand translates to a reduction in socio-economic benefits that are realised from tourism by the government, private sector and both urban and rural communities. Private operators who attempted to service the domestic air routes discontinued the service because it was unviable (Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017). Full deregulation of the airline industry to allow multiple players to operate the domestic routes is a fundamental step to increased destination development. However, the government is insincere and has viewed the strategy with scepticism to protect the struggling flag carrier, Air Zimbabwe (Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017). Deregulation promotes competition, improves destination access and quality of service delivery and competitive pricing.

However, increased number of players in the airline sector must be met with a corresponding development of airline infrastructure that can handle increased air traffic flows. However, due to the national airline's huge financial debt, investment to facilitate the desired airline infrastructural development remains constrained.

Farm invasions in 2000, accompanied by travel warnings issued by governments of source markets made Zimbabwe an unpreferred destination. Twenty airlines mainly from Europe including KLM Royal Dutch, Air France, Lufthansa, and Swiss Air withdrew all flights to Zimbabwe (African Development Bank (AFDB), 2019) due to safety concerns as the country became politically volatile. Withdrawal of these airline from servicing the Zimbabwean routes increased the inaccessibility of Zimbabwe as a destination of choice. The impact was not only felt in urban destinations but in rural locations that relied on wildlife-based tourism activities. Internal connections via road and rail are vital in any destination of choice.

2.7.2 Rail and Road Infrastructure

Rail and road transportation which complements air travel internally is characterised by heavily dilapidated infrastructure whose regular maintenance has been abandoned due to lack of funding (AFDB, 2019). National Railways of Zimbabwe, a parastatal responsible for railroad development plans to restock and replace coaches, locomotives and wagons and rebuild dilapidated tracks, rail signals and communication equipment (Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017; African Development Bank, 2019) to improve the performance of rail transportation. Only then can rail transportation be a preferred mode of transport by local, regional, and international tourists. Many road networks have outlived their lifespan by about 10-15 years and therefore tourists find it a risky to travel on such unsafe roads. Attention must be paid to the rehabilitation of the roads since 87% of the tourists visiting Zimbabwe travel by roads. If rural tourism is to be successfully developed, it is important to developed feeder roads to ensure remote rural destinations such as Chitomborwizi East Ward are accessible.

2.7.3 Information Communication Technologies infrastructure

Government of Zimbabwe should play a leading role in developing a robust ICT infrastructure that can facilitate tourism development. The country has shown its commitment to the development of ICT infrastructure by coming up with Smart Zimbabwe Master plan that targets the exploitation of ICT resources for the benefit of the country (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2020). Zimbabwe is ranked 124/139 in e-readiness among other developing countries. This is due to wider digitisation disparity evident between urban and rural areas of 2G and 3G networks respectively (African Development Bank, 2020). In Zimbabwe Information Communication technologies (ICTs) is characterised by poor connectivity, expensive data, load shedding and absence of real-time tourism booking systems (Tsokota et al., 2017). To improve its ranking the country should speed up progress of developing its ICT infrastructure by accessing the costly fibre optic.

Majority of tourism and hospitality company websites are either non-functional or have outdated information and not customised for smart phone use (Basera and Nyahunzwi, 2019; Tsokota et al., 2017). Consequently, this leads to an incongruity between services advertised on websites and actual services rendered. A wider review of several tourism operations reveals the absence inter and intra ICT systems integration which compromises the availability of real time information. Limited use of ICTs reduces the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a tourism destination. The national tourism authority, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)'s website is less interactive, has limited language versions, does not host private operators, has limited linkages to social media sites and has domain conflicts that reduce its effectiveness (Basera and Nyahunzwi, 2019). Therefore, the website needs to be revamped to match the standards of other global destination management organisations (DMOs) that have managed to harness electronic commerce to their advantage in promoting tourism growth. Websites need to be upgraded to meet contemporary standards that allows for real time receipt, processing, and dispatch of information.

The absence of a national policy on online transactions deters operators from harnessing the full benefits of ICTs in their businesses. Government must, therefore, legislate online

transactions to encourage operators to take full advantage of ICTs to generate increased tourism demand and to collaborate and manage customer relationships effectively (Tsokota et al., 2017). Providing a diversity of online payment forms is key in major tourism hotspots since many tourists prefer to carry plastic money because of safety and convenience concerns (Tsokota et al., 2017; Abel et al., 2013).

In as much as ICT should be a must for all tourism and hospitality operators, budgetary constraints limit the adoption of ICTs. Operators in the tourism sector do not have the necessary financial resources to upgrade ICT systems, pay companies that provide ICT support and train employees on the use of contemporary ICTs. Successful adoption of ICT by tourism industry operators must be backed by the government through development of a sound ICT infrastructure. Rural areas such as Chitomborwizi East Ward need network upgrades to ensure faster internet connectivity that can allow tourism businesses to take advantage of e-commerce to satisfy tourism demand.

2.7.4 Water Infrastructure and Sanitation

In 2010 the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) declared access to safe drinking water and sanitation as a basic human right (UNGA, 2010; Water Act, 1998; Ministry of Water Resources Development and Management 2012, 2013; Tom and Munemo, 2015; Makwara and Tavuyanago, 2012). However, this basic right is being violated in Zimbabwe and Sub-Saharan Africa, where generally the availability of piped water to urban residents has fallen from 50% to 39% over the period 1990-2016 because of population increase, low storage capacity of water sources, increased urbanisation, poor infrastructure, poor planning, and governance by water authorities (Pahwaringira et al., 2017; Panganai and Mangizvo, 2016). In Zimbabwe, from independence in 1980 up to the year 2000 the population that accessed safe drinking water and sanitation increased considerably. After the fast-track land reform programme of 2000 which led to civil strife, and a breakdown of Zimbabwe's relationship with the West forced many donors that supported water and sanitation programmes to exit the country. The decade that followed witnessed underinvestment by the government in water supply and sanitation services, shortage of technical and human skills to carry out maintenance of sanitation and water infrastructure,

unavailability of foreign currency to import spare parts and water treatment chemicals, maladministration, which culminated in near collapse of water and sanitation systems in urban and rural areas (African Development Bank, 2019; Pahwaringira et al., 2017). The water treatment plants are between 70 and 90 years old and therefore frequent malfunctioning and breakdown are commonplace (Makwara and Tavuyanago, 2012; Panganai and Mangizvo, 2016). Despite having a national water policy developed in 2013 to ensure availability of quality portable supply of water in place, water supply and sanitation challenges continue to mount (Tom and Munemo, 2015). This has forced the inhabitants of the country to access water for domestic use from unprotected shallow and deep wells as well as boreholes which are a source of waterborne diseases such as typhoid, cholera and dysentery among others (Panganai and Mangizvo, 2016). A case in point is the cholera epidemic which broke out in 2008 and 2018 due to the poor state of water infrastructure and sanitation services. To make matters worse, the Zimbabwe National Water Authority which is mandated to upgrade the water infrastructure and sanitation is underfunded and as a result sewage blockage, flow of raw sewage into water bodies, malfunctioning water treatment plants and irreparable water distribution systems define the sorry state of the water infrastructure and sanitation infrastructure in the country (African Development Bank, 2019; Chitiyo et al., 2019). Even worse still, power outages disrupt the water treatment and water distribution which further aggravates the unavailability of safe water to citizens (Makwara and Tavuyanago, 2012; Panganai and Mangizvo, 2016). To alleviate the current water supply and sanitation challenges, calls have been made to privatise these services to allow competitive cost recovery tariffs to be gazetted. To rehabilitate the existing water supply and sanitation infrastructure requires US\$582.6 million and US\$504.63 respectively (African Development Bank, 2019; Chitiyo et al., 2019).

In rural areas the responsibilities for water supply and sanitation should be streamlined because now the Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development, Ministry of Health and Child Welfare, Zimbabwe National Water Authority, District Development Fund, World Bank, UNICEF and private operators all feature in the above roles. Different philosophies and ideologies which guide the provision of safe water and sanitation are driven by diverse socialist, profit, and neoliberal motives (Tom and Munemo, 2015). In view of the existing status quo, the World Bank has called for a shift in governance of rural water resources to ensure local

governments preside over the function. To be effective in this functional role, capacitation of these local institutions is a requirement (Tom and Munemo, 2015). Despite the myriad of challenges, the population of urban inhabitants that had access to water increased from 3.6 million in 2013 to 6.2 million in 2020 whilst in rural areas, it increased from 5.3 million in 2013 to 8.0 million in 2020 (African Development Bank, 2020). Nevertheless, despite the enormous progress that has been witnessed in the growth of the water and sanitation sector, the government must channel more financial resources to replace aged water infrastructure consonant with global standards.

Water is an asset for socio-economic development and the achievement of Millenium Development Goals (Pueyo-Ros, 2018). The local rural governments must make available safe water and implement high sanitation standards if the tourist trade is to be serviced satisfactorily in rural areas such as Chitomborwizi East Ward. In rural Zimbabwe there is lack of piped water and flush toilets, a situation which needs immediate attention because availability of these is one of the determinants for destination choice. On the supply side water-based activities, food and beverage and housekeeping and laundry services all rely on a steady supply of clean water whilst on the demand side tourists require water for bathing and drinking.

2.7.5 Power Infrastructure and Associated Challenges

Shortage of power is one of the factors that negatively impact on the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)'s industrialisation prospects (Economic Commission of Africa, 2018). The region's power needs are unmet due to increased droughts that reduce water volumes of major rivers such as Zambezi, Kunene and Vaal that generate the bulk of the region's hydro and thermal power, rural electrification and increased mining led economic growth that demands high power consumption (Economic Commission for Africa, 2018; Southern African Development Community, 2018). Regrettably, increased demand for power has not been met with a corresponding increase in the supply of power. The power deficit is further compromised by the fact that most of the region's power infrastructure is old and obsolete. The Hwange Thermal Power station and Kariba Dam power both in Zimbabwe were built between 33-63 years ago (Economic Commission of Africa, 2018) and therefore experience frequent breakdowns which contribute to power shortages in Zimbabwe and Zambia. In as much as the power authorities acknowledge the

need to rehabilitate and replace power infrastructure, funding is not readily available to turn the fortunes of the power sector. To address the financial resources obstacle, the power sector must shy away from relying on government funding by seeking contemporary approaches to funding infrastructure projects such as through sale of government bonds in Namibia and Zambia, public–private sector partnerships and solely private sector funded initiatives (Economic Commission of Africa, 2018; Southern African Development Community, 2018). Additionally, appropriate policies must be developed to exploit non-renewable sources of energy to develop the right energy mix to include wind, solar, biofuels, biomass and geothermal energy to satisfy the power needs of Southern Africa (Southern African Development Community, 2018). Apart from infrastructure and finance related problem, human resources are other significant constraints to the execution of technical and management tasks that affect power production and supply. The brain drain that has hit all economic sectors in Zimbabwe has had a fair share of its effects on the power sector as currently there are no staff members who possess the relevant competencies to maintain, rehabilitate and upgrade the existing power infrastructure (African Development Bank, 2020). The result is a dearth of planning and management as well as resolution of frequent technical problems that affect the availability and supply of power (Economic Commission of Africa; Southern African Development Community, 2018).

In Zimbabwe in 2018, 28% of rural residents have access to electrical power compared to 86% in urban areas. In line with the Government of Zimbabwe's vision 2030, 96% of rural institutions should be electrified by 2030 (African Development Bank, 2019). To achieve this milestone, the Rural Electrification Master Plan (REMP) launched in 2019 speaks volumes of the need to deregulate power supply to allow for participation of Independent Power Producers (IPPS), establishment of solar grids, solar home and solar pumping systems as well as small hydro-electric power stations to reduce overreliance of Kariba and Hwange power stations (Chitiyo et al., 2019; Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2020). However, to potential private power investors, review of electricity tariffs to ensure they are cost reflective is of paramount importance to generate investment in the sector. Increased supply of power in marginalised rural areas will stimulate economic growth.

Adequate supply of power in rural areas will open these peripheral regions to take advantage of economic diversification opportunities availed through tourism. Numerous opportunities can be harnessed across all the tourism value chains to turn rural areas into economic hubs that contribute to sustainable development and poverty alleviation. If Chitomborwizi East Ward is to be transformed into a renowned tourism destination, power supply is a necessary precondition for further investment into rural tourism development that can generate social, economic, and environmental gains. Disappointingly, over the past 10 years, public and private sector partnerships that could have successfully generated 3000 MW of power to the national grid failed to take off due to unavailability of funds, government red tape and unfavourable political image of the country which scares away potential investors (Dzirutwe, 2019). As it is the country has the necessary plans in place to increase power production to improve power access rate in rural and urban areas, but operationalisation of such plans remains a challenge. In rural areas that have a power supply, the current load shedding that has been in place since 2006 has forced many businesses including those in the tourism industry to use alternative sources of power such as diesel- or petrol-powered generators to limit interruptions of service delivery. Nevertheless, the shortage of fuel and the black-market prices increased costs to companies that are already reeling from the effects of the poor macro-economic environment.

To this end the development of rural tourism must be backed by a robust infrastructure since infrastructure development is key to socio-economic progress and the achievement of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Given the two lost decades that have been experienced by the country due to the decline in macro political and economic conditions, water, electricity, transport and information communication infrastructure needs to be revamped to meet the new economic growth objectives and contemporary global standards. Destination development is a product of well-developed infrastructure that forms the basis for the development of tourism superstructure by the private sector players and local communities. The communities in Chitomborwizi East Ward aspire to develop tourism but if government does not make frantic efforts to avail the necessary infrastructure.

Government is blamed for limited infrastructure development nationwide. Tenders are awarded to families and acquaintances of political bigwigs who seldom complete infrastructure development projects despite receiving advance payments (Makoni and Tichaawa, 2018). Such high-level corruption has resulted in loss of government revenue allocated for infrastructure development to facilitate economic growth in all sectors of the including tourism. A case in point is that iconic destinations such as Hwange, Eastern Highlands and Masvingo are inaccessible by air (Abel et al., 2013).

2.8 Financial Capital

Financial Capital is made up of financial resources available to individuals and households (savings, credit supplies, regular remittances/pensions) that present opportunities for pursuit of different livelihood options (Carney, 1999). Rural people have always been excluded from gaining access to financial services because commercial banks view investment in rural areas as non-viable (Makoni, 2014). This situation has is one of the known causes of poor agricultural productivity.

Agriculture accounts for 20% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 60% employment and 20% exports in Africa (Vitoria et al., 2012). In Zimbabwe 70% of the population resides in rural areas where agriculture is the main livelihood activity (ZIMSTATS, 2017). In recognition of the tremendous contribution made by the agriculture sector to the country's Gross Domestic Product and poverty alleviation in rural areas, the government of Zimbabwe over the past two decades introduced Agricultural sector Productivity Enhancement Facility (ASPEF), Operation Maguta, Champion Farmer Schemes, Presidential Well Wishers Special Input Scheme (PWSIS), Agriculture Input Support Programme (AISP) and Command Agriculture which are funding initiatives (Chigunhah et al., 2020; Mutami, 2015). Performance of these schemes have been as anticipated because of delays in the disbursement of funds and inputs to targeted beneficiaries, high levels of corruption coupled with nepotism, dominance of political elite and partisan politics in such state funded schemes (Mutami, 2015). Since the government fails to satisfy the demand for inputs and financial resources to boost agricultural productivity, farmers are forced to seek for alternative sources financing.

Given the current status quo, small scale commercial farmers such as those in the study area turn to commercial banks in search of loans to finance their farming operations. However, the indigenisation policy, insecurity of land tenure and laxity of law enforcement are factors which have hampered growth in foreign direct investment into all economic sectors including agriculture. Current liquidity crisis which is a result of low investment inflows and the inability of lending institutions to access offshore funds has led to a contraction of available agricultural loans (Vitoria et al., 2012). Lending institutions are therefore incapable of providing long term loans to finance capital investments in plant and machinery for small scale commercial farmers in the form of processing plants, tractors, barns, maize shellers amongst others. Many commercial banks that traditionally funded large-scale commercial operations are being compelled to redesign their loan schemes to cater for the needs of small holder farmers to increase uptake of such loans. As commercial banks attempt to service these markets, creditworthiness of the loan applicants as demonstrated by the availability of human, social and physical capital are major determinants of farm productivity, profitability, and loan repayment ability (Chigunhah et al., 2020). Unavailability of the above pre-conditions is a risk that commercial banks are unable to take due to higher chances of non –performing loans.

Where farmers meet loan criteria, they are provided with short-term loans of 90 to 180 days even though planting to harvesting cycle is of 8 to 9 months duration on average. Agricultural financial resources availability continues to be constrained by limited private sector investment in the sector, lack of collateral and high loan interest rates that are beyond the reach of many small-scale commercial farmers (National Agricultural Policy Framework, 2018; Vitoria et al., 2012; Mutami, 2015). Where agriculture is successful, opportunities for agricultural tourism are abound. Given the failure of commercial banks to satisfy the demand for agricultural financing, micro finance institutions have gone a long way in assisting farmers to gain financial resources to purchase the right quantities of inputs and farming assets to engage in farming activities (Mago and Hofisi, 2016). Long-term lines of credit, provision of bankable farm leases and establishment of an Agriculture Development Fund (National Agricultural Policy Framework, 2018) can drive agricultural production to higher levels in Zimbabwe. High agricultural productivity coupled with increased farm income forms the basis for diversification to non-farm-based tourism enterprises

that will reduce the vulnerability of households on overreliance on climate change prone agricultural productivity.

The decaying economic conditions of the period 2000 to 2009 which were a result of the fast-track land reform programme led to a shortage of foreign currency in Zimbabwe. Faced with that dire situation, companies within and outside the agricultural sector embarked on contract farming initiatives in search of foreign currency from the export of agricultural produce. In as much as contract farming is known to improve agricultural productivity and commercialisation, the contract agreements are based on unequal power relations where farmers often have a weak bargaining position (Ncube, 2020). These sentiments are validated by frequent complaints of farmers who decry its exploitative nature since inputs are supplied to farmers at inflated prices while farm commodity prices are pegged below market prices (Mutami, 2015). Despite the above weaknesses, some small-scale farmers who opted for contract farming failed to secure contracts because such credit schemes are extended to farmers who have farm insurance policies (Vitoria et al., 2012; Tsikirayi et al., 2013). Regrettably, insurance uptake amongst rural farmers is low due to lack of knowledge on insurance benefits, absence of insurance policies tailored for small scale commercial farmers, high insurance premiums and insurance services providers are distant from rural locations (Vitoria et al., 2012; Makoni and Matiza, 2013; Njue et al., 2018).

In addition, insurance policy penetration in rural small-scale farms is subdued because farm productivity is very low and therefore income generated is not adequate to cover insurance premiums and farm operations. Faced with the inability to insure their crops, livestock and farm equipment and machinery, rural farmers reduce farming risks by practising mixed farming, using drought resistant crop varieties and diversifying into non-farm-based activities (Makoni and Matiza, 2013; Njue et al., 2018) such as tourism to self-insure. The limited uptake of insurance policies by the farmers mean that it is made further impossible to access financial loans from lending and leasing institutions that demand insurance collateral. To promote uptake, insurance companies need to raise an awareness of the importance of farming insurance, develop affordable policies to small scale farmers and establish their businesses in rural environments so that farmers can easily access such services in their bid to transfer farming risks to third parties.

As farmers aspire to introduce tourism at their farms, they must be aware that poor economic growth characterised by the existing liquidity crunch and foreign currency shortages constraints the development of tourism likewise. Tourism operators cited the undercapitalisation of the sector to be a consequence of tour operators' inability to access financial resources to refuel their vehicles and hospitality entities' failure to upgrade their rooms division and food and beverage operations superstructure (Zhou, 2018). High interest rates and short tenor loans make it difficult for tourism businesses to gain access to loans to fund capital investments and diversify tourism offerings to make Zimbabwe a competitive destination (Abel et al., 2013). Despite the current government's Zimbabwe is open for Business and vision 2030 mantra that have paid off results in repositioning Zimbabwe as a key destination in Africa, shortage of financial resources continues to stifle tourism development in rural and urban areas.

The country's tourist arrivals were projected to reach 6 million in 2025 before the outbreak of the COVID-19 (Chigwere, 2018). Such a forecast in demand should match increased supply of accommodation, transportation, and tourist activities. However, access to finance remains a constraint to the development of attractions and amenities of world standards by tourism industry players. To recompense this issue, government must roll out financial packages with favourable conditions to allow the tourism industry operators to re-tool their businesses (Zhou, 2018) in line with contemporary trends. A positive step taken by the government in May 2020 was to unveil US\$ 20 million Government guaranteed stimulus package for the tourism and hospitality industry to allow for continual survival of tourism businesses (Voyage Africa, 2020) post the COVID-19 pandemic.

Financial resources are key asset to unlocking the tourism potential of rural areas. With the right amount of financial resources in place, farmers can purchase farming inputs and farm equipment and machinery to boost agricultural production. Income that is obtained from successful farming can be used to diversify activities in the farms. Some of the income that is not re-invested in agriculture can be invested in tourism to increase the local people's resilience to systemic risks associated with vulnerability of agriculture to climate change. If there is continued

financial exclusion of rural communities, poverty alleviation will remain an unachievable milestone.

2.9 Institutions, Structures and Processes

This section examines the tourism structures, institutions and processes that affect tourism development.

2.9.1 *Tourism Structures at National Level*

Structures comprise of public and private sector bodies that formulate and implement policies and legislation, deliver services, and perform other functions that affect livelihoods (DFID, 1999). Improper structures are the reasons many services go undelivered to the detriment of poor people. Multiple actors characterise the public tourism development space in Zimbabwe. The major role players are the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and Zimbabwe Tourism Authority which is a parastatal. Other ministries that play subsidiary roles are Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Ministry of local government, public works and national housing, Ministry of Women Affairs, Community Small and Medium Enterprise Development, Ministry of Transport and Infrastructural Development, Ministry of Youth, Sports, Arts and Recreation, Ministry of Home Affairs and Cultural Heritage and Ministry lands, agriculture, water, climate and rural resettlement among others. In an environment made up of many tourism players, discharge of tourism responsibilities becomes highly complex.

Before independence in 1980, the tourism industry was governed by Ministry of Information, Immigration, and the Rhodesia National Tourist Board (RNTB) under the Tourism Act of 1975. The later institution was replaced after independence by the Zimbabwe Tourism Board (ZTB) which was tasked to develop, market, register and grade tourism facilities (Nyaruwata, 2017). The nomenclature of the ministry before independence reflected its propaganda role. Between 1981 and 1996, Ministry of Tourism and Natural resources was born in response to the recognition that natural resources particularly wildlife and forest resources are the backbone to Zimbabwe's tourism industry. The Parks and Wildlife Act of 1992, Forest Act

Chapter 22 of 2001, The national Environmental Act and Environmental Management Act of 2004 buttressed natural resources oriented ministerial structure (Nyaruwata, 2017). Review of the Tourism Act of 1975 in 1984 saw Zimbabwe Tourist Development Corporation (ZTDC) replace Zimbabwe Tourism Board which was charged with the responsibility for non-commercial tourism sector responsibilities such as marketing, human capital development and financial support. Its commercial operations spanned from ownership of hotels and a tour operator in addition to identification of lucrative tourism investment opportunities for the government. ZTDC's existence was short lived since it failed to discharge its binary responsibilities of being a tourism sector player as well as a supervisor. To address this underperformance, the Tourism Act Chapter 14:20 saw the reform of ZTDC into a private company named Rainbow Tourism Group (RTG) and a parastatal national tourism office, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) formed to exclusively supervise tourism operators.

In 2009, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MOTHI) was set-up to solely concentrate on tourism and hospitality development. Unfortunately, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and Zimbabwe Tourism Authority have under the new constitution been tasked with overlapping tourism development roles which are not spelt out in the obsolete tourism Act (Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, 2015) devoid of governance transformation that emanated from the country's new constitution. Since roles are not explicitly defined for institutions involved in tourism development, a waste of resources, poor institutional credibility and uncoordinated developments are commonplace (Abel et al., 2013; Nyaruwata, 2017). To illustrate the above, ZTA, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and National Museums and Monuments have come up with different development and promotional strategies that have failed to drive domestic tourism development (Abel *et al.*, 2013; Nyaruwata, 2017). In addition, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and Ministry of Finance and Economic Development struggled to reach a consensus on the 15% value added tax on tourism services (Abel et al., 2013,) because of conflicting ideologies. Inter-sectoral coordination should be prioritized and the role of key ministries in tourism development needs to be harmonized to promote clarity and eradicate ambiguity. In tandem with the constitutional reforms, tourism structures should be developed that have representation at national, provincial, and local levels since provincial and

metropolitan capitals have been mandated with cultural resource conservation (Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, 2015). A deliberate move in this direction ensures progressive and balanced tourism development countrywide. This may be difficult to achieve because some public sector tourism institutions are not represented some provinces in the country and as a result, tourism operators travel to distant locations to access required services.

Zimbabwe Council for Tourism (ZCT), Zimbabwe Business Council (ZBC), Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC), Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI), Chamber of Mines and Farmers Association are all private sector representative bodies that lobby for sector wide sustainable tourism business development (Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, 2015). Some of these groupings such as ZCT are under resourced and therefore, are unable to effectively lobby the government on teething issues to the satisfaction of the private sector operators (Abel et al., 2013). Against all odds, these numerous private sector players bemoan inherent tourism development coordination challenges that continue to haunt the sector given the fact that various industry roles are scattered across multiple actors in the public sector. Due to limited sectoral coordination, tourism players decried being charged multiples fees and levies by different government departments. As an example, nature-based tour operators must pay fees and or levies to Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure Development, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing, Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWLM) and Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (Abel et al., 2013). Tourists who visit Zimbabwe using hired vehicles are subject to a multiplicity of taxes and licences at border posts (Nyaruwata and Runyowa, 2017). The unfavourable business environment is further compromised by poor corporate governance, inconsistencies in the application of laws and regulations and corruption which have resulted in the country being rated 159/190 in terms of ease of doing business (African Development Bank, 2019). Despite the ineffectiveness of current tourism institutions, rural tourism is a product of such existing institutions as Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE).

In the case of CAMPFIRE, key players are the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group which comprises the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWLM), Centre for Applied Social Sciences (CASS) and Zimtrust among others who aid in quota setting, research and development assistance in rural wildlife tourism as shown in Figure 2.3 below.

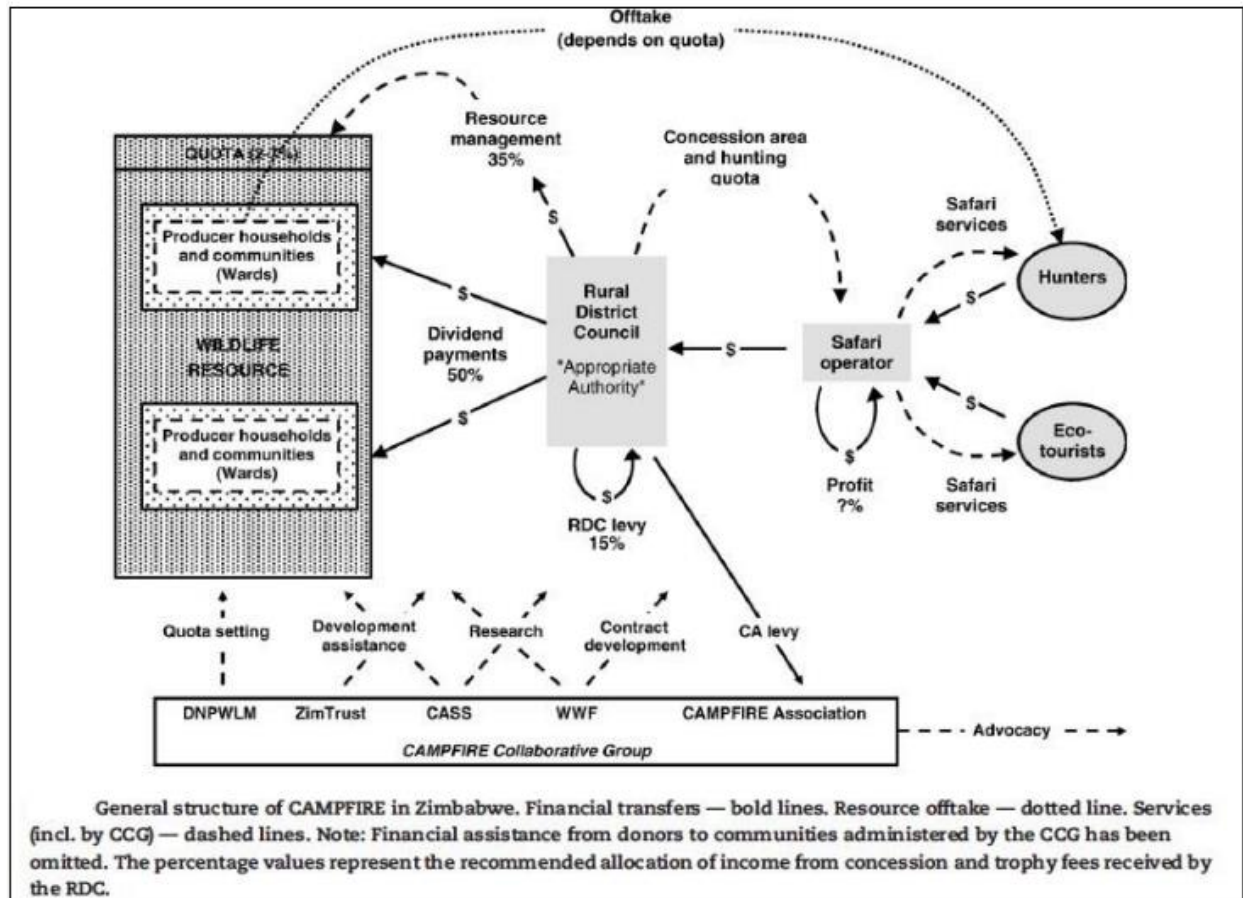


Figure 2.3: CAMPFIRE Governance Structure

Source: Frost and Bond (2008)

Producer households receive dividends from safari fees paid through joint venture partnerships with safari companies to Rural District Councils (RDCs). RDCs act on behalf of producer communities to manage wildlife resources and to negotiate safari hunting contracts with safari companies. Unfortunately, the decentralisation of natural resource conservation has not been successfully achieved as rural communities lament their limited participation in decision making

in CAMPFIRE projects (Katerere, 2001; Muyengwa and Child, 2017). Complete decentralisation is the state-civil society relationship that is characterised by the ability of the government to cede decision making power and authority to lower echelons of society. The unwillingness of the government to devolve full authority to communities is a result of the huge cash flows from CAMPFIRE projects that are funding rural district councils because of reduced budgetary allocation from the government.

2.9.2 *Institutions and Policies*

Livelihood transformation processes refer to policies and legislation, institutions, culture, and power relations (DFID, 1999). In some instances, legislation and policies formulated may restrict the poor from pursuing certain livelihood strategies. In determining tourism's potential as a poverty alleviation tool, it is important to analyse the structures in place, how policies and legislation as well as power relations affect the rural poor's choice of tourism as a livelihood option. Liu (2006) said preparation of rural tourism plans is often preoccupied with the economic outcomes rather than a deeper focus on the capacity of individual communities to bring about a better future. Government policies have an influential role on rural tourism development.

Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (2015) called for a review of the outdated Tourism Act Chapter 14:20 that simply delves on the administrative roles of ZTA while neglecting other key operational aspects in tourism development. The current Act fails to capture the contemporary tourism definitions, address sustainability and ethical issues in tourism as prescribed by UNWTO (Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, 2015). Definitions of domestic travellers are left out in the Act, a sign that is not a priority. It is therefore contradictory for ZTA, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and other players to continuously champion for the promotion of domestic tourism when the relevant national and sector specific legislature is devoid of it. The new Act must adopt a broad-based holistic approach to contemporary tourism development.

Tourism stakeholders must craft Tourism policies, plans and legislative frameworks that speak into tourism development that is sensitive to the priorities of the poor. National economic

blueprints such as the National Medium-Term Plan (2011-2015) and ZimAsset (2013-2018) blame poor infrastructure, limited airline connectivity, absence of funding for SMMEs and negative country perceptions as the major constraints to tourism development (National Tourism Master Plan, 2017). Addressing these challenges at an accelerated pace is of paramount importance to provide a fertile ground for the private sector and community owned tourism enterprises to thrive. Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MOTHI) crafted National Tourism Policy (2016), Strategic Plan (2013-2015), Towards the US\$5 Billion Tourism Economy 2015 and Zimbabwe Tourism Authority Vision 2020 whose aims are to identify and remove bottlenecks to tourism development. Emphasis is to grow tourism demand and receipts while at the same time broadening tourism participation across all fronts. However, operators in the sector decry the cumbersome business registration processes that scare away many potential investors. Potential investors are faced with a mammoth task of engaging many ministries to ensure successful registration of their businesses (Abel et al., 2013). A one stop shop is recommended to ease business transactions.

Tourism development needs to be guided by sound robust tourism policies, legislature, and governance structures that do not undermine existing livelihoods. To discharge tourism sector mandates successfully, it is prudent to harmonise the functions of the public and private sector to avoid duplication of effort that wastes resources. Such harmonisation will make it convenient for potential local and international tourism investors and tourists to access relevant services. In rural communities where tourism relies on natural resources, government needs to devolve complete authority to local level institutions for successful pro-poor tourism that ultimately leads to natural resource conservation. In the case of Chitomborwizi East Ward, community institutions created should recognise the pro-poor tourism needs of rural communities. Retention of natural resource control in the confines of state institutions such as RDCs will undermine potential benefits that the rural poor amass from pro-tourism initiatives. Appropriate institutions, structures and processes will accelerate pro-poor tourism and ultimately reduce poverty in rural areas.

2.10 Livelihood Strategies and Outcomes

Livelihood strategies are defined as “an organized set of life-style choices, goals, and values, and activities influenced by biophysical, political/legal, economic, social, cultural, and

psychological components and designed to secure an optimum quality of life for individuals and their families or social groups” (Walker *et al.*, 2001, p. 298). Livelihood strategies are activities and choices that people make to achieve livelihood goals (DFID, 1999; Helmore and Singh, 2001; Abiodun *et al.*, 2019). A livelihood represents a diverse concept, referring to what people do and the allied achievements (Niehof, 2004; Helmy, 2020). According to Ellis (1998) and Kassa (2019), a livelihood strategy comprises not only activities that generate income but cultural and social alternatives that affect primary household occupation (Tao and Wall, 2009b; Mutopo, 2014; Kristjanson, 2014; Kassa, 2019).

Rural livelihood strategies are grouped by Carney (1998) into natural resource based (Farm, off-farm, and non-farm income-based activities) and non-natural resource-based activities (rural trade, pensions, remittances). Scoones (1998) on the other hand came up with three broad categories: agricultural intensification/extensification, diversification, and migration (Tao and Wall, 2001; World Bank, 2009; Haggblade *et al.*, 2010; Van den Berg, 2010; Abiodun *et al.*, 2019). Communities in rural areas may channel the bulk of their resources to agriculture to boost productivity per unit area (agricultural intensification) by increasing inputs use, farm mechanisation and technology or expanding the area under cultivation (agricultural extensification) (Tao and Wall, 2009b). Subsistence farmers seldom pursue this option due risks that militates against agricultural productivity. To self-insure, rural farmers diversify their livelihood strategies through a portfolio of feasible activities which include agriculture. Ellis (1998; 2000), Scoones (1998) and Carney (1998) viewed livelihood diversification as the construction of a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities necessary for survival. Accessibility to assets (Murenje *et al.*, 2010; Chirau *et al.*, 2014; Scoones, 1998) and well-crafted institutions, structures and processes are fundamental (Mishi *et al.*, 2020; Aguilar and Summer, 2020) to construction of diverse livelihoods to mitigate risks of dependence few livelihood strategies. Of all assets, natural resources especially land stands out as the main determinant of the construction of sustainable agricultural livelihoods to circumvent poverty in rural areas.

However, despite many rural people being in possession of land to intensify or extensify agriculture, poverty alleviation through agro based livelihood strategies remains a pipeline dream (Ellis, 2001) because farmers lack access to financial and human resources and are faced with climatic vulnerability factors that work against successful agricultural production. To the contrary, Alany et al. (2011) and Hogarth, Belcher, Campbell, and Stacey (2013) strongly believe that a restructuring of agriculture and increased allocation of resources for agriculture will undoubtedly boost agricultural productivity and therefore lead to poverty alleviation. In defiance, Scoones (1998; 2008) acknowledged that, in many poor countries, people gain their livelihoods through multiple activities and new initiatives need to be incorporated inter alia existing livelihood systems. Livelihood diversification is supported by research on livelihoods diversification in Zimbabwe by Elsardo (2003), in Ethiopia by Di Falco and Chavas (2009) and in Bangladesh by Bandypadhyay and Skoufias (2013) whose support related findings reveal reduction of environmental shocks, vulnerability of households, creation of additional income streams and improvement of household livelihood security (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 2015; Rahut et al., 2018; Abiodun et al., 2019; Su et al., 2017; Kheiri and Nasihatkon, 2016) and opportunity led strategies facilitated by labour markets and infrastructure improvement as well as market accessibility as the dominant outcomes of livelihood diversification (Loison, 2015; Loison and Bagnebat, 2017; Kassa, 2019; Helmy, 2020).

Where agriculture intensification/extensification and diversification fails to achieve livelihood, outcomes coupled with a decline in macro-economic conditions, migration is an option that households give due consideration because of the possible cash and commodity remittances prospects. Sanders (2003), Adam and Page (2005) and Combes and Ebeke (2010) proclaimed that remittances are a sustainable livelihood strategy that is pursued by rural people to lessen susceptibility of agricultural productivity instigated by changes in climatic conditions as well as shortages of financial and human resources in rural habitats. Chimhandama (2009), Ncube (2010) and Maphosa (2007) remarked that cash remittances received by rural recipients are chiefly used for unproductive consumption with very little being set aside for productive investment as in the case of the rural District of Tshololotsho in Zimbabwe where 65% of remittances from migrants are channelled towards household consumption (Nzima et al., 2016; Mishi and Mudziwapasi,

2014). This view is disputed as unconventional by Ncube and Gomez, (2015) and Maimbo and Ratha (2005) who claimed that remittances trigger multiplier effects across all sectors of the rural economy because they have the capability to generate aggregate demand for goods and services. Such increased demand unlocks economic opportunities for both receiving and non-receiving households which is crucial to local economic development (Ncube and Gomez, 2015; Mishi and Mudziwapasi, 2014). Nevertheless, in as much as remittances are a livelihood strategy, they are criticised for propagating inflation, creating class inequalities and a dependency syndrome as well as leading to a neglect of agriculture by the receiving households (Ncube and Gomez, 2015).

Livelihood strategies are shaped by natural, human, financial, physical, and social resources. In rural Chitomborwizi East Ward, the major livelihood activity is agriculture, which is increasingly threatened by climatic variability, lack of financial resources to purchase inputs and mechanise farms and the instability of agricultural markets. Farmers engage in the Rural Non-Farm Economy (RNFE) because of pull factors (economic opportunities outside the agriculture sector) and Push factors (seasonality of farming, fall in farm incomes, price variations for agricultural produce and poor agricultural policy formulation and implementation by state organs). Therefore, failure by the public sector and private sector to develop policies and partnerships with farmers continues to throttle agricultural growth capability of the country. Faced with this predicament of weak agricultural throughput, farmers seek to diversify their livelihoods to lessen the shocks and vulnerability emanating from agriculture which is the mainstay of the rural economy. To diversify livelihoods, farmers capitalise on the existing natural resources to invest in rural tourism activities that emphasise its unique fauna and flora, agricultural tourism and its value-added activities, cultural and heritage tourism, and water-based tourism activities. The economic quagmire in Zimbabwe that set in 2000 forced many of the active working rural population household members to migrate to other countries in search of greener pastures. Consequently, the remittances from these economic refugees are a livelihood strategy that has cushioned rural households from the vulnerability of the hyper inflationary economic environment and poor agricultural production. A portion of the remittances received from diaspora-based household members can be allocated for household consumption and productive investment in agriculture, tourism, and other numerous activities. In the long-term tourism will present opportunities for

further investment into non-traditional industries and increase the multiplier effect associated with its development in rural areas.

Livelihood assets and strategies determine the livelihood outcomes. Livelihood outcomes are achievements derived from livelihood strategies. Livelihood outcomes are decomposed into five themes which are sustainable use of natural resources, income, increased well-being (self-esteem, security, happiness, power, and inclusion in decision making) employment and other socio-economic indicators, social-cultural and environmental outcomes associated with sustainable use of natural resources (Shen, 2009; Wall and Tao, 2009a). Diversification of rural livelihoods to include tourism increases the income level of households and reduces vulnerability of communities caused by seasonality of farming, climatic variations, human health shocks, natural disasters, and economic recessions. In addition, diversification into the rural non-farm economy is a source of revenue that can be re invested into agriculture to ensure household food security and increased well-being. Investment in tourism will increase beneficiation of rural communities along the tourism value chain since tourism cuts across many sectors of the economy. Development of rural tourism will open opportunities for the poor to tap into the mainstream economy benefits.

From tourism perspective, outcomes are economic, environmental, and socio-cultural. Regardless of the world region, tourism makes a significant contribution to economic development through employment creation, support for small business, diversification of rural livelihoods. GDP, foreign exchange earnings and government revenues through taxes paid by operators (Ruzic and Demonja, 2017; UNWTO, 2020; WTTC, 2020) are other undisputed benefits. In 2018, tourism contributed US \$ 8.8 trillion to the global economy which is equivalent to 10.4% of Gross Domestic Product. In addition, it created 319 million jobs and is expected to generate 100 million additional jobs by 2028 (WTTC, 2019). These benefits are derived from the leisure travel market which makes up 78.5% of the arrivals. This pattern of dominance is valuable since tourism development that is anticipated in Chitombirwizi East Ward aims to target domestic leisure travellers. Negative tourism impacts such as seasonality of tourism, inflation and income leakages cannot be ignored (Tichaawa and Moyo, 2019) as we amplify the tourism benefits of tourism. In

many developing countries the positive impacts are limited because of foreign domination in ownership of tourism resources which often leads to the repatriation of profits to head offices headquartered outside the tourism destinations. This scenario is evident in Kenya and Botswana (Kiet and Akama, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2004b). Rural tourism development in Chitomborwizi East will also generate similar positive and negative economic impacts due to the small-scale nature of the anticipated tourism development.

Africa's rural areas are endowed with natural, historical, and cultural resources that offer potential for tourism development (Ezeuduji, 2015) when compared with the rest of the regions in the world. Pro-poor tourism provides opportunities for economic diversification, presents commercial opportunities and the nature of the jobs enable the participation of women in the tourism sector (Toerien, 2020; Sinclair, 1998). In addition, tourism has an impact on the quality of life of residents. Great sense of community identity increased social capital and high level of tolerance amongst residents, a reduction of rural urban migration, improvement in infrastructure and recreational facilities (Ramos et al., 2016; Woosnam and Aleshinloye, 2019; Zamani-Gomes et al., 2019) are notable socio-economic impacts of tourism. Commodification of goods and services, demonstration effect, increase of congestion in the destination and a decline in morality (Tichaawa and Moyo, 2019) also feature as other negative socio-cultural impacts worth of recognition. In the Fiji and Cape Verde Islands residents view tourism as a destructive force because of loss of traditional practices, cuisine originality and kinship ties (Sanchez-Canizares et al., 2016) despite its significant contribution to cultural and heritage preservation.

This unprecedented growth of tourism was interrupted by the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic at the end of 2019. With no clearly defined medical remedies for the pandemic, non-pharmaceutical interventions such as social distancing, arrival quarantines, travel restrictions, lockdowns and closure of borders brought international tourism to a standstill while domestic tourism was similarly disrupted (Gossling et al., 2020). WTTC (2020) projects that in the worst-case scenario of the pandemic, 71% decline will be witnessed in tourism's contribution to jobs, Gross Domestic Product and visitor arrivals based on 2019 global tourism statistics. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTD, 2020) revealed a decline of 850 to 1.1

billion tourists, financial losses between US\$ 910 to US\$ 1.1 trillion, job losses of 100 to 120 million and a fall in tourism's contribution to GDP by 1.5 to 2.8 % will be evident. To avert the above scenario, the international tourism body recommends immediate removal of travel restrictions, opening of borders, adherence to health and hygiene protocols and continued liquidity and fiscal support of the tourism industry by the public sector (WTTC, 2020; UNWTO, 2020). Despite its volatility, the tourism sector will recover in a few months due to its known resilience to similar catastrophic effects in the past. In validation of the above sentiments, findings from a study conducted in South America, suggests increased post COVID-19 tourism consumption through a heightened interest in domestic tourism (UNWTO, 2020). Henceforth, destinations that have a well-developed domestic tourism are likely to lead pace in recovery. However, some researchers cast doubt on this optimism given the severity of the impacts of the pandemic when compared with pandemics such as Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), Bird Flu, Middle East Respiratory Syndrome and Ebola (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2020) because of anticipated recession (WTTC, 2020; UNWTO, 2020; World Economic Forum, 2020). This is therefore confirmation that the recovery period may be longer than expected due to a fall in traveller and business confidence.

Africa's tourism sector relies mainly on the international tourism market and as a result the current crisis has dealt a heavy blow to its tourism industry that was on a steady path of growth. Accommodation establishments, travel agencies, tour operators, safari companies, community tourism enterprises, attractions and the airline sector continue to reel under the impacts of COVID-19. Many marginalised communities that included tourism in their livelihood mix have been left vulnerable by the pandemic through loss of income and job opportunities from nature-based tourism (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2020, 2020; Gossling et al., 2020). Vickers et al. (2020) forecast that the African continent will lose US\$ 50 Billion in revenue and close to 2 million direct and indirect jobs. Faced with this crisis, rural poverty alleviation and the achievement of Sustainable Development goals, cultural and heritage preservation goals suffer a setback. Zimbabwe is not spared from the current crisis because of its overreliance on the international tourism market. Rural communities that served international wildlife have been hard hit and prospects for poverty alleviation have been dealt a blow. Hopes of recovery of the

tourism sector have been pinned on domestic tourism even though it is poorly promoted in the country. The proposed rural tourism development initiative hinges on successful tourism development to energise the whole tourism system in Chitomborwizi East.

Tough COVID-19 has catastrophic effects, it has offered a chance for environmental regeneration to many destinations where over-tourism has been a concern (Gardiner, 2020; NASA, 2020; Newsome, 2020). However, Rowe (2020) is of the view that since tourism generates money for conservation, travel restrictions will ultimately witness an increase in loss of biodiversity through poaching. In future there should be a renewed focus on the model of tourism development which deemphasises high tourist volumes without due and sincere consideration for the environment.

Rural tourism in Chitomborwizi East is a livelihood diversification strategy that will reduce the vulnerability of livelihoods to falling agricultural productivity. Rural tourism should be part of the livelihood mix because it is highly volatile to trends and shocks such as the current pandemic which induce vulnerability amongst the existing households in the community. In rural areas a balance must be struck for the promotion of both domestic and international tourism to reduce risks of overdependence on one market tourism. Tourism in rural areas by virtue of its multiplier effect is a force of pro-poor economic growth through employment creation, generation of additional farm income, cultural and heritage preservation, community cohesion and improvement of the living standards of the people and consequently poverty alleviation. To achieve the net positive benefits from tourism, proper planning is required to manage the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts in rural areas. Tourism development should deviate from a neo-colonialist perspective.

2.11 Sustainable Livelihoods Application in Tourism

SLA which made its appearance in mainstream literature in 1986 to mark a departure from narrowly focused economic to more holistic development (Santi-Kul and Dorji, 2016). Tao and Wall (2009) observed that pro-poor tourism as a theory is barely defined because it flouts the reality that tourism impacts other economic sectors. Sustainable livelihoods construction must

acknowledge the poor's reliance on multiple activities that include agriculture, remittances, and collection of natural resources for sale (Tao and Wall, 2009a; Tao and Wall, 2011). Butler (1993, p. 29) buttressed this view by conceding that sustainable tourism is 'Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area in such a manner that it does not degrade or alter the environment in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes.' In tandem with the above definition, SLA was espoused as a valuable framework for this research because cross-sectoral understanding of existing livelihoods, assets, processes, structures and institutions is crucial to development of sustainable livelihoods to determine the fit of tourism into existing livelihoods. Choice of the approach is justified on the basis that it considers traditional livelihood activities, socio-cultural environment, and potential inequalities that tourism may bring (Helmore and Singh, 2001; Ellis, 1998; Husein and Nelson, 1998). As much as it is widely acclaimed that tourism can contribute to livelihood diversification by increasing the household asset base and spreading risk of reliance on a few rural livelihood strategies, tourism if unplanned can weaken the asset base, structures, and institutions of rural communities to the extent that other existing livelihoods may become vulnerable and insecure (Tao, 2006; Lee, 2008; Tao and Wall, 2009a). Secondary occupations such as tourism have the potential to take away time and labour dedicated to traditional livelihood activities such as agriculture and in the process increase the vulnerability of livelihoods. Contrary to popular belief, in a study in Yuanjia in China, tourism was found to be a dominant rather than complimentary livelihood strategy (Gao and Woo, 2017).

Despite the consensus that the SLA can be successfully applied to evaluate the introduction of tourism as a livelihood strategy in rural environments, there is a dearth of research on the subject (Leis and Lemke, 2016; Cakir et al., 2018; Tao and Wall, 2009a; Tao and Wall, 2011; Lee, 2008; Kimbu et al., 2019, Xue and Kerstetter, 2019). The few studies that link tourism to sustainability (Ashley, 2000, Acha-Anyi and Dlamini, 2019; Leu, 2019; Tao, 2006; Tao and Wall, 2009b; Chen et al., 2018) substantiate that tourism contributes to economic, environmental, and socio-cultural positive and negative impacts. Of interest is the study by Shen et al. (2008) who developed Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis for Tourism Framework (SLAF) to evaluate tourism's potential as a sustainable livelihood strategy by paying particular emphasis on tourism assets in a rural

community, the tourism vulnerability context as defined by trends, shocks and conflicts that are peculiar to tourism. The study also evaluates the tourism strategies and outcomes. The same framework makes it clear that institutions, structures, and process that determine use and access of tourism assets to achieve social, economic, and environmental outcomes (Shen et al., 2008; Leu, 2019).

The use of the SLA framework in this research was driven by the need to evaluate whether tourism is a livelihood strategy that has potential poverty alleviation potential in rural Chitomborwizi East Ward. It is widely accepted that at global level, tourism contributes to poverty alleviation (Department for International Development [DFID], 1999a, b; Ashley et al., 2000, 2001; Roe and Urquhart Khanya, 2001; Xue and Kerstetter, 2019). Consequently, development proposals in third world countries target tourism's ability to contribute to pro-poor growth. Ashley and Roe (2001) contend that interest in pro-poor tourism is a result of cultural, social, economic, and environmental benefits that the poor derive from tourism development (DFID, 1999). Application of the SLA framework to the Mto and Mbua communities that reside close to Lake Manyara (Njole, 2011), in rural Capadocia region in Turkey, in Luanchuan Country in China, Merak-Sakteng in Bhutan, Okavango Delta in Botswana, and in the Dominican Republic validate that tourism leads to economic, social, and environmental livelihood benefits (Cakir et al., 2018; Shen, 2009; Mbaiwa, 2004a; Leon, 2007).

Determining the fit of tourism as a livelihood strategy in Chitomborwizi Ward is imperative since agriculture productivity is on a path of decline. The Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework is used in this study because the pro-poor approach itself is grounded in livelihood analysis (Ashley, 2000; Ashley et al., 2001). Creation of linkages between tourism and agriculture has potential for poverty alleviation (Pillay and Rogerson, 2013). However, before rushing to conclude the suitability of tourism as a livelihood option, identification of the multiple activities undertaken by the poor is of paramount importance. This is supported by the view that the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) recognizes that people's livelihoods are gained through numerous activities and new initiatives should be incorporated into an existing livelihood system (Wall and Tao, 2009a). Therefore, tourism needs to be considered inter alia other

livelihood pursuits in Chitomborwizi East Ward to ascertain its appropriateness as a sustainable livelihood option. Ellis (2000) echoes the need to vary livelihood activities to foster economic growth in rural areas. The inflexibility and adaptability of the Sustainable Livelihoods makes it a useful tool for livelihoods analysis (DFID, 1999). Its community centred characteristic places emphasis on local priorities, interpretations, and capabilities with the aim of building capacities of the rural poor in tourism development (Sporton and Thomas, 2002). In addition, it offers a holistic view of the combination of resources that are important to the poor, including not only physical resources but human, social, and financial capital (Solesbury, 2003).

The Sustainable Livelihood Analysis Framework [SLA] is a tool for planning new development initiatives and evaluating existing livelihood initiatives (DFID, 1999) and thus fits well in this context as tourism is a new proposed development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Tourism supply was appraised in the context of SLA by focusing on the macro and microenvironment, resources owned by the poor, policies, institutions, and processes which have a bearing on livelihood strategies and outcomes associated with rural tourism development. The traditional livelihood framework was made use of in appreciation of the fact that tourism is multisectoral in nature and therefore understanding the context in which the poor people of Chitomborwizi reside, assets at their disposal and how structures, institutions, process influence tourism development. In addition, the existing livelihood strategies and outcomes are investigated to establish the potential of tourism to disrupt or enhance existing livelihoods. This has been done to desist from adopting a parochial or tourism-centric view by evaluating the potential of tourism to alleviate poverty.

However, the approach is not without its limitations. Its major pitfall is that it does not identify how poor people receive assistance in pursuing their livelihoods. In support of the above view, Coutts (2003 p.3) revealed that 'DFID's sustainable livelihoods framework avoids laying down any explicit definition of what poverty is.... says nothing about poverty per se ... as the real meaning of poverty remains context specific, something to be investigated on a case-by-case basis with different groups. In as much as it claims to be rooted in sustainability, the approach does not provide depth about sustainability.

2.12 Chapter Summary

The Chapter dissected the Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis Framework as the conceptual framework for this study. The SLA framework provides a basis for evaluating the potential of tourism as a livelihood strategy in a rural area that has traditionally relied on agriculture for its existence. Livelihood assets, vulnerability contexts, livelihood strategies and outcomes in the context of rural environments are examined with the view of determining the potential of tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. The study makes explicit recognition that rural areas are in a state of decline and therefore a livelihood mix comprising of on-farm, off farm and non-farm related activities is crucial tourism. Tourism is one such livelihood that can be incorporated into the livelihoods of local people due to its reliance on natural resources owned by the poor. By virtue of this little investment is required.

The chapter also delved on reviewing the asset status and institutions, structures, and processes of the national and more specifically rural environment. Tourism development in Zimbabwe is constrained by a shortage of skilled staff because of skills flight precipitated by a decline in the economic environment, poorly resourced training institutions and training that is not aligned to the priorities of the sector. A call was made for local training institutions to review the curricular in consultation with the industry to produce skilled graduates.

Underdevelopment of physical infrastructure is also blamed for regressing tourism development. Road rail and air transportation networks need a serious overhaul to improve accessibility of the country to tourists. The state of infrastructure is direr in rural areas where feeder roads are not well maintained. Apart from transport infrastructure, dilapidated water, sanitation, and power infrastructure that lacks periodic maintenance requires immediate attention if tourism development is to succeed in rural areas. Exclusion of rural people from accessing financial services to boost agricultural productivity and generate more income to invest in livelihood diversification was identified as a key constraint. Lack of security of tenure is the major reason why financial institutions view investment in small scale farming as risk particularly when they default loan payments. Lending institutions are called to develop loan schemes that are in tandem with the needs of the of the small-scale commercial farmers.

Tourism development yields positive and economic, environmental, and socio-cultural. Tourism generates employment, revenues, preserves the culture and the environment whilst at the same time improving the living standards of the people. Inflation, loss of cultural authenticity, environmental degradation is some of the costs of tourism development. To reduce negative impacts of tourism, sustainable tourism management is fundamental. At present the COVID-19 pandemic has had serious ramifications on the tourism sector but due to the resilience of the sector, it will bounce back. Though research on sustainable livelihoods analysis is limited, application of the model to tourism development in Chitomborwizi East ward is justifiable based on the fact it is a holistic approach to livelihood diversification. However, its major weakness is that poverty and sustainability are not addressed at length.

CHAPTER

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT THEORIES AND MODELS

3.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the concept of development including its origin. Mainstream development theories, their application in tourism including their pros and cons were the focus of discussion. The chapter traced the development of tourism by referring to the modernisation, dependency, neoliberal, alternative development, and alternatives to development theories. It presents the notion that exogenous development of the third world is unideal because it tends to perpetuate and reinforce imperialism and colonialisation. Since mainstream development theories failed to spur the much-needed development in developing countries, alternative development theories rose to prominence. The thesis rejects external top-down expert driven approaches to development by suggesting bottom-up, people centred and inclusive development approaches. Sustainable tourism development is considered a superior development option to balance economic, socio-cultural, and environmental priorities. Nevertheless, despite its appropriateness as a development concept, sustainable tourism is ambiguous, lacks a universal definition and is fraught with multiple interpretations. Community Based Tourism and ecotourism are investigated at length to reveal their appropriateness as alternative forms of tourism that offer prospects for sustainable growth. A fusion of the two concepts is ideal for rural communities that seek to adopt a community people centred approach to development. Despite its popularity, Community Based Ecotourism (CBE) is fraught with such challenges as lack of business acumen, heterogeneity of communities that make it difficult to develop a common vision, land tenure and security issues among other factors.

3.2 Evolution of Development

Development theories arose after World War 2 when attempts to address Third World development constraints were sought (Arn, 2002). Despite the lengthy existence of development as a discourse, common consensus on the meaning of the concept remains a mammoth task (Wall, 2005; Pieterse, 2010). As a result, numerous development frameworks have been put forward to

debate developmental perspectives in developed and developing countries alike (Holden, 2013). All development advocates generally concede that development is a multidimensional concept whose application is context specific (Barnett, 1988; Wall, 1997; Harrison, 1988; Abuyada, 2018). In as much as the context is varied, economic growth perspectives to development that express Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income as development metrics dominate literature across several disciplines (Peet and Hartwick, 2015). In the tourism context, the aim of development was to achieve economic growth through promotion of mass tourism (Wood, 1979; Bond and Ladman, 1980; de Kadt, 1979). Even though this development was acceptable in the first few years after 1950, researchers began to call for caution in tourism development because of the negative tourism impacts and a neglect of the political economy of tourism (Dieke, 2000) that resulted in unequal participation and benefit sharing. As a result, development in Third World became synonymous with recolonialisation because economic surplus from the poor underdeveloped countries was transferred to developed states (Britton, 1980; 1982; Nash, 1989) through capital accumulation motives. Therefore, this disgruntlement is the reason mainstream development approaches are challenged in favour of alternatives to development theories. The evolution from mainstream to alternatives to development theories is illustrated in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Development Perspectives

Period	Theory	Characteristics
1950s>	Modernization Theory	• Dominance of western economic growth-based models • Stages of growth • Structural theories • Diffusion; Growth poles and trickle-down theory
1960s>	Modernisation/Dependency Theory	Underdevelopment is due to • domination/exploitation by developed countries • Economic structuring, import substitution and protectionism. • Development of domestic markets • Limits to growth: Neo Malthusian theories in response to environmental concerns

1970s>	Neoliberalism	Promotion of Free market • Limits on government intervention in economic activities • Deregulation/privatisation • Structural adjustment programmes • New economic world order
1980s>	Neo-liberalism/Alternative development	Awareness of the impacts of development on different cultures/societies • Grassroots/people centred development • Basic needs: food, health, housing, and education • Local context/indigenous knowledge • Environmental sustainability
1990s>	Alternative Development	Dominance of sustainable development paradigm but emergence of post development school of thought • Grassroots/people centred development • Environmental development • Engagement with globalisation • The development impasse
2000>	Beyond the impasse: A new paradigm	• Post development rejection of overarching development concepts • Global environmental policies and protocols • Transnational movement • Micro-level strategies • Poverty reduction • State security and development

Sources: Pieterse (2010:7) and Sharpley (2009:39)

As shown in Table 3.1, the 1950s saw the emergence of the modernization theory which viewed development as a shift from traditional to modern society (Sharpley, 2003). While modernity embraced industrialization, urbanization, and increased use of technology in multiple sectors of the economy, cultural degradation, environmental destruction, and decline in quality of life became evident (Willis, 2011). Proponents of modernity demonstrated unwavering support for this mode of development because they claimed that wealth creation was tantamount to improved standards of living. The celebratory mood associated with modernisation was short-lived when dependency theorists of the 1960s cited modernisation as the reason for underdevelopment of the periphery Third World Countries (Pieterse, 2010). The dependists' weak propositions of the unsubstantiated claims of the causal link between dependency and underdevelopment saw the rise of a neoliberal perspective that backed free markets as the modus operandi of development. Neoliberals of the 1980s' backed privatization, liberalization and de-

regulation as the means of achieving development (Holden, 2013; Sharpley, 2000). Their proposition was that the state should roll back from economic participation and roll out strategies to promote activities of private sector players through free markets mechanisms. In no time neoliberal tendencies lost popularity because capital accumulation by the Western nations became rife while developing countries walloped in poverty. It must be emphasised that neoliberalism was well-thought-out plan to tacitly re-establish colonialism and imperialism in developing countries despite attainment of independence. Faced with such a scenario, a novel approach to holistic development thinking was called for. That fresh paradigm became alternative development in the 1990s which became the epicentre of refocused development approaches. Alternative development and its successor sustainable tourism were soon co-opted into mainstream development thinking because instead of bringing a fresh perspective to development they reinforced the capitalistic status quo. It is at this juncture that numerous organisations began to search for genuine alternatives to economic focused development.

Despite popularisation of mainstream econometric approaches to development, disparities between the rich and the poor increased while an escalation of poverty and inequality was conspicuous (Peet and Hartwick, 2015). To address monocentric economic view to development, social, environmental, cultural considerations were packaged into developmental studies to provide a holistic view to development. Consequently, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) created poverty, unemployment, inequality, and self-reliance indicators to monitor development progress (Binns, 1995; Wall, 2005; Abuyada, 2018; Pieterse, 2010). To buttress the human centred development ideology, Amartya Sen's view to human development as the ability to accomplish, flourish and live value-laden lives (Desai and Potter, 2014) provided a basis for UNDP's Human Development Index. According to Sen (1999, p. 3-4) development is a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy. Development requires the removal of major sources of unfreedom: poverty as well as tyranny, poor economic opportunities as well as systematic social deprivation, neglect of public facilities as well as intolerance or over activity of repressive states. Violation of freedom results from a denial of political and civil liberties by authoritarian regimes and from imposed restrictions on the freedom to participate in the social, political and economic life of the community.

Development extends beyond economic development to poverty alleviation, access to social services and political free will. It was on this basis that from Year 2000 the United Nations introduced Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) (Desai and Potter, 2014). Willis (2011) said MDGs have been used by governments and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to craft development policies to meet projected developmental targets. However, Buzinde et al. (2014) questioned the relevance of these MDGS to Third World Development challenges since that they exogenously crafted by the Western World and mega institutions such as IMF and World Bank. Such exogenous developments may not be compatible with policies of development in Africa. Despite these salient criticisms they continue to be a reference point to global multidimensional perspectives to development. These MDGs represent an attempt to contextualise development despite no clear frameworks on how this can be achieved. A promising approach to novel development is Buen Vivir a Latin American concept that translates to good living. The approach recognises development as an endogenous bottom-up approach process that prioritises the environment and social relations at the expense of economic fundamentals of capitalism.

Despite the numerous development theories indicated in Table 3.1, the most acknowledged theories are modernization, dependency, neo-liberalism, alternative development, and alternatives to development theories (Holden, 2013). Given the divergent views on development it becomes difficult to prescribe appropriate solutions for a concept that suffers from conceptual fuzziness. Interestingly the concept of development itself was mooted outside Africa and therefore application of a foreign ideology to the African context brings its own complexities and does not always provide a solution to Africa's development (Matunhu, 2011). Third World development ideas must emanate from within the affected nations if developmental progress is to be made. Unfortunately, development continues to be treated as a western centric notion that does little to aid developing countries' developmental aspirations (Sharpley, 2003). Migration to bottom-up approaches to development such as Buen Vivir will satisfy the development of developing countries such as Zimbabwe. Tourism development in Chitomborwizi East must be built on environmental and social fundamentals to achieve good living. This will be achieved through pro-poor CBE initiatives that are driven by non-economic priorities. Pursuing capitalist models of

development will favour mainstream tourism companies and agencies that are mainly transnational. In such cases, capital accumulated from tourism development will flow from the rural periphery to urban and developed countries' metropolitan centres.

3.3 Modernization Theory

The Modernisation theory introduced in the 1950s promoted a migration from traditional pre-capitalist economies to industrial capitalist economies (Harrison, 2014; Mowforth and Munt, 2009; Telfer, 2015) as the universal pathway to development. 'Modernisation is a process of 'westernisation', with economic growth underpinning western –style socio-cultural development' (Sharpley, 2003, p. 248; Clancy, 1999). The theory argues that different societies follow a traditional –modern development scale defined by Gross National Product (GNP), per capita income, acceptance of modern dogmata, social variation, and political assimilation (Fitzgerald, 1983; Sharpley, 2000; Ukabuilu and Igbojekwe, 2015). According to Matunhu (2011), modernisation follows a linear five-stage process;

1. Primitive Society: Stage of subsistence farming and barter trade
2. Preparation for take –off: Specialization, production of surplus goods, infrastructure development, encouragement of savings and investments are dominant.
3. Take-off: Agriculture and mining lead to economic transformation
4. Drive to maturity: Economic diversification and import reduction.
5. Period of mass consumption: Mass production of goods and dominance of the service sector

Despite its perceived positive outlook, the modernization theory is often condemned for its assumption of the process being unavoidable, western ethnocentrism and focus on metropolitan areas' economic development at the expense of periphery regions (Sharpley, 2003; Androit, 2003; Nkurunziza, 2007). In addition, the modernization theory is critiqued for its supposition that traditional values conflict with modernisation without providing credible evidence to this supposition (Holden, 2014; Chaperon, 2017). This doctrine is preached so that poor local communities trivialise the resources they own in exchange for their unsustainable exploitation (Holden, 2013). Chaperone (2017) alleges that external institutions and economic structures play

are the dominant that cause underdevelopment and conservation of traditional cultural resources (Chaperon, 2017).

The pessimistic views to modernisation are dismissible on the grounds that Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, and South Korea developed from Western funded investments (Holden, 2013; Lacher and Nepal, 2010). Furthermore, dependency is a negotiated process that allows local agencies and individuals to influence their own destinies rather than blame the Western world for their economic misfortunes (Milne and Ateljevic, 1999). The poor often have a keen interest in lobbying their development trajectories, but they rarely have the bargaining power. Matunhu (2011) voiced the concern that since the poor are not accounted for in development, modernisation fails to achieve development objectives for Africa (Wang et al., 2009; Matunhu, 2011; Monterrubio et al., 2018). Matunhu (2011) insists that 'Fighting Africa's poverty includes much more than a simple shift from the traditional to a modern society' (Matunhu, 2011, p. 67).

Even though the approach has been widely researched in other disciplines, there is a dearth of research on the application of the theory in tourism except for a few studies by MacNaught (1982); Oakes (1998), Sofield and Li (1998), Andriotis (2003), Sharpley (2001) and Aramberi (2010). This projected path of development is dismissed on the basis that development does not always follow a linear path because political disturbances, meteorological factors and outbreaks of pandemics interrupt the process (Matunhu, 2011). The theory purports that the emergence of key industries spurs broad based economic development across multiple economic sectors in a process that leads to modernization (Telfer and Sharpley, 2007). Tourism is one such industry that has potential to contribute to modernization by contributing to growth of agriculture, manufacturing, and financial services amongst other economic sectors. Tourism contributes to economic development through establishment of local linkages, employment creation, cultural and heritage preservation, development of intercultural understanding between hosts and guests, environmental conservation, income multiplier effects among other factors (Sharpley, 2003; Andriotis, 2003). Mexican Resort of Cancun, Greek Island of Crete exhibit how tourism leads to modernisation (Wall, 2005; Andriotis, 2003). This modernisation comes with its disadvantages. In the later tourism, is characterised by unbalanced development between the Northern and

Southern Precincts of the Island. Southern inhabitants migrate to the North in search of better livelihood opportunities from tourism (Andriotis, 2003). Depopulation of the later has impoverished it through domestic core -periphery tendencies that are seldom reported because researchers are preoccupied with notion that underdevelopment is externally driven. In the same vein, De Kadt (1979) and Komilis (1994) dismissed the benefits associated with tourism driven modernisation as a fallacy amidst increased income leakages and few linkages in local destinations.

The development of tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward should be championed by the local communities. Such endogenous development that will achieve poverty alleviation objectives and curtail the negative economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of mass tourism that is associated with Western centric models of development. A disregard of the local traditional culture for the modern world should be unacceptable since the local people have lived harmoniously with nature and amongst themselves, a clear sign that modernisation may disrupt such existing status quo. Forms of tourism should be pursued that respect the aspirations of the poor and are less disruptive to social capital, culture, and the environment. The theory of modernisation is rejected here because of the inequalities perpetuated between communities and metropolitan areas through dependencies it creates.

3.4 The Dependency Theory

The Economic Commission of Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) introduced the dependency theory to mainstream development in the 1950s (Monterrubio et al., 2018; Ukabuilu and Igbojekwe, 2015) to explain the shortcomings of the modernisation theory. Frank 1967's criticism of modernization on the basis that capitalism resulted in impoverishment of weaker states (Andriotis, 2002; Auty, 1995; Britton, 1982; 1989; Kapoor, 2002; Lea, 1988; Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Pleumarom, 2002; Telfer and Sharpley, 2007; Wang et al., 2009) saw to rise to prominence of the dependency theory that was popularised on neoliberal fundamentals (Holden, 2013; Monterrubio et al., 2018). Neo-colonialism is a retention of former colonies in unequal exploitative relationships with Western States despite political independence (Mowforth et al., p. 50). Due to its neo-colonial orientation, many authors were attracted to explore the dependency paradigm (Britton, 1981, 1987 1982; Chaperon, 2017; Harrison, 1995b; Hills and Lundgren, 1977;

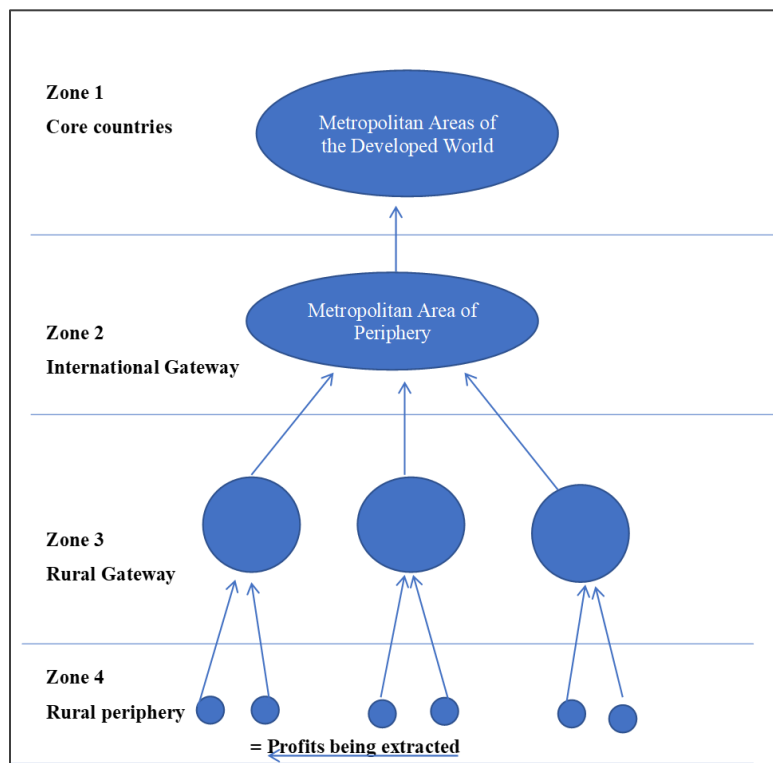
Matthews and Richter, 1991; Monterrubio et al., 2018; Sharpley and Telfer, 2002; Turner, 1975; Welling and Crush, 1983; Manzoor et al., 2019; Wu, 1982). All the above-mentioned authors agreed to the core-periphery theory as the underlying fundamentals to dependency.

Dependency alters internal economic and social sub-systems' functions in underdeveloped nations (Britton, 1982; 1987a; 1987b; 1989; Wang et al., 2009). The eventual outcome is instantaneous collapse of local economies driven by a focus to serve exogenous Western markets (Chaperon and Bramewell, 2012; Quijano, 1974; Roxborough, 1979:42-69 as cited in Britton, 1982, p. 333-334). As a result, Frank (1967) concluded that dependency is characterised by a dialectical relationship between a metropolitan core and an underdeveloped periphery. Figure 3.2 below illustrates the conceptualisation of the dependency paradigm (Chaperon and Bramwell, 2013). According to Britton (1982) and Chaperon and Bramewell (2013) dependency occurs at four levels between; metropolitan and periphery states (International level); dominant and lower classes in the periphery (domestic level); capitalists and primary producers (domestic level) and dominant and lower players in one sector (domestic sectoral) (Monterrubio et al., 2018; Telfer, 2002). Metropolitan centers of the developed world as illustrated in Zone 1 exploit the underdeveloped states (Zone 2). To achieve this, the industrialized countries take advantage of their technological, political, and financial superiority to entice development in the Third World in pursuit of their wealth creation objectives (Brohman, 1996a; Brown, 1998; Lacher and Nepal, 2010; Lepp, 2008; Wang et al., 2009). The periphery supplies under-priced primary products to the center where they are transformed to overpriced secondary goods which are exported back to the periphery (Lepp, 2008; Manzoor et al., 2019). The above scenario mirrors Britain's development which depended on importation of cotton from India to manufacture clothes that were resold in India at exorbitant prices (Holden, 2013; Matunhu, 2011). No doubt a dependency syndrome then manifests in the periphery regions (Clancy, 1999). In support Mathews (1978) as cited in Sharpley and Telfer (2002, p. 54) concluded that wealth transfer from 'Colony to motherland' by transnational companies (TNCs) represent exploitative post-independence recolonisation strategies achieved through capitalism by the developed world (Holden, 2013; Jordan, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2005; Torres, 2002; Torres and Momsen, 2004; Wang et al., 2009). To make matters worse, multinational corporations are seldom incorporated in the local economic

linkages (Chaperon and Bramwell, 2013). Faced with this predicament, developing countries are incapable of achieving economic independence to meet world development standards that are portrayed by Western States (Palma, 1995:162 as cited in Telfer and Sharpley, 2007, p. 13). Revenues leak out of local economies through payments made to TNCs for management contracts, franchise fees, royalties, and imports to service the tourist trade (Brown and Hall, 2000; Frank, 1978; Harrison, 2015). Therefore, this perpetuates underdevelopment in the periphery. Unfortunately, these dependency tendencies not only manifest themselves at macro but at micro level as well (Bramewell and Chaperone, 2013; Milne and Alteijevic, 2001; Monterrubio et al., 2018).

At national level metropolitan centers (Zone 2) may exploit the rural periphery (Zone 3 and 4) to achieve their development priorities, a situation that may entrench rural inhabitants into deep poverty. In support of the above opinion, Buhalis (1999) claimed that even though rural peripherals are characterised by low agricultural productivity, they have an abundance of natural resources that have potential to be developed for authentic tourist experiences (Mueller and Jansen, 2007). Migration of labour from rural to urban areas deprives the agricultural sector of the labour required for production purposes (Matunhu, 2011). Another case in point is the Komodo National Park in Indonesia where tourism is known to benefit foreign enterprises and urban residents at the expense of the Komodo Villagers (Walpole and Goodwin, 2000). Therefore, tourism needs to be developed with and by the people of Chitomborwizi East Ward if it is to contribute to poverty alleviation otherwise underdevelopment of the region because of exposure to the effects of exploitative metropolitan centres at global and national levels may occur.

Table 3.2: Spatial Scales of Dependency



Source: Lacher and Nepal (2010)

Planning for tourism development in the area under study must emphasise endogenous development that as much as possible deemphasises the current capitalistic tendencies of tourism development witnessed in Zimbabwe. Allowing possibilities for metropolitan urban investors to chart the pathway to tourism development should be avoided to spare the local communities from being overly dependent on exploitative metropolitans. In that regard tourism may achieve poverty alleviation objectives.

The dependency theory has informed most of the tourism research (Holden, 2013; Chaperon and Bramwell, 2013). In the tourism context tourist destinations located in the periphery depend on markets, expertise and capital found in metropolitan areas (Bramwell and Chaperon, 2013; Brown, 1998; Brohman, 1996a; Lepp, 2008). Urry (1990) proved that transnational companies headquartered in North America and Western Europe control tourism development in Dominica. Such externally driven developments are associated with lower multiplier effects, lower

rates of employment for locals, foreign dominance, and income leakages (Andriotis, 2002; Lepp, 2008). To bolster the above supposition, Sharpley and Telfer (2002) further revealed that large multinational first world corporations exert control over airlines, tour operators and hotel chains. Inclusive tourism packages to Kenya and Botswana are paid for in Europe and United States of America where the revenue is retained (Akama and Kieti, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2005). In many cases, these multinationals function as enclaves which Goonatilake (1978 as cited in Andriotis, 2002) called islands of wealth disconnected from the local population but linked to global capitalist states (Akama and Kieti, 2007; Chaperon and Bramwell, 2013; Frobel et al., 1980; Lacher and Nepal, 2010; Ukabuilu and Igbojekwe, 2015). Nonetheless Butler (1990:41) touted the dependency theory as imperialistic games responsible for development inequalities between the developing and the developed world (Brohman, 1996a).

Tourism development decisions affecting local communities are made by exogeneous agencies who wield power over local inhabitants (Akama and Kiet, 2007; Brohman, 1996a). In the process, local communities lose ownership and control of resources. In their disempowered circumstances, local people bear the social, economic, and ecological brunt of tourism development (Nunkoo et al., 2010). Butler's (1980) Tourist Destination Life Cycle Model traces how tourism industry ownership passes from locals at inception to foreigners as destination development progresses. Dependence on foreign owned firms that exacerbate inequalities is evident in Seychelles (Lee et al., 2015), Caribbean, Pacific, and Fiji Islands (Russell and Scheyvens, 2012; Britton, 1981; 1982; Walton et al., 2018), Tanzania (Kinyondo and Pelizzo, 2015). In these scenarios, loss of jobs to expatriates (Tolkach and King, 2015), alienation of locals (Guo et al., 2019) and leakages (Boz, 2011; Wearing, 2002) are commonplace.

In the Kenyan Mombasa Bay, core tourism products are supplied by foreign investors (Akama and Kieti, 2007) while local communities engage in vending to make ends meet. In Chitomborwizi East Ward, endogenous tourism development that promotes community participation should be supported. Community ownership of tourism ventures is widely backed to prevent income leakages that reduce beneficiation at local level. Dominance of TNCs in exogenous tourism developments increase the vulnerability of local communities to poverty

because these companies' operations are outside the local economic domains. Leaving development at the hands of external bodies that masquerade as pro-poor tourism agencies may lead to income leakages that may perpetuate poverty and inequalities amongst communities.

Critics of the dependency theory propose partnerships between locals and large-scale enterprises, increased local participation and linkages with local support industries (Brown, 1998; Brohman, 1996a; Lepp, 2008; Ukabuilu and Igbojekwe, 2015) to offset its negative effects. Wall (2005) holds the widely proclaimed view that small-scale, locally owned facilities can satisfy development needs in third world countries. However, attempts for highly endogenous tourism developments in many African countries and Caribbean Islands are inhibited by inadequate capital and absence of skilled employees (Andriotis, 2002). To address hiccups to small is beautiful, governments should retain maximum control of the tourism sector and develop policies that increase local participation, support local enterprises, and create a favourable business environment (Andriotis, 2002; Brohman, 1996a).

The dependency theory played a major role in bringing to light the blessing and the blight of tourism and the inequalities that mar tourism development (Raoul, 2018). However, in contradiction of the supposed ills of capitalistic tendencies of the developed countries, Chaperon (2017), Dan (1990) and Scheyvens and Momsen (2008) called for caution in the application of the dependency paradigm because in some localities local investment outweighs foreign investment. In Penang, Malaysia almost all accommodation facilities are owned by the local people (Britton, 1981; Harrison, 1995). Chaperon (2017) applauded foreign investment for the central role it plays in stimulating local investment. Dependists' deterministic approach to underdevelopment is insufficient to explain developmental disparities. The core-periphery tensions are not only a result of economic factors but rather a multiplicity of cultural, political, and political issues that influence development progress (Hynes, 2008; Raoul, 2018). Faced with this stalemate, a new breed of research sprang up to advocate elimination of state intervention in economic development (Mason, 2010; Nkurunziza, 2007).

3.5 The Neo-Classical Economic Theory

Neo-liberalism developed by Milton Fried an economist, is a hegemonic project that supports market liberalization, privatization of state enterprises and a reduction of irrational state intervention in economic development (Brenner and Theodore, 2002; Castree, 2010; Hawkins and Mann, 2007; Holden, 2013; Igoe et al., 2010; Peck and Tickell, 2007; Peck, 2010; Mason, 2010; Morange and Fol, 2014; Muro, 2011; Sharpley, 2000). The diverse conceptualisation of neoliberalisation muddles the comprehension of the concept. Castree (2010) decomposes neoliberalisation into three perspectives. From the first standpoint, neoliberalisation is conceptualised as a world's view philosophy that advocates for the exercise of individual freedom of choice in all facets of life and the rationalisation of demand and supply by making use of the free market mechanisms (Castree, 2010; Igoe et al., 2010). The inscriptions of Hayek in 1944, 1966 and those of Friedman in 1962 put emphasis on the above creed. This philosophy was fashioned to quash Keynesian welfarism state paradigm that endorsed the increased influence of the state in repressing individual and institutional freedoms. From the second dimension, neoliberalisation is a policy discourse developed by a historical block from the West that sought to popularise the concept into mainstream development thinking. Privatisation, marketization, state-roll back, reregulation and promotion of self-governance shaped the viewpoint. In the third scenario, neoliberalisation is defined as state led state measures to fulfil the world and policy viewpoints of neoliberalisation through promotion of free markets, trade liberalisation and stabilisation through sound macro -economic policies, favourable industrial and business policies, labour practices, adoption of performance metrics and good governance among other such practicums (Castree, 2010; Igoe et al., 2010).

Interestingly, proponents of the neo-liberal approach are exogenous Western World agencies that include but are not limited to the World Bank and the presidium of United States of America and Britain (Holden, 2013; Hursh and Henderson, 2011; Reyes, 2011; Sharpley, 2000). In spite of their popularisation, neoliberal policies saw a plummet in domestic production, poor resource allocation, environmental destruction, loss of employment and escalation of poverty caused by reduction of state subsidy in the production of public goods (Reyes, 2011; Pisani, 2003). Championing development of the developing world must be a design of the people's cause and

not prescribed out of their context. From a tourism perspective, International Aid Agencies such as the European Union and World Bank provide conditional funding for tourism infrastructure, human resources development and marketing (Telfer and Sharpley, 2000; Inskeep and Kallenberg, 1994). Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) which reduce the influence of the government and promote private sector activity in tourism development (Sharpley, 2000; Hursh and Henderson, 2011; Brohman, 1996a) are the conditions tied to the funding. These structural adjustment programmes have widened poverty and inequality in many developing countries (Holden, 2013). Structural Adjustment Programmes often benefit the elite and foreign institutions leaving most of the population vulnerable to poverty (Pisani, 2003). Matunhu (2011, p. 67) labelled the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) implemented in Zimbabwe as a 'eurocentric experiment which entrenched the nation into poverty and underdevelopment.' Brohman (1986) commented that outward tourism development is often promoted by funding bodies to promote economic growth, increased multiplier effects, improved macro-economic and generation of foreign exchange earnings. To the contrary, disruption of domestic linkages, fall in local employment and income levels and community exploitation are unfavourable outcomes of neo-liberalisation. A key concern that has been raised in the infiltration of neo-liberal politics into nature conservation.

This hegemonic ideology in mainstream conservation was conceived out of the conception that attribution of value to nature is sufficient to stimulate conservation (Brockington et al., 2008; Carrier and Mclead, 2005; Castree, 2007; Goldman, 2005; MacAfee, 1999; Sullivan, 2009). Capitalisation has extended to all spheres of life including nature (Brockington and Duffy, 2010). Proponents of neoliberal conservation (Igoe et al., 2010; Fletcher, 2010) of nature or green capitalism viewed absence of market value of nature as the reason for degradation of the environment (Scales, 2014). To do away negative impacts on the environment and achieve economic prosperity marketization of nature was considered as profound (Ferraro, 2011; Igoe et al., 2010). The basis for this thinking is that human awareness of the monetary value of ecosystems resonates into conservation (Fairhead et al., 2012; Igoe et al., 2010; Roberts, 2008). By neoliberalising nature, forces of supply and demand are left at free will to determine economic prosperity and favourable outcomes of nature conservation (Buhler et al., 2020). Assigning values

to natural assets is tedious because the ultimate value is dependent on diverse cultural orientations and contested property rights for common pool resources (Castree, 2010). Consequentially, neoliberalisation is blamed for loss of the intrinsic value of nature (Clements et al., 2010). It cannot go without saying that green capitalism favours the elite to exploit natural resources for their gain (Fairhead et al., 2012) while local communities are disposed of their land which is a basis for their livelihoods as capitalists scramble for more profitability frontiers. In Tanzania and Colombia, local people were excluded from benefiting from ecotourism due to invasion of their territories by capitalists. Because capitalism is often in search of profitability unsustainable commodification of nature continues unabated (Buhler et al., 2020; Harvey, 2005; Pavlovic and Knezevic, 2017). This forms the basis of why nature is defined from three perspectives either as a primary good, resource or ecosystem while neoliberalisation itself is viewed as an economic project responsible for satisfying wealth creation agendas (Bakker, 2010, p. 34; Castree, 2010). It is therefore not surprising why these neoliberal agendas are advocated for by powerful nations and mega institutions to tacitly subdue less powerful nations (Hursh and Henderson, 2011). Realisation by Third World of the development inequalities that are result of neo liberalisation pushed them to seek alternative development models that are sensitive to their development priorities.

3.6 Alternative Development

The failure of mainstream development theories to achieve the intended development outcomes led development researchers to consider alternative development theories (Caricki, 2016; Agarwala and Singh, 1969; Kuznets, 1959) that capture political, social, cultural, and environmental narratives. Due to the multitude of alternative development theories, methodologies, stakeholders, implementation strategies, outcomes, and absence of a common unifying definition, alternative development cannot be labelled a paradigm. Alternative approaches cut across community empowerment (Johnson, 2005), citizen participation (Verkoren and Kamphius, 2013), green perspectives (Adapon, 2015), participatory development (World Bank, 1992), Sustainable Development (IISD, 1992; World Bank, 1997). The rise of the alternative development marked a people centred bottom-up grassroots approach to development that infused political, cultural, and social circumstances, an explicit departure from macro - economic focused development approaches. Inclusive and collective community engagement rose

to prominence in protest of private and individualistic and economic focused mainstream development (Caricki, 2016).

An alternative approach to tourism called for solutions to poverty, environmental degradation, wealth disparities between third world countries and the developed world as well as change in tourist demands by shifting from mass tourism to alternative tourism (Triarchi and Karamanis, 2017). Its emergence is tied to the negative impacts of mass tourism experienced in the 1980s that led to a rethink of the appropriate tourism development model. Mass tourism is characterised by large volumes of tourist arrivals that exceed the host population and carrying capacity of destinations. In addition, mass tourism often resulted in a situation in which the tourism industry was often controlled by exogeneous agencies that often side-lined the local people. Eadington and Smith (1992), Hermes (2006) and Scheyvens (2011) commented that unlike mass tourism alternative tourism prioritises host-guest interactions, environmental conservation, is low scale and respects local aspirations. The Alternative approach sought to swap the traditional top-down approach to tourism development for bottom-up approach to development that embraces community participation (Sharpley, 2000; Gunn, 1994). Consequently, any developmental efforts were directed from grassroots with emphasis on community focus to development and built on the argument that 'development should be people centred (Schumacher, 1974:140 as cited in Sharpley, 2000). Ecotourism, nature-based tourism, appropriate tourism, ethical tourism, and responsible tourism are some of the terms used for alternative tourism development (Wall, 2005). However, the term alternative remains contentious with no universal definition (Butler, 1992; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2008; Pearce, 1992; Sharpley, 2009; Weaver and Lawton, 2002). The characteristics of alternative tourism versus mass tourism are as given in Table 3.5 below. Alternative tourism is characterized by local control and ownership, high multiplier effects, internal linkages and minimal leakages as opposed to mass tourism.

Table 3.3: Comparison of alternative and mass tourism

<i>Characteristics</i>	Unsustainable mass tourism	Alternative Tourism
<i>Markets Segment Volume and mode Seasonality Origins</i>	• Pschocentric- midcentric • High; package tours • Distinct high and low seasons • A few dominant markets	• Allocentric-midcentric • Low; individual arrangements • No distinct seasonality • No dominant markets
<i>Attractions Emphasis Character Orientation</i>	• Highly commercialised • Generic, ‘contrived’ • Tourists only or mainly	• Moderately commercialised • Area specific, authentic • Tourists and locals
<i>Accommodation Size Spatial pattern Density Architecture Ownership</i>	• Large scale • Concentrated in tourist areas. • High density • International style, obtrusive, non-sympathetic • Nonlocal, large corporations	• Small scale • Dispersed throughout the area. • Low density • Vernacular style, unobtrusive, complementary
<i>Economic Status Role of tourism Linkages Leakages Multiplier effect</i>	• Dominates local economy. • Mainly external • Extensive • Low	• Complements existing activity. • Mainly internal • Minimal • High
<i>Regulation Control Amount Ideology Emphasis Timeframe</i>	• Nonlocal private sector • Minimal; to facilitate private sector. • Free market forces • Economic growth, profits; sector specific • Short term	• Local community • Extensive to minimise local negative impacts • Public intervention • Community stability and wellbeing • Long-term

Sources: Weaver (1988) and Gartner (1996)

Alternative tourism is loco centric and allows for participation of local communities in the tourism development processes and decision making. As a result, benefits accrue to local communities through internal linkages that are created by endogenous tourism development. Despite its popularisation over mass tourism, alternative tourism has its own pitfalls. Local

communities who are employed by large scale tourism enterprises see alternative development as an inappropriate form of development because of the paltry benefits it generates (Weaver and Lawton, 2010). In Fiji Islands for instance, employees working in large scale resorts have better working conditions and salaries than those working in small scale alternative tourism facilities (Scheyvens and Russell, 2012). In addition, in numerous community owned alternative tourism enterprises, the local elite may dominate the decision-making process in tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2010). At the same period of time that alternative development gain traction, sustainable development sprang up to counter the neo-liberal development effects.

3.7 Sustainable Tourism Development

Sustainable tourism entered mainstream discussion because of the unprecedented impacts of Mass tourism (Goosling et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2019; Hunter, 2002; Liu, 2003; Mika, 2014; Pektas, 2018; Saarinen, 2006; Weaver, 2006) in the 1980s. Between 1950 and 2007 international tourism arrivals grew from 25.3 million to 903 million generating significant revenue of US\$ 2.1 billion to 856 Billion between the same periods respectively (UNWTO, 2009). Due to the attractive revenues generated from tourism, many countries embraced it in their developmental plans to achieve their economic growth priorities. Unfortunately, in the period leading to the 1960s, the rise of packaged seaside holidays manifested itself through negative economic, cultural, and environmental impacts (Sharpley, 2010; Harrison, 2015). This prompted the emergence of a school of thought that saw tourism negative impacts as outweighing its positive benefits (Sharpley, 2010) and called for alternative development to mass tourism. Despite the absence of a consensus of what constitutes sustainability UNWTO (2001)'s conceptualisation of the concept remains instrumental to present day.

The International Union for Conservation of Natural Resources (IUCN) through its World Conservation Strategy (WCS) introduced the concept of sustainable development. It advocated for sustainability based on a trinity of social, economic, and environmental considerations. Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. In line with the above definition, Telfer and

Sharpley (2008) went on further to decompose the concept into eight principles as shown in Figure 3.1 below:

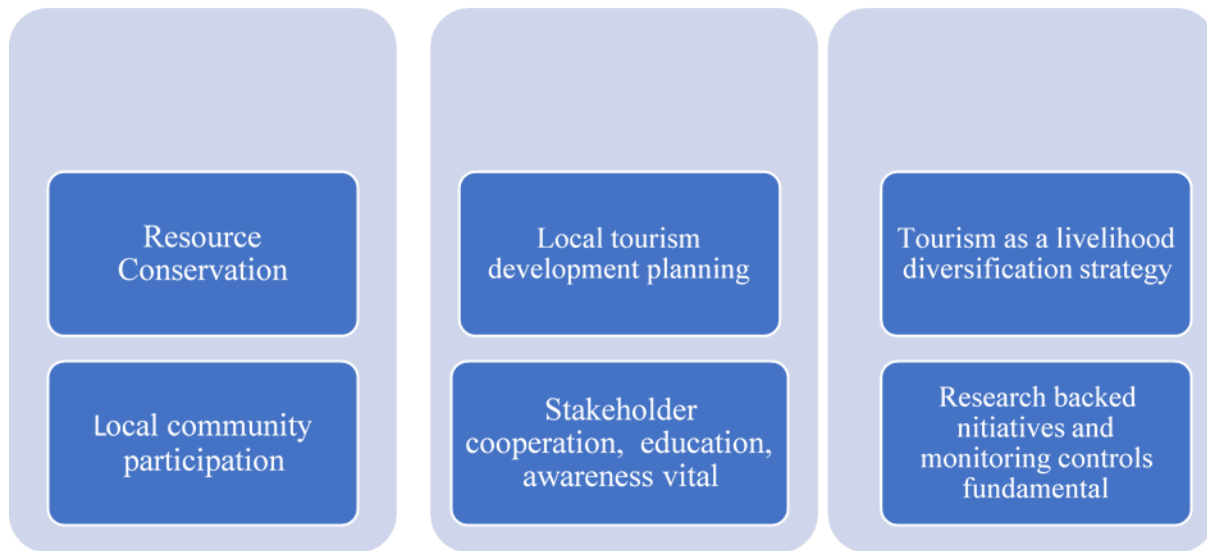


Figure 3.1: Principles of Sustainable Tourism

Source: Adapted from Telfer and Sharpley (2008)

Telfer and Sharpley (2008) identified 8 principles of Sustainable Tourism Development that have been consolidated into 6 principles because of overlaps amongst some of the principles. As shown in Figure 3.1 above, the concept of sustainability calls for conservation of natural, cultural, and social resources for future generations through multiple stakeholder participation that is supported by local tourism policies and plans (Bryd, 2007; Butler, 1999; Eckert and Pechlaner, 2019; Getz and Timur, 2012; Hall, 1998; Walligo et al., 2013; Weaver, 2006). To achieve sustainability, tourism should seek to diversify rather than seek to replace existing livelihood activities (Harrison, 2015). To track progress towards achieving sustainability objectives, robust research, appropriate measurement, and monitoring tools must be devised. Unfortunately, measurement of sustainability remains contested (Liu, 2003; McCool et al., 2001; Murphy, 1998) because of multiple interpretations of sustainable tourism and its parental paradigm sustainable development (Escabar, 1995; Fernando, 2003; Hove, 2004). Figure 3.2 shows the incongruencies between sustainable development and sustainable tourism. Lack of holistic development, poverty alleviation, reduction of environmental pollution, sustainable consumption of tourism products

and equitable distribution of tourism resources are unachievable in tourism because of its multisectoral nature (Sharpley, 2010) thus contradicting the principles and objectives of sustainable development (Liu, 2003) as presented in Figure 3.2. In addition, its prospects to engender a new form of universal harmonious development is not proved feasible (Harrison, 2015; Mika, 2015; Sharpley, 2010) due to its discipline specific focus. There is a raging debate on whether sustainable tourism should be preoccupied with incorporating sustainability in tourism development or using tourism to achieve sustainability (Hunter, 1995; Mika, 2015). Popularity of sustainable tourism is fizzling because it is a western centric development ideology like mainstream development theories that have been rejected for failing to achieve development objectives of the developing world (Ziai, 2007). Successful development initiatives should emanate from the local people and be implemented and championed by the same. Such alternatives include Community Based Tourism (CBT) and ecotourism.

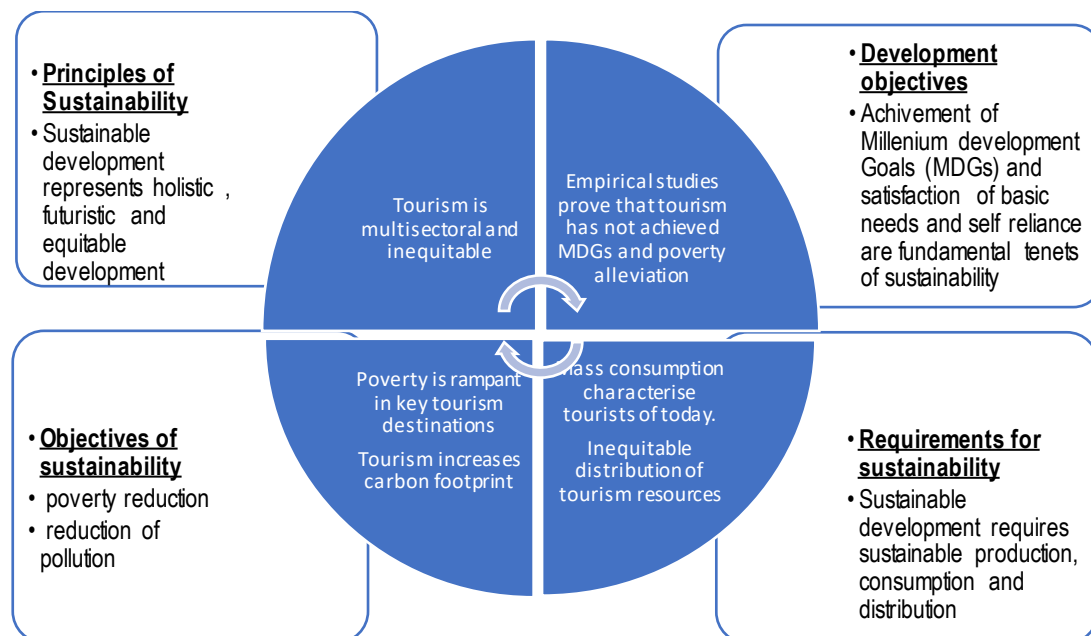


Figure 3.2: Incompatibility of Sustainable Development and Sustainable Tourism

Source: Adapted from Telfer and Sharpley (2008)

3.7.1 Community Based Tourism

Community Based Tourism (CBT) is an alternative form of tourism development that emphasises community engagement (Blackstock, 2005; Dodds and Galaski, 2018; Frenzel, 2013; Goodwill and Santilli, 2009; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017; Hall, 2010; Nagy, 2019; Nicolaides, 2020; Okazaki, 2008). The concept originated in the 1970s (Cornelissen, 2005; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012; Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2017; Giampiccoli et al., 2020; Hall & Lew, 2009; Murphy, 1985; 2004; Tashome et al., 2015) as a paradigm shift from mass to sustainable tourism, as a new dimension to community involvement in tourism, conservation, environmental development, community empowerment and rural development (Barniya et al., 2018; Giampiccoli et al., 2020; Hiwasaki, 2006; Manyara & Johnson, 2007; Novelli, 2016; Okazaki, 2008; Strydom and Mangope, 2018; Tamir, 2015). CBT was promoted to complement a decline in agricultural productivity in rural areas and as a replacement of exploitative exogeneous developments characterised by high revenue leakages from established rural tourism destinations (Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2018; Nicolaides, 2020). Despite the popularity of the concept, Flacke-Naurdofer (2008), Ndlovu and Rogerson, (2003), Trejos and Chiang (2009) and Giampiccoli and Saayman, (2017) agree that no universal definition for CBT exists and as a result implementation, monitoring and measurement of its outcomes are difficult. To add to this complexity, CBT initiatives are either wholly owned by the community or jointly owned by the community and a private sector partner (Giampiccoli and Mtapuria, 2020; Teshome et al., 2020; Zielinski et al., 2020) thus calling for different participation mechanisms. Despite several researchers being at odds apropos the meaning of CBT, a working definition of CBT captures it as a long term local tourism initiative (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Reed, 1997) cooperatively managed (Baniya et al., 2018; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012; Mbaiwa, 2003; Nyaupane et al., 2006) to improve community well-being (Rodgerson and Ndlovu, 2004) which aims to diversify livelihoods (Nelson, 2003; Zapata et al., 2011) regardless of its location, size and wealth levels (Nagy and Segui, 2019). Proponents of CBT view locally positioned tourism development as the panacea to positive economic, social, cultural, and environmental benefits (Lapeyre, 2010; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008).

Several countries in Africa take advantage the benefits of CBTs by developing policies and frameworks that support its implementation. The South African Government for instance

passed a legislation to compel all tourism industry players to include communities in tourism planning processes (Nierkerk, 2014). Zimbabwe drew up a Community-Based Tourism Master Plan that guides the development of community run tourism ventures in the country in view of harnessing benefits that accrue from it. Closely related to community Based Tourism is Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE) which is concerned with travel to areas with natural attractions excluding urban areas, and which contribute to environmental conservation and livelihoods diversification (Nelson, 2004).

Just like CBT, CBE also found its way into mainstream literature in the 1980s when sustainable environmental management and growth in enviro-centric tourists gained momentum (Diamantis, 1999; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Despite its popularisation, its definitions are also numerous and in constant metamorphosis (BjoÈrnp, 1990; Cheia, 2013; Donohoe and Needham, 2006; Fennel, 2001; Reimer and Walter, 2013; Teichmann and Pieters, 2015; Weaver, 2004; Wall and Tao, 1999), with Fennel (2001) presenting 85 ecotourism definitions. In the period stretching from the 1980s-2000, ecotourism definitions were devoid of the social dimension and its connection with communities. Realising this gap, Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) then went on to define it as environmentally responsible, enlightening travel to moderately undisturbed natural areas to enjoy and appreciate nature, promote conservation, that has low visitor impact, and provides socio-economic benefits to participating local communities (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2014; Teshome et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the definition was also challenged for circumventing tourism impacts and sustainability (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). A better definition was then presented by The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) (2012), where ecotourism was defined as a type of responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people. Even today, the search for a better definition persists because TIES's definition neglects issues of equity, benefits sharing, ownership and control of tourism by the local people for the local people (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Considering the current status quo, Donohoe and Needham (2006), Postica and Cardoso, (2014) and Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2019) revealed that lack of a common ecotourism definition is the reason for poor quality ecotourism experiences, inappropriate management controls and missing linkages between ecotourism and other forms of tourism (Fennel, 2002; 2003; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019). Consequently,

ecotourism expresses itself in varied forms (Donohoe and Needham, 2006; Ross and Wall, 1999) some of which are self-destructive (Tsaur et al., 2006).

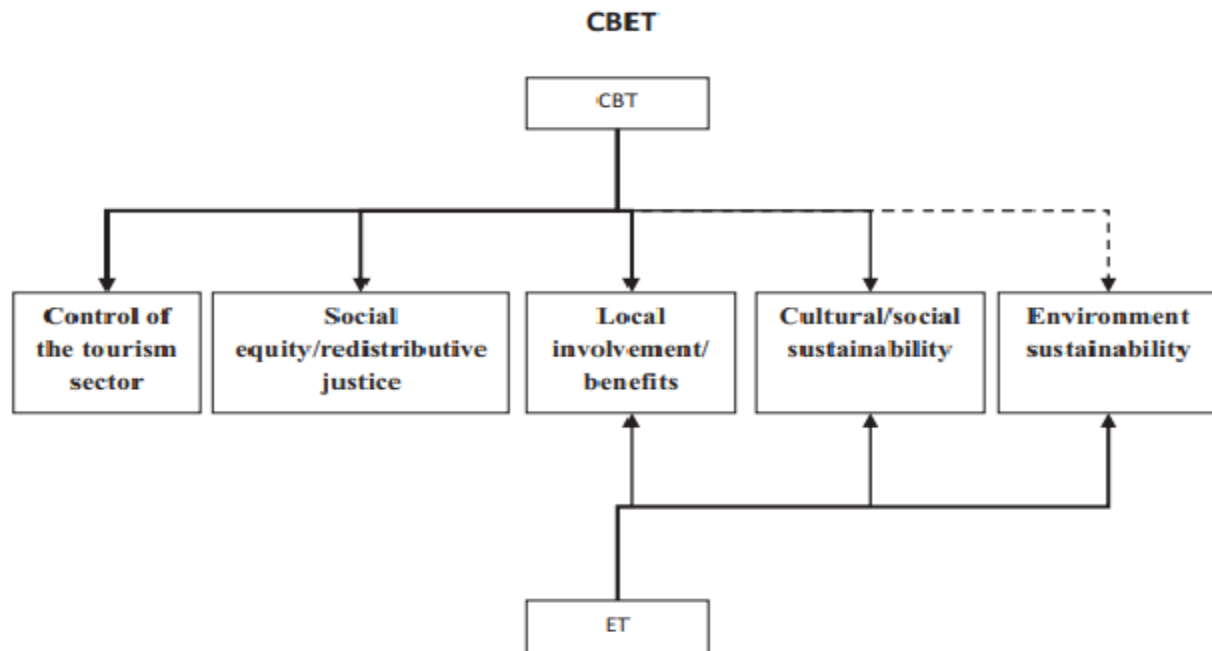


Figure 3.3: Relationship between ecotourism and community-based tourism

Source: Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2019)

For this discussion, ecotourism integrates travel, conversation and local participation which has been devoid in many developing countries (Che, 2006; Jalani, 2012, Leksakundilok, 2004; Tsaur et al., 2006). Overtime, predictions are that ecotourism will develop into mass tourism (Ross and Wall, 1999; Diamantis, 1999) because of its market driven capitalistic orientation (Leksandilok, 2004) and green washing activities by many tourism and hospitality operators.

In summary, Community Based Ecotourism (CBE), can be defined as a combination of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) and ecotourism (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2019) as shown in Figure 3.3. The major thrust of CBT is local control of the tourism sector, achievement of social equity and realisation of tourism benefits that while ecotourism is pre-occupied with local involvement in tourism development as well as cultural and environmental sustainability CBE is proposed as a development model for Chitomborwizi East because it holistically captures the fundamental tenets of sustainable utilisation of tourism resources while at the same time realising

economic prosperity. Chitomborwizi is a farming area that is laden with abundant natural resources which when managed sustainably can bring socio-economic, cultural, and environmental benefits through local ownership of tourism enterprises which results in retention of significant tourism benefits. In as much as CBT has been hailed for the benefits that it generates, it confronted with numerous challenges.

3.7.1.1 Low Income and Job Generation Potential

CBE is associated with low income and job generation potential, overreliance on donor funding, dominance of operations by local elites and lack of business acumen among community members (Zapata et al., 2011). The later view was substantiated by Gason (2013), Mbaiwa (2013), Sebele (2010) and Takele (2019) who cited lack entrepreneurship and managerial skills as reasons for failure of Community Based Ecotourism institutions. Poor work ethics as lamented by Balint and Mashinya (2006) is the reason financial records at Mahenye Safari Lodge in Zimbabwe went unaudited for years. Financial misappropriation by some community trust members was also reported for the same period. Therefore, success is also rooted in the poor community's commitment to transparent management processes.

3.7.1.2 Organisation for CBE Management

CBE executes its mandate while embedded in a traditional patriarchal management structure. Conflicts arise when traditional authorities encroach territories of the former to make critical decisions that affect operations of CBEs despite not having the relevant capabilities. This scenario is mirrored in Japan where local communities are side lined from decision making by state organs at Ogasawara, Yaku and Nikko National Parks (Hiwasaki, 2006). To make matters worse, local communities residing near the parks have no access to employment opportunities despite withstanding the worst of crop and livestock destruction by wild animals. Ioannides (1995)'s study of the Akmas of Cyprus, established that conflict between the government and local people delayed the establishment of a national park because the later accused the government of imposing development. Blackstock (2005) claimed that social dynamics, unbalanced economic relations between private sector and local communities militate against success of CBEs.

Devolution of authority is fundamental to the success of Community-Based Ecotourism. Therefore, Chitomborwizi East Ward community must be given authority to manage tourism ventures while the government plays a key supportive role. Genuine commitment to devolution of authority is fundamental to the success of CBE projects. In as much as authority is ceded from the central government to communities, heterogeneity, and an imbalance in accessing tourism opportunities (Timothy, 2002) continues to stifle the growth of community tourism ventures.

3.7.1.3 Community Heterogeneity

Homogeneous communities are a rarity and therefore equitable stakeholder participation is a nonentity in many CBE projects (Iorio and Corsale, 201; Juma and Vidor, 2019; Tosun, 2000). In Peru's Taquile Island four out of nineteen collectively owned tourist boats and only one out ten communally run restaurants remained operational (Mitchell and Johnson, 2008) because the community lacked a common vision in running the ventures. Failure of CBEs compromises the achievement of poverty alleviation objectives. To address homogeneity concerns, Juma and Vidor (2019) and Tosun (2000) called for categorisation of community members beyond geographical boundaries to encompass subdivisions of gender, age, birthplace, and education level. Given the diversity of the farming community under study, due consideration must be given to further inclusivity and participation of community members in all respects. Inequity is evident at Mutema Ecotourism Conservancy in South Eastern Zimbabwe where only well-connected community members accessed job opportunities at the conservancy (Mawere and Mubaya, 2012) whereas at Mahenye Safari Lodge the Village leadership reserved employment opportunities for their kinship (Balint and Mashinya, 2006). At Tsaro Community Lodge run by the Kwai Development Trust in Botswana local natives are relegated to mere labourers for perform menial jobs (Mbaiwa, 2013). This supports the view by Forstner (2004) that poor households rarely benefit from tourism. In Mahenye, elite members of the community use undemocratic means to retain positions in the trust that manages the CBE which often leads to disgruntlement community members. Apart from challenges of community heterogeneity and inequitable participation, financial challenges impede the success of many CBE projects.

3.7.1.4 Financial Challenges

Financial challenges hamper the development of CBEs of many African countries. In Botswana funding from Agency for Cooperation in Research and development, Conservation International, People and Nature Trust (Mbaiwa, 2013) is reason for the success stories of community-based ecotourism projects in the country. However, the reverse is true in Zimbabwe, where principal donor agencies supporting community tourism ventures such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID) pulled out the country citing poor governance, corruption, and political instability. Ashley et al. (2010), Mitchell and Johnson (2008) and Pro-poor partnership (2010) agreed that tourism has potential to alleviate poverty, but CBE is not the answer since it fails to link local people to mainstream tourism activities. These same sentiments were echoed by Lucchetti (2013) who pointed out that lack of commercial viability and integration of communities into mainstream tourism as the reason Siecoya CBE in Ecuador generated US\$ 200 for a period of 9 years (Fabian, 2013; Goodwin, 2009; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Mitchell and Johnson, 2008; Mitchell and Murkosy, 2009). Sebele (2010) revealed that Khama Rhino Sanctuary in Botswana generates revenue that is sufficient to cover only operational costs. Lack of financial sustainability derails efforts made by destinations to harness the potential of CBEs to contribution to poverty alleviation.

To deal with the financial constraints, pro-poor tourism advocates suggest access to mainstream tourism markets as a solution to construction of meaningful livelihoods (Calanog et al., 2012; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Goodwin, 2009; Hall, 2007; Mitchell and Ashley, 2010; Mitchell and Muckosoy, 2008; Muller and Janson, 2011). However, lack of business intelligence especially in marketing (Silva and McDill, 2010; Coria and Calfucura, 2012; Michell and Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin, 2009; Weaver et al., 1996) throttle the success of CBTs. Wuleka (2012) and Watkin (2002) identified lack of market access, commercial viability, fluctuating demand, and inadequate finance as major setbacks to the success of CBEs at Sirigu Ecotourism Art and Pottery Project in Ghana and Buhoma Rest Camp in Uganda. To address the marketing pitfalls Community Based Ecotourism associations in Namibia and Uganda engage in cooperative marketing (Forstner, 2004). To gain access to mainstream tourism markets CBE ventures may also partner with private sector partners to access markets without developing intentions to exploit

local communities (Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012). Therefore, it is on this basis that CBE's contribution to poverty alleviation remains contested and unachievable as long as tourist markets are inaccessible.

3.7.1.5 Land Tenure Issues

Lack of access to land tenure often constrains the development of many ecotourism ventures. In the Mapu Lahual National Park in Chile, the local communities are sceptical to engage in ecotourism for fear of being dispossessed from the land by the government and private companies (Coria and Calfucura, 2012). Such dispossession may lead to loss of access to natural resources that are fundamental to the construction of livelihoods (Forstner, 2004). In Zimbabwe, all land belongs to the state and communities are leased to use land for CBE initiatives. In these circumstances, communities are unable to use security of land tenure to access funding for developmental purposes.

For many decades, sustainable tourism in all its alternative remained has remained contested concept. This was evident in the development impasse of 2000 that emphasised the need to reconsider how development is conceptualised because poverty and inequality gaps continued to widen. In this vein, opponents of the mainstream development agenda called for post development ideologies that are hoped to address shortfalls of mainstream trajectories. Given the fact that mainstream development has failed, it would not be prudent to develop tourism based on mainstream development fundamentals. A fresh to post development approaches, will be pursued in recommending tourism development initiatives that are sensitive to local circumstances in Chitomborwizi East. It is not worthwhile to pursue failed mainstream development approaches.

3.8 Alternatives to Development/ Post-Development

Mainstream development view Eurocentric norms as standards of achieving development. Deviation from established norms represents underdevelopment. Despite popularisation of capitalistic development, its success has remained questionable. As a result, proponents of mainstream development to grudgingly acknowledge its shortfalls but consider them as mistakes that represent an opportune time to reformulate the development process. Due to failure of

supporters to holistically concede the failure of mainstream development approaches, the world is left in the hope that development will be achieved using the current approaches. Since mainstream development failed to achieve development objectives, post development scholars rose to prominence to challenge mainstream development thinking. This post development paradigm deconstructed mainstream development by bringing a counter-ideology that objects a universal pathway to development (Ziai, 2017) as prescribed by mainstream protagonists. It dislodged economic focus from being at the core of development since development is a multidimensional phenomenon (Ospina and Masullo-Jimenez, 2017; Ziai, 2017). In reinforcing their worldview, Alternatives to development scholars vie for a steady state of economy (Daly, 2015), new economy (Klein, 2014), degrowth (Andriotis, 2014; D'Alisa et al., 2014; Gerber and Martinez-Alier, 2019; Kallis and Bakker, 2019; Paulson, 2017) and post growth (Dobson, 2014) as the means to development. Reduced production and consumerism to avoid unsustainable resource exploitation appear as the major fundamentals of their scholarly work. In as much as this pathway to development has gained momentum over the past decades, it has also been subject to heavy criticism.

Critiques of post development are adamant the mainstream development adds value to human existence by increasing lifespan through use of modern medical technologies (Zaia, 2017). In addition, they dismiss the assumption that communities prefer primitivity over modernisation, as paternalistic tendencies by post development proponents. In this regard, post development inherits lack of pluralism just like mainstream development approaches that define growth as a universal capitalistic pathway (Hickel and Kallis, 2019; Zaia, 2017). It is this hegemonic that alternatives to developments exponents reject because development cannot be packaged into a single approach. In tabling this supposition, post development theorists display political agnosticism because they do not to table the process (Zaia, 2017; Gudynas, 2013) of achieving post development. However, their argument is that providing a sequence of action would lead the newfound ideology being co-optation into the pitfalls of mainstream development. This is done to avert reformulation of mainstream development theories. Alternatives to development subscribes to non-capitalistic values, communal ownership, and respect for the environment to drive contemporary development agenda (Milano et al., 2019; Zaia, 2017). The theory of alternatives to

development is relatively in its infancy in tourism despite having made significant inroads in other disciplines. In the field of tourism, it is gaining traction because of over tourism.

Over tourism also referred to as antitourism or tourism phobia gained momentum in the past five years (Ali, 2016; Butler, 2018; Dickinson, 2018a; Dods and Butler, 2019; Fletcher and Rammelt, 2017; Hickel and Kallis, 2019; Milano et al., 2019; Milano, 2017(a), 2017(b)). Researchers suggest that over tourism arose when tourism was put at the centre of global economic recovery processes post 2008 economic recession (Clarke and Nyaupane, 2020). 'Over tourism is the acceleration and growth of tourism supply and demand, the use of tourism destinations' natural ecological goods, the destruction of their cultural attractions, and negative impacts on their social and economic environment (Mihalic, 2020, p. 1).

Just like other forms of tourism, over tourism lack definitional consensus (Dodds and Butler, 2019; Gretzel, 2019). Over tourism is rampant at Mt Everest in Nepal, Manchu Pichu in Peru, and Venice in Italy where destruction of the environment, heritage and social resources has become common place despite claims that tourism in these places is sustainable (Bramwell *et al.*, 2017; Butler, 2018; Goosling and Peeters, 2015; Mowforth and Munt, 2016; Nyaupane, 2015; Timothy, 2011; Gonzalez, 2018). Sustainable tourism remains unachievable due to growth focused tourism strategies and the multiple interpretations of sustainability (Butler, 2018; Dodds and Butler, 2019). Faced with the predicament of over tourism, post development pundits call for a restructuring of the global and local tourism structures to achieve capital deaccumulation, preserve environmental and social resources and promote a communal tourism approach to development (Andriotis, 2014; Everingham and Chassagne, 2020; Fletcher et al., 2020; Zaia, 2017). To this end, environmentally friendly transportation, antimaterialism, reduced industrialisation and increased participation and beneficiation for local communities is crucial. Pro- economic growth stratagems that perpetuate capitalistic accumulation should be disbanded in preference for post development growth trajectories. Indeed, small scale community-based ecotourism that sincerely promotes community ownership and participation in tourism development while at the same time reducing material consumption will give way to transition from capital accumulation to post development. It is in these aspects that sustainable tourism

development has failed only for it to end up as a reformation of capitalistic models rather than a novel approach to development through degrowth models (Chassagne, 2018).

Degrowth implies a shift from hyper globalisation and mass consumerism (Everingham and Chassagne, 2020). The outbreak of COVID-19 caused by man's increasing and unsustainable extractive environmental activities is the reason for the involuntary growth being experienced globally now. Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) and Everingham and Chassagne (2020) consider the pandemic's induced degrowth a powerful signal to abandon Euro-centric capitalistic models of development to post development models that care for the environment and individual well-being (LaTouche, 2012; Whitehead, 2013). In Latin America, political model of Buen Vivir (BV) (good living) (Fisher, 2019) derived from the Latin America ancestral philosophy of Sumak Kaway (satisfaction with life and harmony with Pachamama (Mother Earth) (Avarez, 2015; Gudynas, 2013; Monni and Pallotino, 2015a, 2015b) is being supported to replace mainstream development methods. The concept disavows anthropocentrism in preferences for ecocentrism that is guided by cosmovision (Monni and Pallotino, 2015a, 2015b) in its attempt to safeguard political, social, and economic progress that respects indigenous values. Unlike SD BV focuses on bottom up plurastic development approaches that seek to achieve reciprocity between nature and the environment. Advocates of the concept voice for environmental and social justice and community participation in decision making (Friant and Langmore, 2015). SD is embedded in a top-down capitalistic development models that affords little respect to communities (Chassagne, 2018; Masala and Monni, 2017). Figure 3.4 below shows the simplified model of Bien Vivir by Chassagne (2018) which is based on social, spiritual, and material dimensions. Core social principles are grounded on the shared and equitable ideals that respect multiple perspectives of wellbeing and non-linear development pathways. The spiritual dimension advocates for reciprocal sustainable use of natural resources between men and the environment as well as consideration of local cultural values. The material dimension seeks to contextualise well-being livelihood outcomes and quality of life capabilities. Its emphasis is that well-being is not accomplished through exponential economic growth models that destroy the environment, exacerbate poverty and inequalities. Notwithstanding, its limited global application, it has been successfully applied

successful in tourism development in Bhutan and Equador (Chassagne and Everingham, 2019; Karst, 2017; Renkert, 2019).

Nowhere in Africa has BV been applied in the context of tourism development contexts. This research therefore seeks to develop rural tourism BV to circumvent the undesirable impacts of mainstream tourism development models. Tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward must be developed by adopting a bottom-up approach that valorises the environment and the local community participation. Development remains contested worldwide particularly in Africa where the concept of development originated outside Africa. Development is viewed as an attempt by the Western world to exploit the global South of its resources. In the case of tourism, multinational companies siphon tourism resources from the underdeveloped world in pursuing their neoliberal agendas. Apart from the exploitative acts perpetrated by the Western world, poor infrastructure, lack of funding, political instability, and shortage of the skilled labour force are some of the factors that militate against tourism development. As a result, rural CBE often fail to accomplish the laid out developmental objectives because tourism enablers are often absent.

Alternative development sought to change the development narrative by moving aloft from mainstream development that was subjected to criticism for failing to realise global development objectives. Alternative development approaches continue to emphasize economic growth, a clear sign that alternative development ideologies were co-opted into mainstream development thinking to further the capitalist interests of communities (Ospina and Masullo-Jimenez, 2016; Zaia, 2017). Incorporation of political, social, and environmental factors in alternative development is an attempt to conceal a new way of capital accumulation by Western hegemonic powers. Sustainable development at inception favoured a steady state of economic growth that was replaced by capitalistic tendencies that used environmental considerations to canvas their increased desire for capital accumulation. Therefore, structural changes that were anticipated from alternative development options were assimilated into mainstream development paradigms (Ospina and Masullo-Jimenez, 2017). Therefore, the economic oriented development paradigm remains in existence.

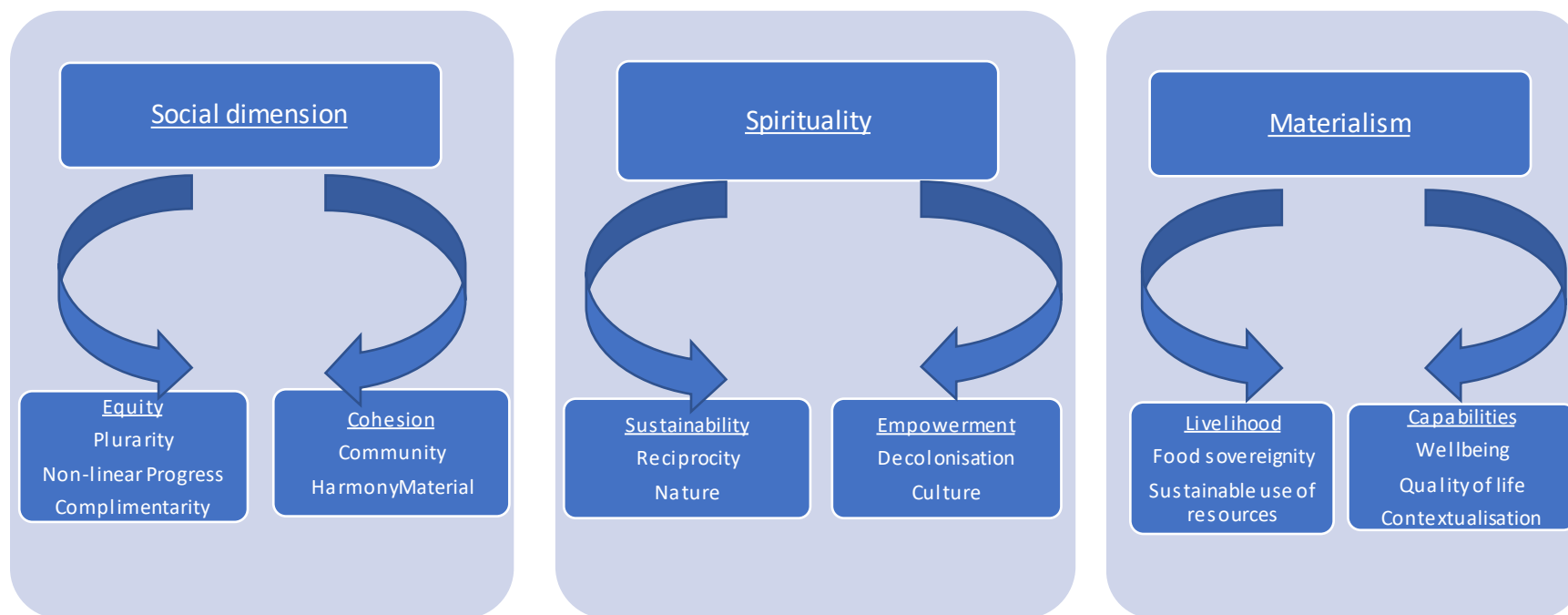


Figure 3.4: Principles of Bien Vivir

Source: Chassagne (2018)

In recognition of the failure of mainstream development to achieve acceptable level of development in the Third World, a development impasse led to call for alternatives to development that are ecocentric and community centred. This move is a response to do away with the undesirable effects of capitalism that have been proven without doubt not to advance the interests of developing countries. In Chitomborwizi East ward, tourism development should be based on post development modelling rather attempting to plan tourism development using failed mainstream tourism development ideologies. A new route pro-poor tourism development embedded in post development models needs to be followed in the developing world. In light of this, Simpson (2008, p. 2) decried that ‘Community Based Tourism provides no room for identifying the poor.’ A review of current CBE models is critical to embed post development thinking. Therefore, tourism development in Chitomborwizi East will be developed based on contemporary ecocentric trends that advocates for respect of the environment and a communal approach to development that is not guided by economic growth propelled models.

3.9 Chapter Summary

The chapter focused on mainstream development theories such as modernisation, dependency, neo-liberalisation, alternative and sustainability. Modernisation despite the benefits it brought, is associated with mass tourism and its negative social-cultural, environmental and economic impacts. As a result of the unwanted impacts dependency theorists sprang up to challenge modernisation because underdevelopment in the Third World was associated with exploitative metropolitan centres that drew resources from the peripheries of the developing world. In tourism this is exhibited by foreign domination of ownership of tourism businesses which results in income leakages. In this regard modernisation did not achieve the expected development. In response to failed modernisation approach to development, a neo-liberal approach emerged which advocated for promotion of privatisation and roll back of state to an enabler in economic development.

Again, this approach increased inequality and poverty in developing countries because it led to increased capital accumulation and a collapse of domestic production. The neo-liberal approaches were enforced through SAPs which were associated with conditional aid and a decline

in macro-economic conditions. Confronted with a failed neo-liberal approach, alternative development became the buzzword to champion to new forms of development that would regress capital accumulation.

These represented small scale indigenous owned developments that command environmental stewardship. Alternative development then mutated into sustainable development which set to define development as a process that satisfies economic, environmental, and socio-cultural considerations. However, the euphoria associated with sustainability has faded away because the concept lacks a universal definition which often results in disparities in its conceptualisation and application. Unfortunately, sustainable tourism development was co-opted into mainstream development thinking because it continues to be a concept embedded in economic growth led models of development.

Having reached a development impasse in 2000, post development approaches have rekindled optimism to achievement of development in Third World countries through ecocentric communal led development routes. These alternatives to development models are challenged for assuming that developing countries what to remain in their traditional states. In recognising community diversity, we cannot rule out preference for modernity by a section of the developing world. Therefore, alternative to development is sought in Chitomborwizi Ward to avoid mainstream tourism development models that have been proven to be unsuccessful.

CHAPTER

TOURISM AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION

4.1 Introduction

The chapter focuses on the link between tourism and poverty alleviation. Pro-poor tourism is defined as tourism that results in net benefits to the poor (Godara et al., 2021; DFID, 1999; Scheyvens, 2007; Goodwin, 2009). Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) theory was developed in response to failed mainstream development theories such as modernisation and neo-liberalisation that exacerbated poverty and inequalities in the developed world. In Chapters 1 and 3 the evolution of the concept was traced from its origins in the 1990s to present day. This chapter acknowledges the wide theoretical conceptualisation of PPT, even though its application in practice is limited. Ashley et al.(2007) said tourism contributes 60-70% of earnings through value chains in many developing countries. Value chain analysis emerges as the key to identifying opportunities that the poor could harness in tourism. Mixed reactions towards pro-poor tourism are explored at length to establish the pros and cons of the concept. The chapter is wrapped up by a concise summary of key tenets of pro-poor tourism.

4.2 Pro-Poor Tourism Defined

Tourism is a foreign currency earner in 83% of the developing world (World Watch Institute, 2001; and Spenceley and Meyer, 2012). Due to tourism's income earning potential, many believe in its potential to contribute to poverty alleviation (Mitchell and Faal, 2007; Spenceley and Meyer, 2012and). Therefore, tourism aids poor countries to achieve their Millennium Development Goals (Honey and Gilpin, 2009; UNWTO, 2006). Additionally, tourism benefits marginalised groups in society as in the case of Costa Rica women's handicraft cooperatives which have improved women's livelihoods (Honey and Gilpin, 2009). Neto (2003) opined that pro-poor tourism is characterised by:

- Providing opportunities for employment and entrepreneurship as well as building the capacities of the poor
- Managing the negative impacts of tourism
- Advocating policies and institutions that promote pro-poor growth.

As shown in Figure 4.1 below, pro-poor tourism recognizes the poor and focuses on the net gains that accrue to the poor by assessing value chains. It must also be understood that pro-poor tourism is not a form of tourism and neither is it anticapitalistic. Its focus is on the identification of opportunities where the poor can benefit.

Spenceley and Meyer (2012) were of the view the poor normally benefit from tourism expenditure on accommodation, excursions, food, drinks and shopping by the tourists. This therefore confirms the notion that pro-poor tourism unlocks economic opportunities for the poor to improve their livelihoods. Despite numerous benefits that come with tourism, it is subject to shocks such as pandemics, terrorist attacks and economic recessions. Fortunately, the tourism industry is resilient, as is evidenced by its recovery from pandemics such as Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) and terrorist bombings in destinations such as Mumbai, Bali, Sharm el Sheikh, Dahab, Mombasa, and Casablanca (Honey and Gilpin, 2009).

Mitchell and Ashley (2007) reiterated that despite the widely held view that tourism benefits rural communities only about a third of tourism turnover reaches the poor people. Pro-poor tourism potential may be exaggerated. In Costa Rica, communities in some major tourism destinations such as Guanacaste live in abject poverty (GTZ, 2007). These empirical findings undermine tourism's pro-poor potential. Consequently, responsible authorities should develop and implement pro-poor policies that are sympathetic to the poor, promote participation of the poor and develop pro-poor partnerships that include the government and private sector. Removal of constraints to the poor's participation in tourism is another key goal that needs to be achieved.

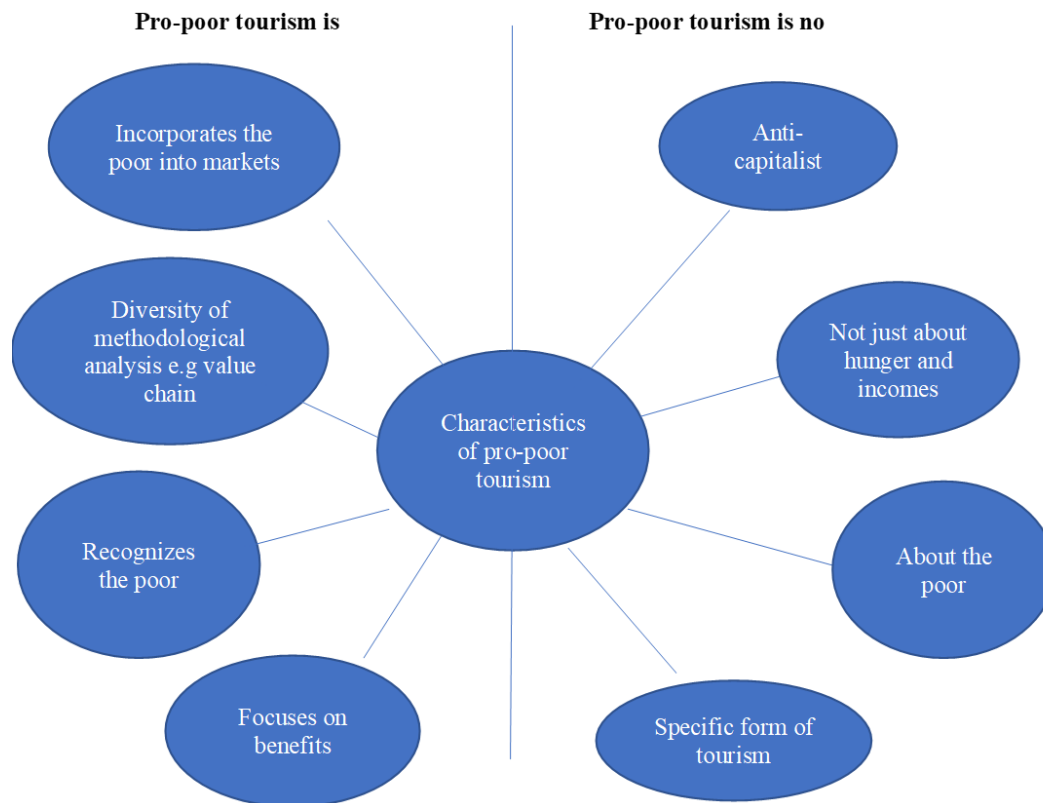


Figure 4.1: Characteristics of Pro-Poor Tourism

Source: Adapted from Rodgerson (2006:44)

4.3 Pro-Poor Tourism and its Contestations

In the 1950s tourism was identified as a strategy to modernize underdeveloped states through generation of employment and entrepreneurial opportunities, and to uplift living standards of rural communities (Scheyvens, 2014; Scheyvens, 2007; Sharpley, 2002). In the 1960s, doubts emerged about the potential of tourism to contribute to poverty alleviation (Spenceley and Meyer, 2012and; Scheyvens, 2014). It is at this time that tourism was criticised for its tendency to perpetuate dependency and inequalities between the developed and developing countries. Transnational tourism companies caused unbalanced development between the North and the South of the globe. As time progressed, the 1970s and 1980s witnessed the emergence of neoliberalism which supported privatisation and promotion of free market forces. As the new millennium approached, it became apparent that neoliberalisation was not a panacea for Third

World development and therefore a shift in thinking became necessary. As a result, tourism and poverty alleviation began to gain prominence (Spenceley and Meyer, 2012and; Scheyvens, 2014; Britton, 1982). Development of pro-poor tourism can be traced back to the 1990s when the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's global code of ethics emphasised tourism's contribution to poverty alleviation (Scheyvens, 2014). Later in 1999, the Department for International Aid's paper on tourism and poverty alleviation that was presented at the Commission on Sustainable Development session called for maximization of pro-poor tourism benefits by creating employment and entrepreneurship opportunities (Harold and Goodwin, 2008). To buttress the previous initiatives on pro-poor tourism, the Department for International Development (DFID) further sanctioned a report, Sustainable Tourism and Poverty Elimination, which scrutinised DFID's development initiatives on pro-poor tourism. According to Goodwin (1998) the Sustainable Tourism and Poverty Elimination report spelled out the need to:

- Facilitate access to tourist markets by local communities
- Maximize local linkages and reduce leakages of income from revenue repatriated from the local economy and imports purchased outside the economy
- Complement existing livelihood strategies by creating tourism employment and entrepreneurship opportunities.

The report in essence marked the birth of the Pro-poor Tourism concept (Harold and Goodwin, 2008). Pro-poor tourism has potential to generate pro-poor growth because of its size, huge labour demands, its potential for economic linkages and export opportunities in countries with fewer economic options (Sustainable Tourism and Poverty Elimination Study, 1999). DFID, (1999); the United Nations World Tourism Organization, (2002); Truong et al. (2014) and Spenceley and Meyer (2012) affirmed that tourism has poverty alleviation potential due to the fact that:

- Tourism consumption and production is simultaneous. As a result, opportunities for entrepreneurs to capitalise on local linkages abound.
- Tourism depends on the natural capital resources which are owned by the poor such as wildlife and culture
- Tourism is *more labour intensive* than other productive sectors

- There is a *greater uptake of jobs by women, the poor and unskilled* when compared to other sectors of the economy. In Bolivia, for example, more than 60 per cent of women are employed in the tourism industry
- Tourism is a much *more diverse industry* than many others and can build upon a wide resource base that can benefit the poor.

To harness the pro-poor tourism potential, availability of credit facilities and tourism training are important in diversification of livelihoods through tourism (Goodwin, 1998). Once the above requirements are met, tourism will be able to contribute to poverty alleviation of marginalized rural communities. Figure 4.2 below shows the benefits. Pro-poor tourism offers local people a chance to participate in decision making that influences their livelihoods. The poor, who are often side-lined from developmental initiatives that impact their lives, are prioritised on the basis that development should begin from grassroots level. Capacity building and training of local communities in countless areas of tourism development facilitates self-reliance which is one of the key precepts of pro-poor tourism. Therefore, pro-poor tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward is likely to generate similar benefits for the farming community that is living in abject poverty.

The unspoilt environment where the rural poor reside is a tourism attraction. Paradoxically, in these natural resource-laden environments, hosts often lack access to basic infrastructure, sanitation, health facilities and schools (Scheyvens, 2014) while tourists have full access to all amenities. Other pro-poor tourism critiques are of the view that mainstream tourism lacks poverty alleviation potential because of foreign domination, high income leakages and fewer linkages with the local economy.

There are claims that all forms of mainstream tourism benefit the poor but there is little evidence of this in practice (Vijayakumar, 2009). Community Based Tourism, Ecotourism, Conservancy and Responsible Tourism that are precursors of pro-poor tourism were erroneously labelled as pro-poor (Staritz and Reis, 2013). These types of tourism primarily focus on wildlife conservation at the community's expense. Genuine pro-poor tourism emphasises individual household beneficiation (DFID, 1999). Unfortunately, this is often untrue in many cases, for example, in Kenya, where Community Based Tourism (CBT) offers benefits that are communal

rather than individual (Manyara and Jones, 2007). When benefits trickle to individual households' communities are convinced that indeed tourism can be pro-poor and lead to transformation of their lives.

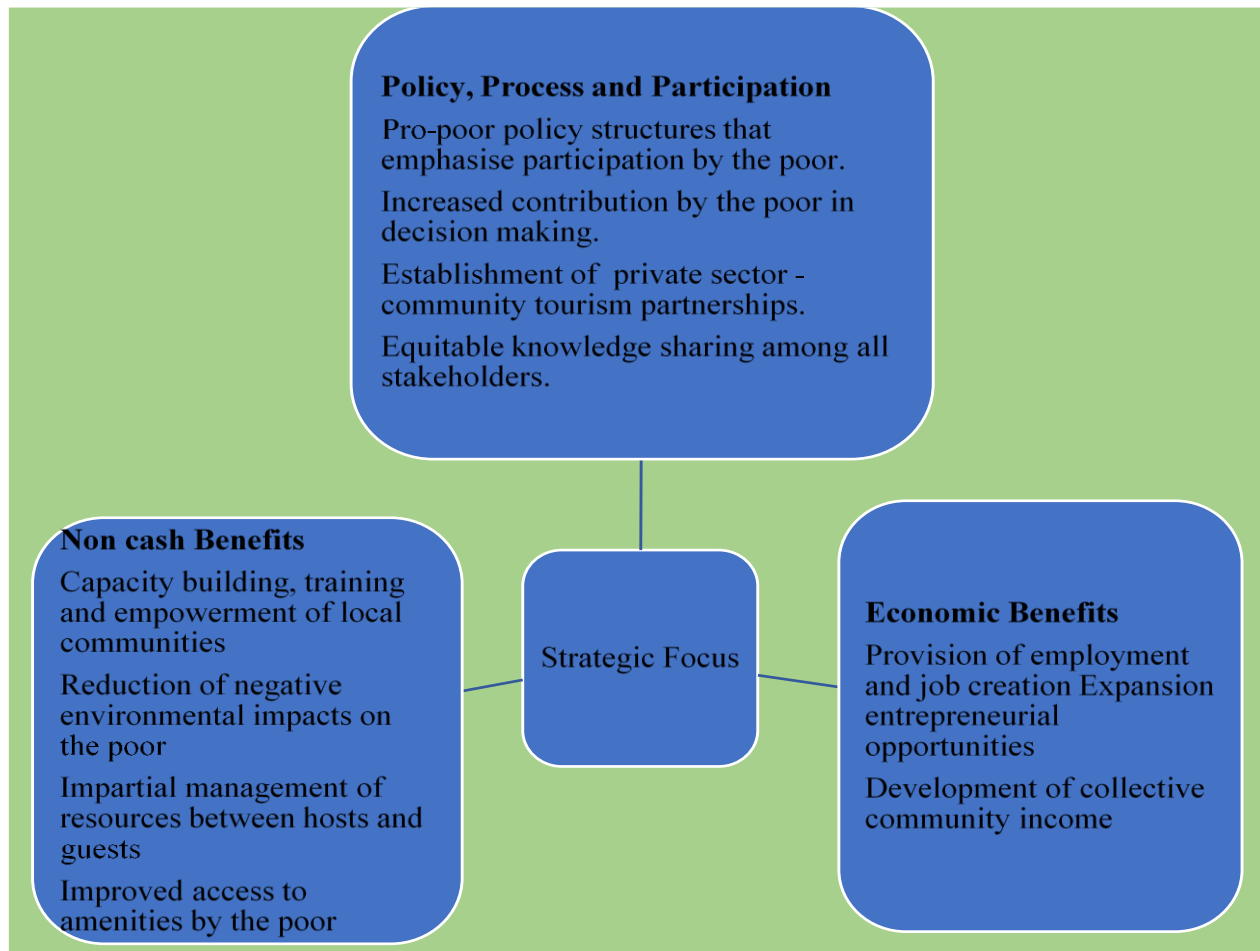


Figure 4.2: Benefits of Pro-Poor Tourism

Source: Ashley (2002, p.2)

The strategic focus of pro-poor tourism is community participation in tourism development with the intention to reap non-cash and economic benefits. Non-cash benefits include economic empowerment of locals to manage their own resources and improved access to better social amenities. Economic benefits include employment creation and entrepreneurship that provides revenues to communities, expansion of business opportunities and increased multiplier effects in rural areas (Croes and Rivera, 2016; Briedenhann, 2011). Unfortunately, pro-poor tourism is rooted in neo-liberal principles that open up even small community enterprises to the effects of

globalisation that may not necessarily be favourable to poverty reduction. This is as a result of the fact that pro-poor community enterprises are subjected to the competitive nature of capital-intensive multinational corporations that have higher bargaining power and control the tourism supply chain (Schilcher, 2007). He goes further to state that pro-poor tourism is no different from existing development theories. It has simply been repackaged to align existing mainstream development paradigms. In fact, pro-poor tourism has exacerbated poverty and inequalities because its existence is rooted in neoliberal perspectives that champion privatisation and liberalisation of markets. Schilcher (2007) goes further to reveal that pro-poor tourism is promoted by Non-Governmental Organisations and Multinational Corporations since it fits in the neoliberal principles of deregulation and privatisation of markets. Therefore, pro-poor tourism advocates are simply advocating for pro-poor tourism in disguise of neoliberalisation by paying attention to the trickle-down effects of tourism. It has also been highlighted that pro-poor tourism extends beyond mere trickle-down effects of mainstream tourism to open opportunities for the poor (DFID, 1999).

Tourism is an activity that can contribute to poverty alleviation (Godara et al., 2021; DFID, 1999; Scheyvens, 2007; Goodwin, 2009). It must be emphasised that pro-poor tourism spending contributes to positive and negative economic impacts as illustrated in Figure 4.3. Lu and Song (2018) and Mahadevan and Amir (2017) are of the view that tourism is a suitable tool for poverty alleviation because it generates income and redirects income from the rich to the poor particularly in rural communities. For instance, indigenous tourism in the Amboseli Region in Kenya contributed to direct income to the poor Masaai community through the sale of handicrafts, tour guiding and cultural activities while indirectly it stimulated the formation of linkages of tourism with other industries (Ondicho, 2018; Mehrotra, 2019). The island nations such as the Caribbean, Maldives, Mauritius and Mauritius attest to the importance of tourism linkages increasing multiplier effects in the local economy from wages of formal employment. A case in point is the Masaai Mara residents living close to Amboseli National Park, who became self-employed in petty trading, hawking foodstuffs and provision of transport services to tourists using motorcycles and bicycles (Ondicho, 2018; Mehrotra, 2019). In South Africa pro-poor tourism improved the ailing economies of KwaZulu Natal and Sodwana Bay communities through nature tourism and marine tourism respectively (Suardana and Sudiata, 2016). Despite the anticipated economic benefits there are economic costs that cannot go unnoticed. These include but are not limited to revenues leakages

by private partners, unequal distribution of household income and the Dutch Disease (Adiyia and Vanneste, 2018). Regrettably, Lionetti and Gonzalez (2011) cited inflationary pressures from tourist demand, infrastructure development costs, and the leakage of revenues as some of the costs associated with tourism development. Furthermore, Croes (2014) and Ondicho (2018) reiterated that in as much as tourism contributes to poverty alleviation economic development associated with tourism tends to be slow. Despite the economic gains being limited, for indigenous ecotourism undertaken by the Masai in the Amboseli Region to livelihoods diversification. Thus, we should not be over optimistic about tourism's contribution to poverty alleviation.

The tourist spending contributes to income, tax revenue, pricing and risk issues. Tourism contributes to positive and negative economic impacts. Despite tourism being identified as one of the poverty alleviation tools, eliticism, limited education and lack of skills limit its full potential (Muganda et al., 2010). In Nuijiang Lisu, which one of the poorest regions in China, residents acknowledged that tourism increased economic gains by providing employment opportunities as tour guides, in guest houses and support services. Despite the purported success of pro-poor tourism many residents in the above area decried the fact that Government funding for tourism development was allocated based on nepotism and was inadequate to allow all households to invest in tourism by building guest houses. As a result, income inequalities were created which in the end led to the dissatisfaction of poor rural communities (Yang, 2015).

Once pro-poor tourism is established government derives revenue from tourism and non-tourism businesses through taxes. That tax is ploughed back to the rural community in the form of infrastructure development and provision of social services (Njoya and Seetaram, 2017). Pro-poor tourism also contributes to infrastructure development as in the case of Masai Mara community residing close to Amboseli National Park where the development of a road network between Namanga and Loitokitok greatly benefited community (Ondicho, 2018).

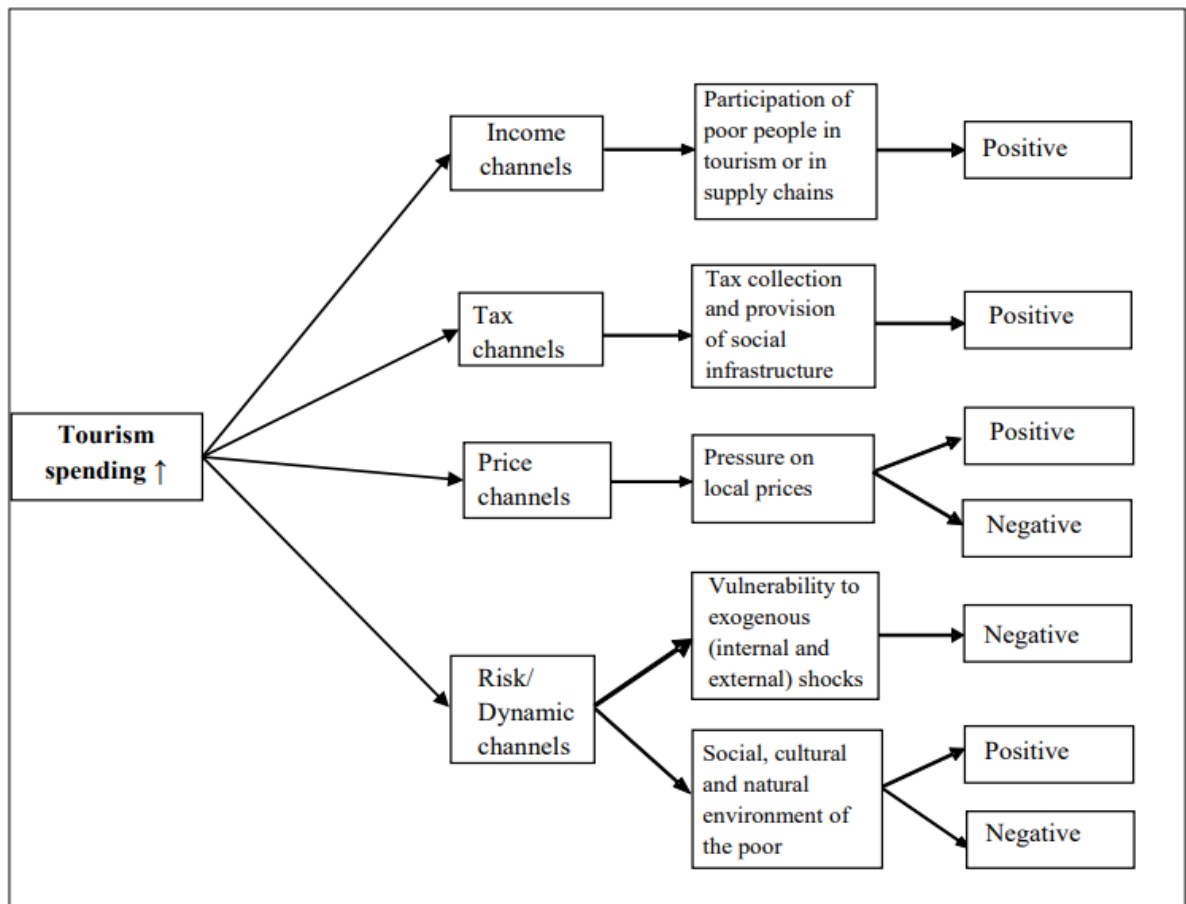


Figure 4.3 Tourism impacts on the poor

Source: Njoya and Seetaram (2017)

Apart from economic benefits tourism also has impacts on social cultural and environmental fabric of rural environment. Improvement of health, education, human capital development and capital development are some of the social cultural benefits of pro-poor tourism (Anderson, 2014; Croes, 2014; Wang et al., 2020). Unfortunately, there are also negative social cultural impacts such as unequal power relations, nepotism and corruption (Saayman and Giampiccoli, 2016). There are also operational, structural and cultural challenges that limit the poor from participating in tourism (Suardana and Sudiarta, 2016). Since pro-poor tourism is in a neo-liberal context, redistributive policies are traded for free market forces to operate and in so doing the depth and severity of poverty increases contrary to the belief that tourism contributes to poverty alleviation (Schilcher, 2007). It thus requires strong institutions in developing nations to confront neoliberal perspectives by advocating for policies that genuinely promote the poor. As

long as neoliberalisation policies are upfront, poverty reduction can only be reported by a reduction in head count while increasing the gap between the rich and the poor. Thus Schilcher (2007) advocates for change in policy, capital development strategies and confrontation of elitism in order to disband the effects of neo-liberalisation. Achieving the above obviously in a step in the right direction of making tourism pro-poor.

Pro-poor tourism success is possible when governments deliberately formulate policy to moderate the neo-liberal tendencies that characterise the tourism industry (Schilcher, 2007). That way the real poor may meaningfully benefit from tourism development. In Nepal, ecotourism led to increased preservation of the environment at the Chitwan National Park (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Wang et al., 2020)

When viewed from a sustainable tourism perspective, Community Based Tourism and Ecotourism, in practice, treat poverty alleviation as a secondary outcome. This is seen in Community Based Tourism's attempt to pursue a pro-poor orientation that emphasises promotion of local initiatives while ignoring use of local labour and goods, expansion of informal sector linkages, infrastructural development and environmental strategies that profit the poor (DFID, 1999; Okazaki, 2008). It is only by prioritisation of the latter that poverty alleviation intentions can be accomplished. Given that these vital aspects are ignored, pro-poor tourism has simply not produced the anticipated benefits.

Harrison (2008) argued that pro-poor tourism success stories depend on community-private sector tourism partnerships. Such well-established partnerships make the commercialisation of pro-poor tourism initiatives feasible. Ashley and Goodwin (2007) bemoaned the lack of a commercial orientation for rural communities' poor decision-making in acquisition of labour and borrowing capital. Rushed decisions are made without proper tourism demand analysis. Unfortunately, private sector engagement by rural communities is received with mixed reactions since these commercial relationships often disadvantage local communities (Scheyvens, 2007). Mowforth and Munt (2015) claim that the achievement of pro-poor tourism is unrealistic because of unbalanced global relationships that disadvantage developing countries. Decisions on tourism development are made by exogenous agencies miles away from peripheral rural areas. To make

matters worse, mainstream players perceive poverty alleviation as secondary to profit maximisation (Mitchell, 2012). Therefore, PPT is labelled as window dressing or a token activity to divert attention from tourism's ills (Scheyvens, 2008).

The number one agenda of the tourism industry remains the achievement of profit. Thus, pro-poor tourism occupies a peripheral position. Yet without international tour operators and airlines, there would be no value chain from which the poor in developing countries could access the tourism market. Therefore, the rural tourism industry needs to be porous to international tourism markets to be viable. As an example of the above viewpoint, the Gambia's retained tourist expenditure contributes to pro-poor tourism, even though there is considerable income leakage from flights, accommodation and tour operators' bookings made outside the country (Mitchell and Faal, 2007). This proves that despite the involvement of outside players, tourism sometimes has the potential to contribute to poverty alleviation. Mowforth and Munt (2015) pointed out that in numerous instances pro-poor tourism enhances the poor's position whilst creating developmental inequalities with regions that are devoid of natural resources. As a result, not all communities are beneficiaries of pro-poor tourism development (Truong et al., 2014). In sum, pro-poor tourism remains a contested narrative.

To many in the developing world, pro-poor tourism is simply window-dressing. Pleumarom (2000a), as cited in the International Labour Report (2008, p 11), wrote that "The more decision-makers parade tourism policies for poverty elimination, the more the gap widens between the rich and the poor among and within nations, due to aggressive and unfair economic liberalization. While people in rich countries drown in conspicuous consumption, thereby destroying their own and others' life bases, communities in less- and least-developed countries only receive the crumbs from the wealth that capitalist growth produces."

The above quotation cites the existing, unchanged world economic structures as forces that militate against progress made towards achievement of pro-poor tourism objectives. The same sentiments were echoed by Trau (2012) who alleged that exogenous tourism agencies exploit the local indigenous people to amass wealth for themselves (Mitchell and Faal, 2008). In Bwindi and

Virunga forests in Uganda, the government captures the bulk of tourism revenue inflows while the local people benefit only from provision of cheap labour (Mitchell and Ashley, 2010). Moreover, they maintained that a similar situation prevails in Cambodia and Ghana where elite tourism is dominant. Vijayakumar, (2009) contended local communities are casualties rather than beneficiaries of a tourism industry that is dominated by the rich. In the same vein, Scheyvens (2014) and the United Nations (2003) remarked that exploitative labour practices, limited natural resource access, elite domination, absence of legal frameworks to protect the poor and developing countries' subordinate position in trade negotiations make pro-poor tourism unsuccessful. In all these cases the rural communities continue to live in abject poverty.

In theory, pro-poor tourism applies to all forms of tourism, but the concept is selectively applied to eco-tourism and community-based tourism in practice (Ashley and Goodwin, 2007). Table 4.1 below shows the pro-poor tourism initiatives that are aligned to CBT and ecotourism. Pro-poor strategic interventions are broadly defined. Table 4 above shows the pro-poor tourism intervention strategies in selected locations across the world. Pro-poor tourism strategies are varied in their locations, stakeholders, and types of tourism initiatives. In Maputaland in South Africa, the private operator partnered with a government conservation agency and a community, while in St Lucia Islands, the government is solely responsible for promotion of pro-poor tourism. In Namibia, local non-governmental organizations play an auxiliary role in community tourism ventures. In Maputaland in South Africa, Ndumu and Rocktail Wilderness Safari Lodges benefit the Mathenjwa and Mqobela communities that reside near the Isivuno Conservancy (Poutney and Spenceley, 2001). In the latter example, to achieve pro-poor tourism objectives, policies were formulated to encourage local employment, local sourcing of services and community share in ownership of the lodges. Pro-poor tourism should be applied to any form of tourism in practice.

Even though pro-poor empirical studies are available, very few track the impact of pro-poor tourism on poverty alleviation. Hence, most claims that tourism contributes to poverty alleviation are unsubstantiated. Therefore, convincing tourism policymakers to support pro-poor tourism in circumstances where there is a dearth of empirical data, or to lobby for such interventions, is a wild goose chase.

Though pro-poor tourism emphasises positive net tourism benefits, reconciliation of positive economic benefits and negative non-financial effects remains unresolved (Mitchell, 2012). Notwithstanding such shortcomings of pro-poor tourism, in some destination's benefits flowing to the poor are very substantial. Southern Africa and Asia boast a large proportion of income that reaches the poor due to high labour wages and vibrant small to medium enterprises (Mitchell and Ashely, 2010). As a result, organisations such as Department for International Aid (DFID), Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV), International Trade Centre (ITC), Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA), Asian Development Bank (ADB), the Australian Government Overseas Aid Programme (AUSAID) and the New Zealand government Overseas Aid Programme among others resoundingly back pro-poor tourism initiatives (Spencely and Meyer, 2012and). These organisations, particularly the Oversees Development Institute (ODI), have intensified efforts to promote pro-poor tourism by making use of the concept of tourism value chain analysis to identify opportunities that the poor can take advantage of in tourism development.

4.4 Value Chain Analysis in Tourism

To fully comprehend the potential of tourism to contribute to poverty alleviation, value chain analysis is critical. Value chain analysis was pioneered in tourism by Overseas Development Institute (ODI) in 2005 and to date more than 14 different countries have successfully embraced the concept (Mitchell, 2015). A value chain is defined as a “full range of activities which are required to bring a product or service from conception through different phases of production, involving a combination of physical transformation and the input of various producer services, delivery to final consumers and disposal after use (Kaplinsky and Morris, 2001, p.4)”. Value chains identify key stakeholders along a tourism production-consumption continuum (Mitchell and Faal, 2008). Mitchell (2012) remarked that value chains reveal interactions of people and businesses with tourism markets. These interactions include, but are not limited to, input supplies, production, processing, storage, wholesale and retail, and consumption. Actors who perform analogous functions occupy similar functional nodes in the chain. Input supply nodes comprise all suppliers in the value chain, while production nodes and retail nodes are made up of producers and retailers, respectively, in the value chains. Secondary roles are performed by secondary actors who execute primary functions such as transportation, brokerage, and service processing. All exchanges

and transformations are characterised by a series of transactions that add value and costs (Mitchell, 2012). Generally, a tourism value chain comprises principal services (hotels, restaurants, transportation among others), and secondary services which are provided by companies that service principal agents (Tejada and Linan, 2009; Romero and Tejada, 2011).

The value chains that can be exploited in Chitomborwizi East are as presented in Figure 4.4. The local people can benefit from exploiting opportunities for participation in distribution of tourism and hospitality products in Chitomborwizi East. Local communities in the area can come up with travel agencies to service the domestic tourism demand. Transport services to, from and within the destination present another opportunity for the local people to participate in pro-poor tourism. Furthermore, some farming households in Chitomborwizi East could develop tourist accommodation in the form of lodges, homestays and even camping sites to cater for an anticipated boom in tourism. Finally, the local communities can invest in developing tourist activities including, but not limited, to retail, agro-tourism, heritage tourism, wildlife tourism and even provision of guiding services.

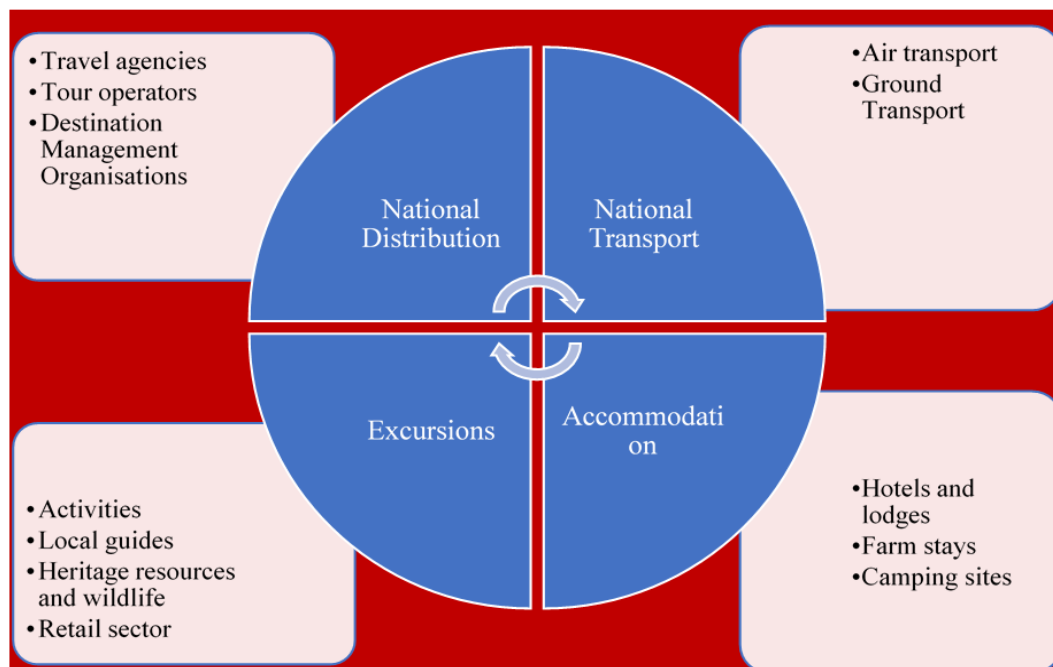


Figure 4.4: Chitomborwizi East Tourism Value Chains

Source: Adapted from Staritz and Reis (2013)

4.5 Tourism Impacts on Value Chains

In the tourism value chain direct, indirect, and dynamic effects can be seen (Mitchell et al., 2015), as in Figure 4.5. Cooper et al. (2008) defined direct effects as the net tourism benefits that arise from direct expenditure in tourism establishments. Wages earned by skilled and semi-skilled workers in the tourism and hospitality industry contribute to direct effects. Indirect effects refer to generation of benefits from indirect expenditure in the tourism industry. This occurs when hotels, for example, need services of builders or water, electrical and furniture suppliers, to name just a few suppliers (Cooper et al., 2008).

Dynamic effects are macroeconomic changes in the economy which affect livelihoods, business environment, patterns of economic growth, the natural resource base of the destination and infrastructural development (Ashley et al., 2007). These dynamic effects are realised through induced impacts generated by wages, salaries, rent and interest which accrue from direct and indirect economic impacts of tourism. Development of tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward will undoubtedly yield direct, indirect, and induced tourism impacts. This will increase tourism's multiplier effect on Chitomborwizi East as a destination.

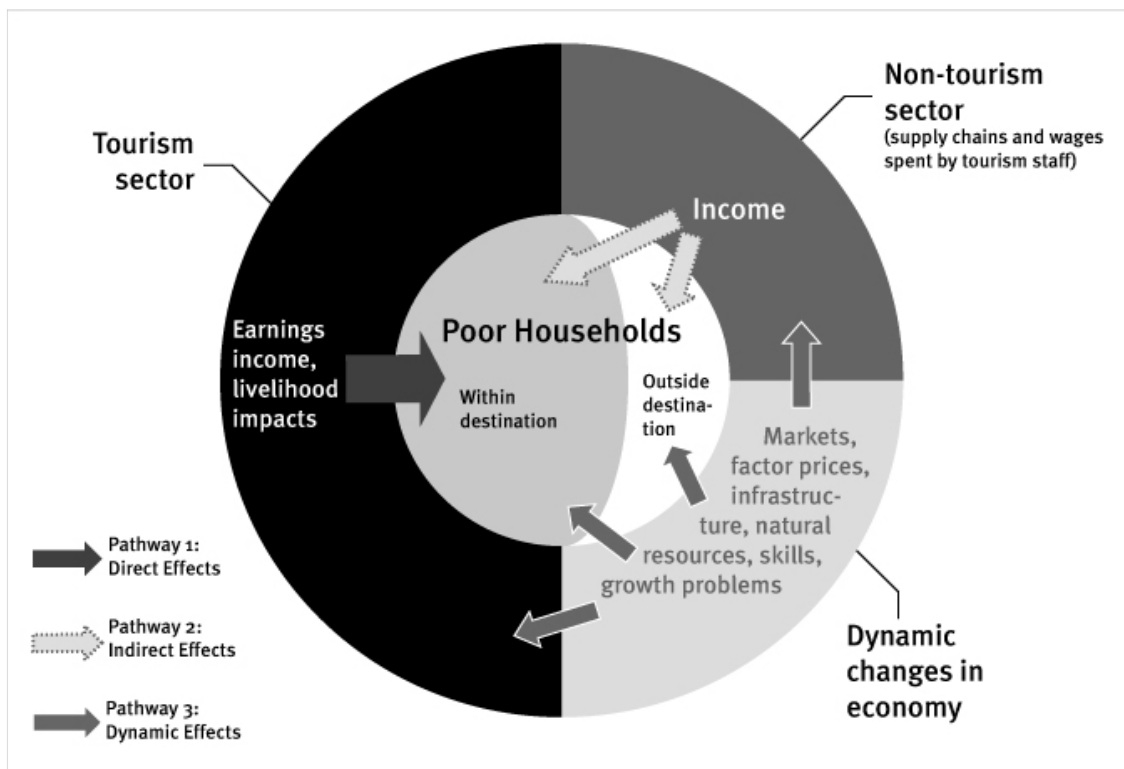


Figure 4.5: Impacts of Tourism

Source: Mitchell et al. (2015)

Consequently, poverty alleviation in that area may become a realisable objective. Mitchell (2012) and Spencer et al. (2014) suggested that for value chain analysis to achieve pro-poor tourism growth the following factors are fundamental.

- Identification of trade opportunities that may benefit the poor.
- Recognition of disadvantaged groups in tourism supply chains
- Supporting increased participation of the poor in economic activities
- Advocating for full participation of all stakeholders through appropriate policy formulation and restructuring of institutions
- Establishment of business partnership between the poor and private sector tourism enterprises
- Assisting the poor to access tourism markets
- Financing the skills development of the poor and improvement of rural tourism product standards.

Despite the attempts that have been made to trace the tourism dollar, and its impact on the poor, using value chain analysis, value chains are normally descriptive and fail to capture details of how businesses and institutional arrangements impact on the poor's participation and outcomes in tourism development (Staritz and Reis, 2013). Tourism and hospitality investors are unaware of the existence of sources of local raw materials and as a result they may source inputs outside the local community. Small producers may fail to access markets as well as financial resources to produce goods of the right quality and quantity for tourism service providers (Yunis, 2003). Additionally, the poor lack the capability to do a thorough market analysis and they therefore produce products and services that fail to meet acceptable standards. For the poor to access value chains, they need to produce tourism products and services that are desirable to consumers and are of the right quality and standard, otherwise pro-poor tourism may not be feasible (Webber and Labaste, 2010). Lastly, the small operators may not be able to provide the large volumes of commodities that may be required by large tourism and hospitality businesses (Yunis, 2003). Capacity building is therefore required to make sure local tourism players in Chitomborwizi East produce tourism products of the right quality. Apart from the above production constraints, income leakages through imports and remuneration of expatriates reduce the impact of tourism on rural communities. Tourists make bookings and payments in their home countries. When they visit the destination, tourists are handled by subsidiary tourism service providers who have linkages with companies outside the destination. Consequently, revenue leaks and less benefit accrue to local communities. The United Nations (2003) echoed the same sentiments that tourism creates high levels of foreign ownership characterised by economic leakages and minimal local benefits. To avoid these leakages domestic tourism is being promoted in Chitomborwizi East Ward. A thorough value chain analysis is intended to identify all opportunities that the rural community in Chitomborwizi East Ward can take advantage of.

Table 4.1: Case Studies of Pro-poor Tourism Interventions

CASE STUDY	PRO-POOR TOURISM INITIATIVE	STAKEHOLDERS
Wilderness Safaris-Maputaland, South Africa	Tripartite commercial partnership responsible for operation of two lodges located in poor region of South Africa.	Wilderness Safaris, community and State Conservation Authority
Namibia Community based Tourism Association (NACOBTA) -Namibia	- Promotion of Community involvement in tourism: ✓ Direct support to enterprises ✓ Linking of private sector with communities ✓ Pro-poor policy formulation and discussion	Local community and non-governmental organizations
Spatial Development Initiatives (SDI) and Community Private Public partnerships (CPPP) Programmes- Northern Province South Africa	- Private sector to invest in communal or state land to promote black empowerment. - Makuleke (CPPP) and Manyeleti (SDI)	Government Makuleke and Manyeleti communities
SNV- Nepal Humla region	Mobilization of poor people in Humla to participation in tourism	Netherlands Development Organization Humla community Nepal
Tropic Ecological Adventures-Ecuador	Partnerships with Huorani Indians to develop and market tour packages and other tourism products.	An Equadorian Tour Operator and Hourani Indians
St Lucia Heritage Tourism Programme - St Lucia	Development of heritage attractions to expand the participation, benefits, and sustainability of the tourism sector	Government and St Lucia residents

Source: Ashley and Roe (2001)

4.5 Chapter Summary

Tourism plays a significant role in poverty alleviation for disadvantaged rural communities. Any form of tourism development is bound to have negative impacts and therefore as tourism is proposed for Chitomborwizi East, it becomes critical to bear in mind learning from experiences elsewhere to develop an effective pro-poor tourism strategy are critical. One of the key success factors of pro-poor tourism is the development of requisite tourism skills that allow communities to run tourism ventures viably. There must be a balance between partnerships of the

community and private sector if terms of participation and beneficiation otherwise the project risks falling into the same trap as other failed pro-poor tourism projects. Pro-poor tourism arose out of the failure of mainstream development theories to satisfy poverty alleviation goals. Community Based Tourism and Ecotourism are typologies of tourism that are claimed to advance poverty alleviation objectives. Unfortunately, a closer assessment of these initiatives intended for community upliftment uncovers their major driving force as the satisfaction of conservation goals (Roe and Elliot, 2006). Poverty alleviation plays a subsidiary role.

It comes out clearly that pro-poor tourism projects are community initiatives that include the private sector partnerships and the government. Private sector partnerships with communities are created to make the so-called pro-poor tourism ventures commercially viable. Despite the good intentions, profit motives supersede poverty alleviation intentions. Tourism stakeholders have attempted to come up with the necessary interventions to address such shortcomings. One such an initiative is value chain analysis which identifies opportunities that the poor may harness from tourism development. The poor may fail to seize the opportunities because they lack the skills and financial resources to invest in productive activities.

Pro -poor tourism should not be restricted to Community Based Tourism and conservation. Forms of tourism that are sympathetic to the poor must be developed; otherwise, pro-poor tourism will always be a secondary objective in any form of tourism development. In Chitomborwizi East water based and agro-tourism resources should be used to develop pro-poor tourism. The advantage is that tourism investment is less costly because it makes use of resources that are already owned by the poor. In this regard agriculture is an existing resource that can be tapped to develop pro-poor tourism. In that way, pro-poor tourism may transition from being an underated development initiative to playing a critical role.

CHAPTER

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Development of a research framework is guided by research paradigms defined by ontological, epistemological and axiological beliefs (Cresswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009; Newman, 2011; Wahyuni, 2012). Research methodology is the process of conducting research, which is guided by epistemological, ontological and axiological beliefs (Pessu, 2019; Wahyuni, 2012). This chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study by adopting Saunders et al.'s (2016) Research Onion depicted in Figure 5.1 below.

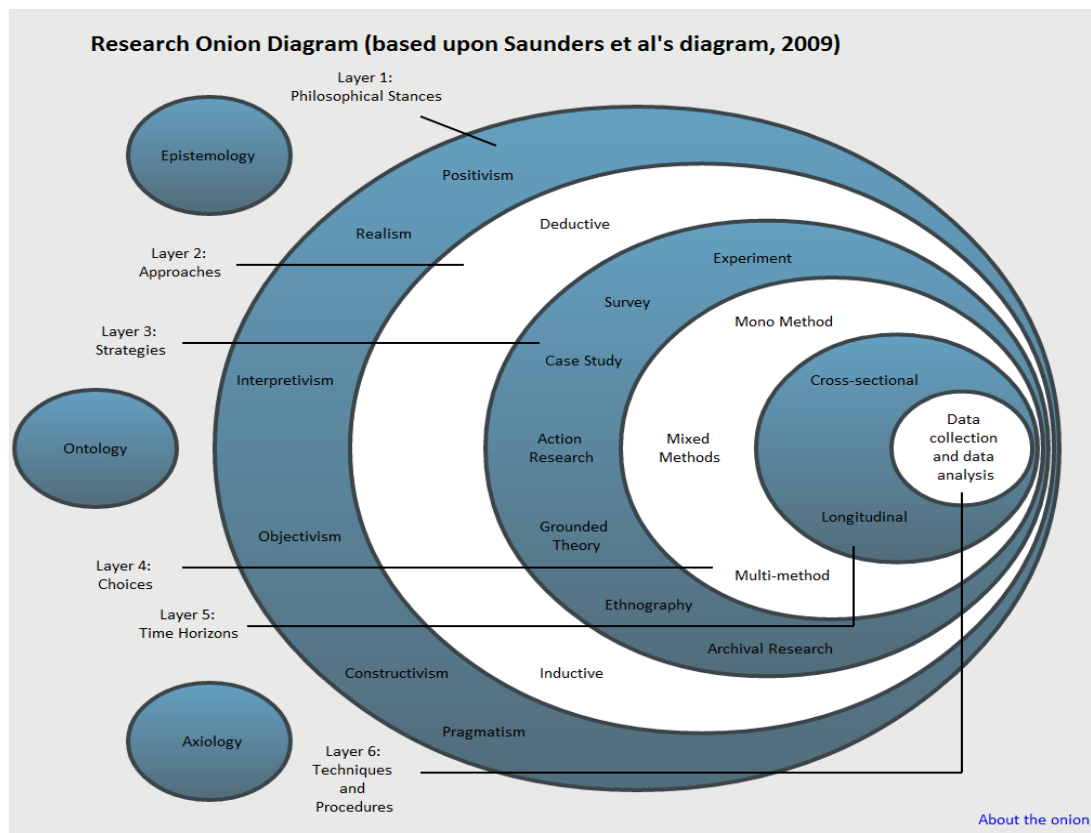


Figure 5.1: The Research Onion

Source: Saunders et al. (2016)

The research paradigm, approach, strategy, sampling procedures, data collection procedure and data analysis methods are discussed in this section. The methodology that was applied in the research was guided by research objectives and hypothesis testing. The strengths and weaknesses of the methodological choices are evaluated in this chapter.

5.2 Research Philosophies

Saunders (2016, p. 124) defined “a research philosophy as a system of beliefs and assumptions about knowledge development”. Bryman (2004:453) described it as “a collection of beliefs and dictates which determines the choice of data collection methods, analysis, and interpretation of results”. Appropriate research paradigms guide the development of research questions, choice of research methods, data collection as well as data analysis procedures (Cresswell, 2014; Davies and Fisher, 2018; Siddiqui, 2019; Weaver and Oslon, 2006). Philosophies provide room for creativity and innovation in application of research methods (Don-Solomon and Eke, 2018; Pessu, 2019). As a result, inappropriate research methods are eliminated at the initial stages of the research process. The research philosophy chosen by the researcher is bound by an intelligible set of ontological, axiological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Don-Solomon and Eke, 2018; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Eaton and Ihuah, 2013; Kivunji and Kuyini, 2017; Pessu, 2019). Table 5.1 shows the five classifications of research philosophies based on ontological (what constitutes reality), epistemological (relationship between the knower and what is to be known), axiological (values and ethics), and methodological (approaches to the construction of knowledge) perspectives (Haigh et al., 2019; Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

As shown in Table 5.1, ontological beliefs define reality and how it is perceived and negotiated by individual behaviour (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Jackson, 2013; Saunders, 2016; Scotland, 2012). An accurate conceptualisation of reality determines the application of relevant methodological choices (Cohen et al., 2000; Haigh et al., 2019; Lohse, 2016; Neumann, 2003). Therefore, philosophical assumptions are dependent on whether external, independent reality or constructed reality is the focus of a research (Jackson, 2013; Siddiqui, 2019). Objectivist ontology assumptions view social entities as independent of social actors responsible for their existence

(Don-Solomon and Eke, 2018; Antwi and Hamza, 2015). For this assumption, hypothesis testing, deductive reasoning, prediction, verification, and extrapolation are scientific methods that can be applied (Antwi and Hamza, 2015; Cohen et al., 2000; Haigh et al., 2019; Neuman, 2003; Siddiqui, 2019). This positions the researcher in a positivist paradigm guided by objective ontology that promotes deterministic empirical data collection with a view to generalising findings to a larger population (Almashy, 2015; Burns et al., 2018; Eakin, 2015). Positivism produces statistically reliable results that are generalisable (Siddiqui, 2019) but unfortunately, it fails to embrace individuality and variability of research contexts (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Davie and Fisher, 2018; Don-Solomon and Eke, 2018; Siddiqui, 2019). Objective ontology was applied in this study to establish if there is a demand for tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Mashonaland West province. Questionnaires were distributed to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi, a town 20km from the rural area under study. The idea was to apply quantitative methods to the generalisation of findings from potential tourists. Subjective ontology was applied in the collection of data from the residents of Chitomborwizi East.

Subjective or relative ontology acknowledges multiple reality contexts (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Crotty, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, and 1994; Ulin et al., 2004; Tuli, 2010). Meaning is derived when human perceptions interact with objects to create manifold realities (Crotty, 1998). Constructivism – also termed interpretivism – is underpinned by relativism, unlike the single reality perspective of the positivist paradigm (Cresswell, 2014; Don-Solomon and Eke, 2018; Haigh et al., 2019; John and Christensen, 2012; Saunders, 2016). Consequently, interpretivism produces rich in-depth data through inductive reasoning (Cohen et al., 2000; Davies and Fisher, 2018; Sireier, 2018). In this study therefore, subjective reality is constructed based on how individual farm households and key informants perceived the development of pro-poor tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Since reality is judged by multiple perspectives, interpretivism is considered appropriate. However, lack of generalisability of interpretivism research and researcher bias are weaknesses of the paradigm that frequently affect research (Kivunji and Kiyuni, 2017; Siddiqui, 2019). Once an ontological perspective was defined in this study, the epistemological assumption has to be explained.

Table 5.1: Major Paradigms

Characteristic	Positivism	Post positivism	Critical	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Outcome sought	Exploration of numeric data to a larger population	Inference of numeric data to a large population whilst providing some deep descriptions	Elicit for change	Produce rich in-depth data from individual respondents	Use of subjective and objective approaches to solve global problems
Ontology	One truth exists	Critical realism	Historical realism Truth is constantly contested by competing groups	Truth is multidimensional	Single and multiple truths exist
Epistemology	Credible data are produced from observable phenomena	Credible data are produced from observable phenomena. Social contexts used to explain data	Knowledge is socially constructed through a mediation of power relations	Subjective meanings and interpretations from multiple realities	Integration of subjective and observable phenomena to solve global problems
Axiology	Value-free and etic research where the researcher is excluded from the research to avoid bias	Value-laden and etic. Views of research influenced by world views, cultural experiences, and background		Value-bound and emic research. Researcher bias unavoidable since the researcher is inseparable from the research.	Value-bound and etic-emic objectives and subjective points of view embraced by the researcher
Research Methods	Quantitative	Qualitative and Quantitative	Qualitative and qualitative participatory methods	Qualitative	Quantitative and qualitative
Common designs	Case control Experimental	Modified experimental and critical multiplism	Neo-Marxist Feminist research Queer theory	Phenomenology Naturalist methodology Narrative inquiry	Naturalist methodology Narrative inquiry Case study

Characteristic	Positivism	Post positivism	Critical	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
	Randomised control trials Quasi experimental Causal comparative methodology		Participatory action research Emancipation, Disability research Action research Cultural studies	Case study Grounded theory Hermeneutics Ethnography Action research Heuristic	Phenomenology Ethnography Action research Experimental methodology Quasi-experimental methodology Causal comparative methodology
Disadvantages	Excludes individual experiences	Does not always produce well-defined answers	Limited transferability and generalisability	Does not always guarantee its aims of emancipation	Flexibility in approach can lead to confusion

Sources: Wahyuni (2012); Davis and Fraser (2018); Kivunja and Kuyini, 2018 p. 1-16)

The epistemological assumption focusses on what is accepted as knowledge, and how information is collected and communicated for a particular study (Cresswell, 2009, 2014; Maarouf, 2019; Saunders, 2016; Scotland, 2012). The fundamental tenets of epistemology are comprehension of the world and how information is extracted from the world (Cresswell, 2009; Lincoln et al., 2011). The researcher's comprehension of respondents allows him/her to disseminate research findings and extend the body of knowledge (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). In this study, the researcher collected data from the Chitomborwizi East Ward community using semi-structured interviews. The qualitative research methodology allowed the researcher to remain close to the research subjects to understand their multiple realities (Cresswell, 2009; Maarouf, 2019; Tuli, 2010). In so doing, the researcher minimised the "objective separateness" (Guba and Lincoln, 1988, p. 94) between herself and research subjects. This view is supported by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:26) who claim that in some instances "knower and what is to be known should be highly interactive". Consequently, subjective evidence was collected based on individual interpretations by participants of the world around them. Unlike the qualitative dimension, the quantitative dimension required the researcher to remain distant from the research to exclude bias and retain impartiality (Antwi and Hamza, 2015; Cresswell, 2009, 2014; Maarouf, 2019; Saunders et al., 2016). To increase objectivity, and because the researcher wanted the research to be value-free, questionnaires were distributed to potential tourists in Chinhoyi Town.

The axiological viewpoint is concerned with how values and opinions influence the research process. Axiology is guided by the core principles of teleology (benefits of research), deontology (action intended to benefit participants), morality (truthfulness in data interpretation) and fairness (equal treatment of research participants) (Kivunji and Kiyuni, 2017). It delves into the roles that the researcher's values play in all stages of the research process and how these affect the credibility of the research results. In the qualitative axiological assumption, the researcher accepted the value-laden nature of the study and actively reported the values and biases of the information gathered from residents of Chitomborwizi East Ward (Cresswell, 2009, 2014; Davis and Fisher, 2018; Wahyuni, 2012). From the qualitative perspective the researcher was at liberty to apply her values in discussing research findings whereas in quantitative research the researcher did not (Easterby-Smith et al., 2003). The researcher was able to use her values to explain the

findings from the interviews whilst she was not at liberty to do so in explaining research findings from the questionnaires distributed to potential tourists in the suburb of Gunhill in Chinhoyi. In as far as possible it is important to remain objective.

5.2.1 *Pragmatic Philosophy*

This philosophy arose to deal with mono-pragmatic assertions that were caused by paradigm wars (Gage, 1989). The paradigm debate lost popularity because researchers sought methods that solved research questions without too much philosophical emphasis (Barnes, 2019; Mitchell, 2018). According to pragmatists, tension between competing paradigms is a hindrance to research progress (Davies and Fisher, 2018). In as much as pragmatism acknowledges the existence of multiple and single realities, solving problems is its preoccupation (Feilzer, 2010; Kivunji and Kiyuni, 2017). As a result, pragmatic philosophy – also defined as critical realism, transformative paradigm, dialectical pluralism, and post modernism – is heavily researched (Barnes, 2019; Feters et al., 2017; Ghiara, 2019; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Of these philosophical stances, pragmatism emerged as the ideal paradigm (Biddle and Schafft, 2015; Hathcoat and Meixner, 2017). Pragmatism combines research methods in the best way possible to address the demands of the research questions. Its underlying beliefs are relational epistemology, non-singular ontology, use of mixed research methods and value-laden axiology that emphasises research benefits (Biesta, 2010; Biddle and Schafft, 2015; Cresswell, 2014; Giacobbi, Poczwadowski and Hager, 2005; Kivunji and Kiyuni, 2017; Morgan, 2014; Shannon-Baker, 2016; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) allowing for pluralism in research methodology. Mixed methods research is a set of research methods that combines qualitative and quantitative research methods to generate answers to confirmatory and exploratory questions by verifying and generating theory (Johnson and Onwegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

The researcher adopted the philosophy of pragmatism in this study as both quantitative and qualitative views was sought to develop the pro-poor model. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) revealed that pragmatism offers prospects for researchers to study areas of interest whilst using appropriate methods and generating findings that are congruent with researcher values (Creswell, 2003; 2014; Ghiara, 2019; Barnes, 2019). Rossman and Wilson (1985) and Green, Caracelli and

Graham (1989) as cited in Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005 p. 314) outlined the following as advantages of mixed methodologies as shown in Figure 5.2 below.

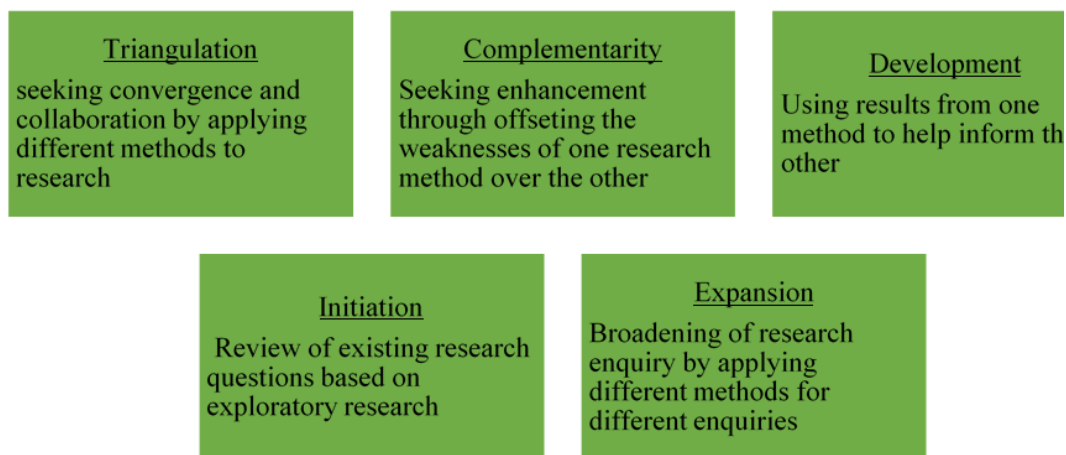


Figure 5.2: Benefits of Mixed Methodologies

Source: Caracelli and Graham (1989) as cited in Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005 p. 31)

The researcher used the pragmatic approach to offset disadvantages of mono methods. Pragmatism rejects the dichotomy of positivism and interpretivism (Horthesal, 2019) by blending the qualitative and quantitative methods (Burns et al., 2018; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2009). However, the incompatibility thesis arising from the paradigm debate disputed the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods because of the differences in paradigms that underlie these methods (Maarouf, 2019; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2009). The mixed methods approach offsets the disadvantages of either the qualitative or quantitative research designs (Anchin and Loner, 2009; Maarouf, 2019; Siddiqui, 2019) by drawing on useful insights that could have been missed from either research method on its own. Social phenomena can involve many complexities and so different methods are necessary to understand these complexities (Barnes, 2019; Davis and Fisher, 2018; Ghiara, 2019; Green and Caracelli, 1997; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019; Siddiqui, 2019).

Tourism is a social phenomenon and therefore tourism research should employ a variety of methods to determine if it could be a sustainable livelihood strategy for the Chitombirwizi East Ward community. Despite being popular, mixed methods also have major weaknesses. Imbalance

in combination of methods may arise when one method is given priority over another (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019; Ponterotto and Grieger, 2007; Siddiqui, 2019). Moreover, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods could lead to paradigm wars because different research designs are grounded in different philosophical underpinnings (Davis and Fisher, 2018). Furthermore, it is difficult to use quantitative and qualitative methods concurrently; they are expensive as well as time-consuming (Siddiqui, 2019). Also, despite being credited with providing solutions to real world problems, pragmatism fails to address ontological issues that underlie the philosophy (Hathcote and Meixner, 2017; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019; Pratt, 2016; Lohse, 2017). Pragmatic philosophy lends itself to the use of both deductive and inductive approaches. Even with the realisation of the disadvantages of using mixed methods in the case of this research it was needed to assess both residents, where more in-depth knowledge is needed, and potential tourists, where basic descriptive knowledge was required.

5.2.2 Research Approach

The researcher used both deductive and inductive approaches in the research. The deductive approach allowed formulation of a hypothesis to test theory while the inductive analysis used detailed raw data to derive concepts, themes and models through interpretations made from the raw data (Mitchell, 2018). Inductive analysis is consistent with Strauss and Corbin's (1998) description: "The researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data" (p. 12). The inductive approach was used to determine the perceptions of the Chitomborwizi East Ward community and key informants towards tourism development. Inductive research allowed data to be collected to develop theory (Epizitone et al., 2018; 2020; Saunders et al., 2016) by building patterns, themes, and categories to describe the phenomenon of interest (Epizitone et al., 2020; Mitchell, 2018; Petty et al., 2012; Zelinsky, 2019).

According to Thomas (2006), the inductive approach aimed to achieve the following:

- condense raw text data into summaries;
- establish clear links between the research objectives and findings; and
- develop theory based on textual data.

Due to the failure of the inductive approach to generalise research findings, the deductive approach was used to model potential tourism demand for Chitomborwizi East Ward. Deductive reasoning relies on laws, rules and known principles (Burney and Mahmood, 2006; Saunders, 2003; Gill and Johnson, 2002; Mitchell, 2018). Cresswell and Plano Clark (2007) mentioned that deductive researchers work from the top down unlike inductive researchers who work from the bottom up to generate theories from data collected. The deductive approach tests data consistency with prior assumptions, theories, or hypotheses identified or constructed by the researcher. The deductive approach was utilised to determine potential demand for pro-poor tourism in the Chitomborwizi Ward in Mashonaland West Province. Hypotheses were generated to determine if tourism demand is affected by income, gender, family status, education level and age group.

5.2.3 Research Strategies

Research strategy refers to a “laid out plan to answer the research questions” (Saunders, 2016, p. 600) or, as Bryman (2008, p. 698) puts it: “the direction of carrying out the research”. There are numerous research strategies such as experiments, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research (Saunders, 2016; Collins and Husey, 2009). The researcher selected the case study and survey research strategies because both methods are compatible with the pragmatic stance adopted by the researcher. The researcher’s financial resources and available time were sufficient to pursue survey and case study strategies.

5.2.3.1 Case Study Strategies

Qualitative research strategies are diverse and encompass narration, phenomenology, grounded theory, action research, case study, ethnography, historical and content analysis (Baxter and Jack, 2003; Mohajan, 2018). A case study strategy was selected to answer the research questions. By choosing the case study strategy, the researcher aimed to compensate for the dearth of literature on case study research strategies in tourism research. The limited research on case studies is a result of the misconception that statistical methods are superior to non-statistical methods (Platt, 2007; Ruigrock and Wicki, 2008). A case study is defined as an empirical inquiry that “investigates a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context when the boundaries

between phenomenon and context are not clear and in which multiple sources of evidence are used” (Yin, 1989, p. 23). A case study holistically investigates a real-life, particular, descriptive, and heuristic phenomenon to answer the why and how research questions (Cresswell, 2014; Ellinger and McWhorter, 2016; Yin, 2003; 2012; 2014). A case study was selected because contextual conditions of Chitomborwizi East Ward were relevant to the respondents’ perceptions of tourism development. The decision to support tourism development was shaped by the environment in which small-scale farmers live. Through the case study strategy, the researcher did an in-depth study of a small geographical population of Chitomborwizi East Ward to assess existing livelihoods (Idowu, 2016; Lanthier, 2002; Zainal, 2007).

Though case studies are gaining popularity (Baskarada, 2014; Yazan, 2015; Yin, 2003, 2012, 2014), they are fraught with some misconceptions (Baskarada, 2014; Marlotto et al., 2014; Yazan, 2015; Yin, 2003; 2012; 2014). Lack of generalisation of research findings, absence of a standard procedure to explain research findings as well as contact between the researcher and the subjects often lead to bias (Cresswell, 2014; Easton, 2010; Ellinger and McWhorter, 2016; Hossieni et al., 2012; Idowu, 2016; Rule and John, 2015; Tetnowski, 2015; Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) and Cresswell (2014) dismissed the idea of lack of generalisation of research findings because case studies yield analytical instead of statistical generalisation. Additionally, in-depth descriptions generated from the research process could provide a basis for transferability of research output to other rural contexts. Therefore, the researcher decided on the case study approach because it helped to build theory, challenge existing theory, and describe the tourism phenomena in detail. The design of the case study research is captured in Figure 5.3. The researcher identified the research problem for which research questions were formulated.

- The research objectives that the case study sought to satisfy were: to conduct a pro-poor tourism resource analysis of Chitomborwizi East Ward in Zimbabwe;
- to explain the perceptions of stakeholders of tourism development in Chitomborwizi Ward;
- to propose a pro-poor framework that could be implemented in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

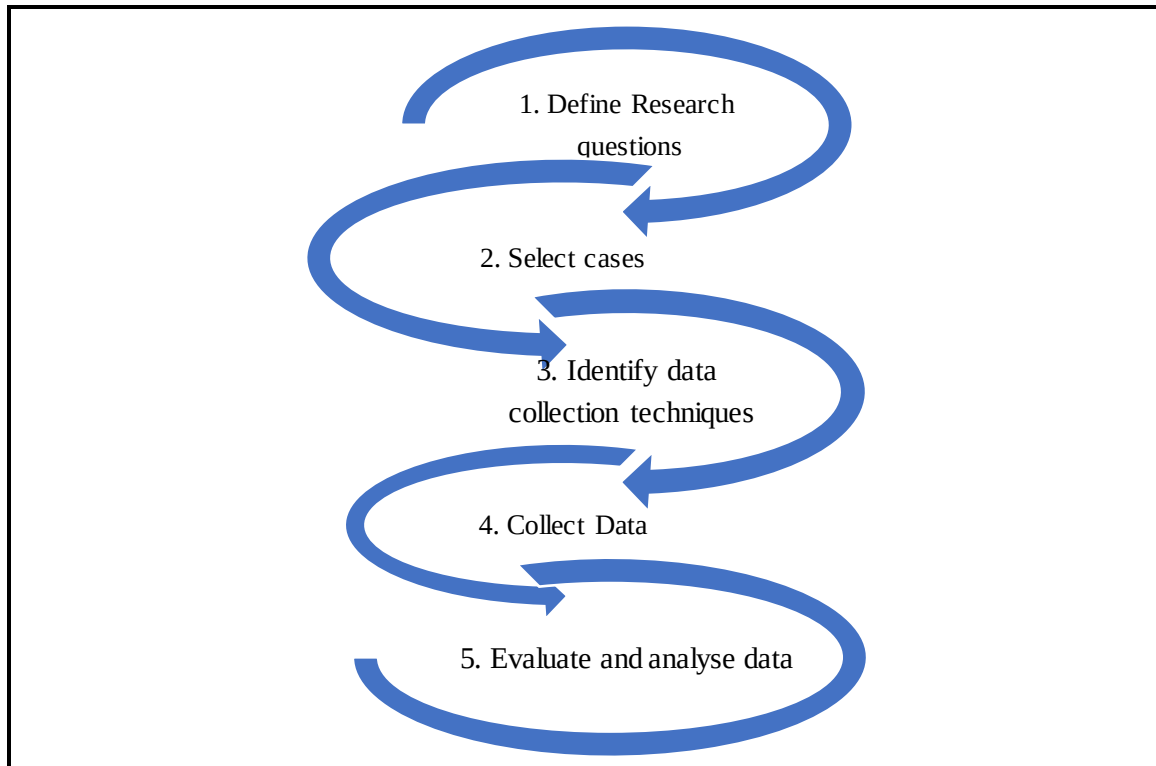


Figure 5.3: Case Study Research Process

Sources: Idowu (2016 p.186) and Alnaim (2015, p. 3)

Case study approaches can be multiple or single. Multiple case studies allow the researcher to focus on similarities and differences between many cases (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995; Vinnoni, 2014, 2015). Numerous case studies make validation of findings possible because of the greater representativeness that comes from many cases (Eiselhardt and Graebner, 2007; Gustaffson, 2017). Despite the popularity of multiple case studies, they are costly and time consuming when compared to single case studies. Single case studies produce better detail than multiple case studies because the researcher has enough time to review theories thoroughly (Dyer and Wilkins, 1991; Gustaffson, 2017). In preparation for case study data collection, a case study protocol was developed which captured the whole process of interview guide development, identification of main questions and data collection (Demetriou, 2009). To bolster the protocol, the researcher organised a notepad and a tape recorder to record and store data collected from the interviews. To achieve reliability and validity of case study findings, in-depth detailed descriptions of the research protocols and collected data were made (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007). The data

collection took place in April 2019 over a period of two weeks in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Once the data collection exercise was completed, data analysis began. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) and Yin (2014) cited pattern making, explanation building, time series analysis, logic models and cross-case synthesis as some of the appropriate methods of case study data analysis. The data collected from the residents of Chitomborwizi East were thematically analysed to identify patterns and categorise responses. Single case studies retain all the details of each case unlike multiple case studies which concentrate on common findings across cases (Marlotto et al., 2014).

5.2.3.2 Survey Strategy

Quantitative data make use of strategies such as experiments and surveys to collect data that are based on predetermined responses (Williams, 2007; Mohajan, 2018). The researcher used the survey strategy to conduct quantitative research. Survey research is defined as the collection of data from a sample of respondents drawn from a large population to establish attitudes, opinions, behaviours, or characteristics of a population (Kelley et al., 2003). Survey research can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. A cross-sectional survey takes place at one-time interval while longitudinal surveys take place over an extended period. The researcher chose a cross-sectional survey because it was affordable to conduct and due to the time available to collect data. The survey research process is detailed in Figure 5.3.

As Figure 5. shows, the researcher established the aim for this part of the study which was to determine if there is a potential demand for domestic tourism to the case study. The researcher then identified the population of respondents – the residents of the suburb of Gunhill in Chinhoyi due to their proximity to the case. Systematic sampling was implemented to sample 350 respondents from a population of occupants of 617 homesteads developed from stands allocated in 1988 (Chinhoyi City Council, 2019). A list of all households in the first phase of Gunhill Suburb was obtained from the Local Council. A questionnaire was developed to collect data from the sampled respondents. The questionnaire was pilot tested with 100 of the respondents from Gunhill Suburb and these questionnaires were not included in the final data set. Some of the questions in the questionnaire had to be reorganised while some were removed because they were

ambiguous. Once the questionnaire review was complete, the self-administered questionnaires were distributed with the help of two fieldworkers who were trained beforehand.

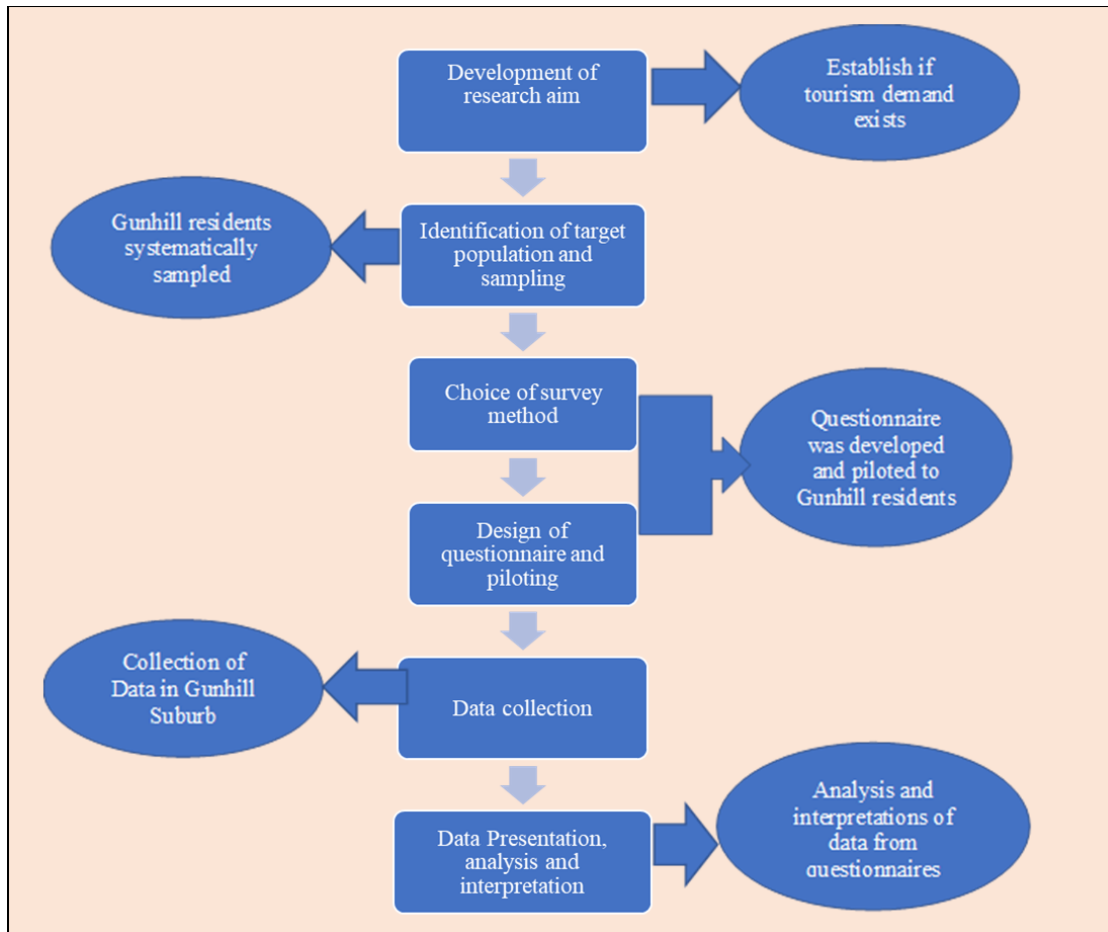


Figure 5.4: The Survey Research Design Process

Survey research is hailed for producing generalisable data on a real-world phenomenon. It is challenging to secure a high response rate from respondents. Table 5.2 shows the advantages and disadvantages that were encountered by the researcher of survey research.

Table 5.2: Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey Research

ADVANTAGES OF SURVEYS	DISADVANTAGES OF SURVEYS
Collection of data from a large population was possible	It was difficult to gather in-depth data
Data collection was standardised	It required a high level of statistical knowledge
Quantitative data were easier to analyse than qualitative data	Biases arose from lack of response to some questions
	There was misrepresentation of responses by some respondents

5.2.4 Mixed Methods

As indicated a mixed method approach was followed in this research. This involves “the collection or analysis of both quantitative/qualitative data in a single study in which the data is collected either concurrently or sequentially” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2008 p. 212). Despite the “paradigm wars” that call for either quantitative or qualitative purism, mixed research methods are preferred in the social sciences because they enrich research outcomes (Almpanis, 2016; Burns et al., 2018; Escalante-Barrios et al., 2020; Fabregues et al., 2020; Kelle, 2006; Maarouf, 2019; Molina-Azorin and Cameron, 2015; Molina-Azorin and Lopez, 2016; Siddiqui, 2019; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Paradigm relativism calls for use of research methods that solve a given research problem (Cresswell et al., 2007; Wium and Louw, 2018; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2008). Therefore, methodological approaches should be subject to research questions and not epistemological considerations. The purpose of using mixed methods in this research was ideally to compensate for the methodological weakness of using either qualitative or quantitative research (Cresswell et al., 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Wium and Louw, 2018). Mixed methods were used in the design of the research questions, data collection, data analysis and interpretation to strengthen the research outcomes and develop the pro-poor framework.

The use of mixed methods offsets the shortcomings of using either qualitative or quantitative research. Onwuegbuzie and Collin (2005) mention that quantitative research makes statistical generalisations on the findings and inferences from a representative statistical sample. By contrast, qualitative researchers attempt to accurately describe, decrypt, and interpret the meanings of phenomena in social settings (Fryer, 1991; Kivunji and Kiriyu, 2017; Maarouf, 2019; Mitchell, 2018; Fabregues et al., 2020; Siddiqui, 2019; Wium and Louw, 2018). The qualitative approach explores the richness, depth, and complexity of the nexus between tourism and poverty

alleviation by applying the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework in the Chitomborwizi community. Furthermore, qualitative research provided an in-depth description of procedures, beliefs, and knowledge that communities of Chitomborwizi East have on pro-poor tourism development. Qualitative research allowed for a systematic investigation of how research participants interpreted events in their social environment (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008; Fabregues et al., 2020; Maarouf, 2019; Saddiqui, 2019; Kajamaa et al., 2020). Though qualitative research is recognised for contextual depth, its research is not always reliable and therefore generalisation of findings becomes difficult (Kelliher, 2005; Cresswell, 2015a). By adopting a pragmatic philosophy, the researcher used qualitative and quantitative data concurrently to confirm, corroborate and cross-validate research findings (Takashorri and Tedlie, 2008; Kansteiner and Konig, 2020; Maarouf, 2019; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). Quantitative data on the other hand is generalisable and can explain relationships uncovered by qualitative data.

To answer the research questions, data were collected by concurrently distributing questionnaires to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi who constitute the potential domestic tourism demand and by conducting semi-structured interviews with community members in Chitomborwizi East to gain insights into the qualitative aspects of the research. The use of mixed methods was advantageous because the statistics from quantitative research brought precision to qualitative extrapolations while narratives expanded the statistical comprehension of the research study. Mixed methods helped to achieve a common understanding of research and strengthen conclusions drawn from the research (Cresswell, 2015a; 2015b; Johnson, 2018; O’Cathain et al., 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Hitchcock, 2015; Schoonenboom and Johnson, 2017). Mixed methods were used to develop one method by another (Bishop, 2015). Using mixed methods data collection and analysis integrates findings and draws conclusions using quantitative and qualitative data (Cresswell, 2015b; Cresswell et al., 2011; Schoonenboom and Johnson, 2017).

However, despite its strengths, the mixed methods approach has serious shortcomings. Selection of suitable sample sizes, especially for sequential sampling, is compromised by unequal weightings of qualitative and quantitative research (Glogowka, 2011). Furthermore, integration of qualitative and quantitative data makes comparison between large scale quantitative data and

small-scale qualitative data a challenge (Wium and Louw, 2018). Dissemination of mixed methods findings is less acceptable, a reason why mixed methods researchers publish paradigm-aligned research outputs (Irwin et al., 2014). Finally, mixed method approaches are costly and require a huge time investment (Bishop, 2015; Cresswell et al., 2011; Glogowka, 2011). Because mixed methods are complex due to the integration of more than one paradigm, use of a variety of qualitative and quantitative methods and different time orientations, the researcher recruited fieldworkers and underwent Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) training to be able to handle mixed methods better (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003; Bishop, 2015). SPSS training sharpened the researcher's statistical skills.

5.2.5 Sampling

In mixed methods, sampling is very important in the research process because it affects credibility, reliability, and validity of the research findings (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2017). Despite its importance, sampling is relatively under-researched in mixed methods (Collins and Onwuegbuzie, 2013; Onwegbuzie and Collins, 2014). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Wium and Louw (2018) make the point that mixed methods sampling designs make use of time orientation and the relationship between qualitative and quantitative sampling procedures. In mixed methods research, qualitative and quantitative research dimensions can be applied sequentially or concurrently (Bishop, 2015; Cresswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Morse and Niehaus, 2009). In mixed methods four sampling procedures are evident under concurrent and sequential designs as shown in Figure 5.5.

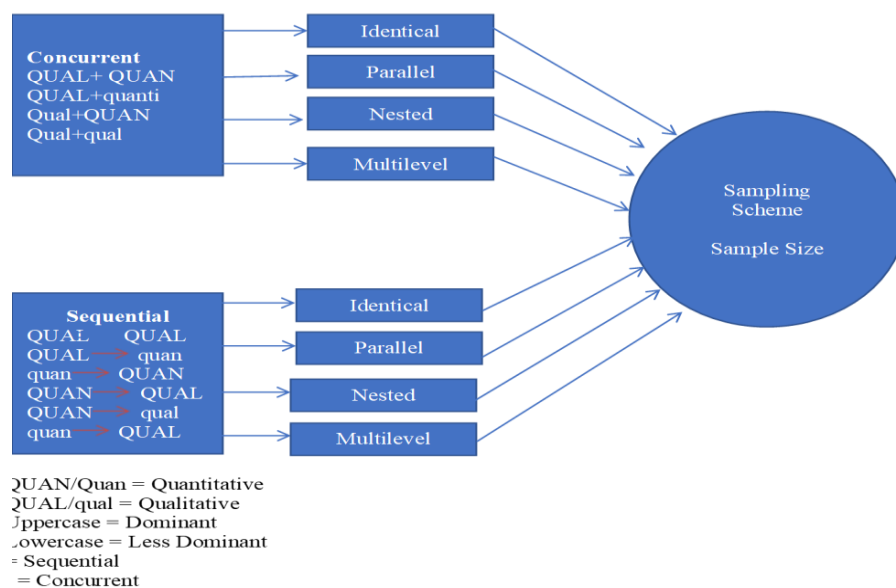


Figure 5.5: Two-Dimensional Mixed-Methods Sampling Model Providing a Typology of Mixed-Methods Sampling Designs

Source: Collins et al. (2014)

An identical relationship exists when the same sample is used for both qualitative and quantitative research whilst in a parallel relationship different samples are drawn from the same population (Cresswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In a nested relationship a subset of the same sample used in one phase is selected for the next phase. The last relationship component is a multilevel one which implies the use of different samples for different populations involved in the study. The research on tourism development potential in Chitomborwizi Ward used a concurrent parallel sampling method for quantitative and qualitative research that was drawn from the residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi Town and community members of Chitomborwizi East Ward.

Sampling refers to the process in which subjects from the study population are selected to participate in the research (Abrams, 2010; Sarantakos, 2005). The researcher used non-probability sampling methods to select community respondents as well as key informants in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Non-probability refers to a sampling method where each sampling unit has an unequal chance of being selected (Etikan et al., 2016; Jennings, 2010; Taherdoost, 2016a). Key informants were purposively sampled to participate in the study. Purposive sampling techniques involve

selecting respondents to address a particular purpose (Taherdoost, 2016b; Teddlie and Yu, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003a). It is a sampling technique where research participants are selected from the population (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2008) based on the knowledge they possess about the topic of study. In this research a variation of purposive sampling – maximum variation sampling – was used to select respondents from diverse sectors that play a key role in tourism development (Etikan et al., 2016). The respondents were considered to have information that by virtue of their positions and authority would give insights into the potential development of tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward. These respondents included the Chitomborwizi Community Leadership, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA), Area Councillor, and Environmental Management Authority (EMA), District Administrator of Makonde District, District and Provincial Cultural Officers, Chief Executive Officer of Makonde District and Agricultural Extension Workers of Makonde District. In total, twelve respondents were purposively sampled. Purposive sampling was direct and less time-consuming despite the lack of generalisability of the findings (Taherdoost, 2016a).

Convenience sampling, another form of non-probability sampling, was used to sample households in the small-scale farming area of Chitomborwizi East because the research was conducted during the rainy season when many farming households were inaccessible by road. Therefore, those households that were geographically close by, had time at their disposal and were willing to participate in the research were selected as respondents. Despite making use of non-probability sampling in qualitative research, sample size matters.

Generally, the sample sizes for qualitative research are relatively small (Henning et al., 2004; Taherdoost, 2016a) because using smaller sizes emphasises the depth of understanding instead of the breadth of data (Neumann, 2006). Ritchie et al. (2003) supported small sample sizes to avoid diminishing returns that arise when the sample sizes get bigger and no new information is generated. In support of this principle, Mason (2010) commented that qualitative samples must be large enough to ensure that important perceptions are uncovered without being repetitive. Charmaz (2006, p.114), for example, suggests "25 respondents for small scale research projects"; Ritchie et al. (2003) propose that qualitative samples should be "below fifty"; while Green and

Thorogood (2009; 2004) state that in interview studies little that is “new” comes out of transcripts after interviewing 20 or so people. This researcher therefore sampled 30 farming homesteads in Chitombirwizi East Ward and 12 key informants. In total 42 semi-structured interviews were conducted. Whilst there are no closely defined rules for sample size to obtain rich data (Baum 2016; Ezzy, 2002), sampling in qualitative research usually relies on small numbers.

Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi has a population of 617 households (Chinhoyi Town Council, 2002) from which a sample of 350 respondents was drawn. Probability sampling involves selecting a relatively large number of units from a population in a random manner where the probability of inclusion of every member is determinable (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003a p. 73). The residents of Gunhill were systematically sampled from a list of households that were obtained from the Chinhoyi Town Council. Systematic random sampling was used to sample respondents from a sampling frame of 617 households. The sample size was determined by selecting 50% of the respondents because sampling guidelines dictate that if a population size is less than 100 a census should be conducted; 50% of the population should be selected from a population of 500 respondents or less; 20% should be sampled when the population is around 1 500; and 400 respondents if the population is made up of 5 000 and above subjects (Adwok, 2015). In this research, 350 households were sampled to make up for respondents who drop out or fail to return distributed questionnaires. Therefore, the researcher managed to collect and analyse 350 questionnaires which was more than 50% of the respondents. This meant that the research obtained 100 more questionnaires over and above the acceptable sample of 250 questionnaires. This sizable sample enabled the researcher to generalise the findings.

5.2.6 Data Collection

Secondary data refer to the collection of data that were originally used for other purposes (Sadan, 2017). Publications from the government, private sector, trade associations, global institutions, past theses, books, and scholarly journals from electronic data bases of North West University and the University of Derby were major sources of secondary data. The researcher chose to use secondary data because they were readily available (Doolan and Frolicher, 2009; Johnston, 2014; Rengamsy, 2017; Smith, 2008). The secondary data that were collected were of

high quality because some of the data comprised reports that were generated at national level where a high level of precision was required. Secondary data also informed the formulation of hypotheses and the development of research questions that were critical in the collection of primary data. However, the major disadvantage of secondary data was that the data were not collected with the intention to answer the research questions that were formulated by the researcher. Since the researcher was not present when secondary data were collected, she did not have a thorough overview of all the research processes that yielded them (Boslaugh, 2007; Doolan and Froelicher, 2009; Johnston, 2014; Rengamsy, 2017). As a result, the quality of the data could not be substantiated. Some of the content of the research could have been omitted from publication because of ethical issues that require anonymity of respondents. To address the gap from secondary data collection, the researcher then resorted to primary data collection to answer the research questions and test hypotheses. Primary data deal with collection of data from the original data source. Primary data were preferred because the data collected were current, accurate and more relevant in addressing the demands of the research question and testing of the hypotheses. Unfortunately collecting primary data was time consuming for the researcher since a full month was spent in the field. Primary data were collected using semi-structured interviews and questionnaires.

5.2.6.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

Structured, unstructured, focus group and semi-structured interviews are the different types of interviews popular in tourism research to achieve a diversity of objectives. In this research, semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from key informants and farming households in Chitomborwizi East. An interview is a two-way direct verbal communication between interviewer and interviewee (DeJonckheere and Vaughn, 2019; O’Keffe et al., 2016; Sidhu, 1984). A semi-structured interview is a dialogue between the researcher and the participant that is guided by a flexible interview protocol complemented by follow-up questions (Alsaawi, 2014). Through semi-structured interviews the interviewer explored the feelings, thoughts, perceptions, and beliefs of research subjects (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Choak, 2012; DeJonckheere and Vaughn, 2019). Interview participants, being experts in their own field, shared valuable research information (O’Keffe et al., 2016). During the interview process, misrepresentation of the questions by the

interviewee was controlled because the interviewer restructured and clarified some questions. Separate interview guides were developed for rural households and key informants depending on the research questions addressed by each. Using the principles of DeJonckheere and Vaughn, (2019), the semi-structured interview questions were split into four categories to facilitate easier data collection, as follows:

- Grand questions (Generic questions to initiate interview and establish rapport).
- Core questions (related to the research questions).
- Planned follow-up questions (response to core questions).
- Unplanned responses (responses to the interviewer's questions).

The researcher piloted the interview guides with ten participants from Chitomborwizi East and all key informants who took part in the research. This was done to satisfy the credibility, confirmability, and dependability of the interview findings (Chenail, 2011; Kallio et al., 2016; Turner, 2010). In addition, the promoter provided further guidance on the sequencing and design of questions in the interview guide. Poorly worded and redundant questions were removed from the interview guide. The researcher and the fieldworkers conducted interviews in April 2019 in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Zimbabwe for a period of two weeks.

The interview questions captured the following content based on the SLAF (Chambers and Conway, 1992; Scoones, 1998; Max-Neef et al., 2006; Jaegerman, 2015)

- Sustainable livelihoods options pursued by people in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Makonde District;
- Assessment of tourism resources in Chitomborwizi East Ward;
- Perceptions of stakeholders of tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward;
- Pro-poor tourism strategies that could be implemented in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

To conduct research in Chitomborwizi East Ward, the researcher sought permission from the Ministry of Provincial Affairs in Mashonaland West. 30 households and 12 key informants took part in the research. Thirty households were deemed an acceptable number because saturation point – which is that point at which the researcher noticed a repetition of responses from the

interviewees – was reached. Before data collection began, the researcher sought informed consent of respondents. A consent form was signed by the respondent as evidence that they took part in the research willingly. During the interviews, consent was sought to record the responses in both a notebook and on a tape recorder to increase dependability and trustworthiness of data collected. The recorded data were then transcribed during the data analysis phase.

Semi-structured interviews were deemed ideal because they enabled the exploration of context-specific information. The researcher was privileged to observe some body cues that were critical in interpretation of interview findings (Alsaawi, 2014). However, the interviews demanded a great deal of time to contact and set up appointments with interviewees and to analyse the data (Siedman, 2012). Other drawbacks of this method could be bias, a factor which is cited in analysis and interpretation of interview findings because the researcher may misinterpret the respondents' responses. Dominance of the interviewer over the interviewee could also have influenced interview outcomes. Moreover, the presence of the interviewer could have influenced the interviewee to provide superficial responses (Mathiyazhagan and Nandan, 2010). (See Appendix 1 and 2 for the interview guides).

5.2.6.2 Questionnaires

350 questionnaires were self-administered to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi. Self-administered questionnaires were chosen because they saved the researcher time and made it possible to distribute questionnaires over a large geographical space with ease (Bowling, 2009; Gwaltney, 2008). Gunhill residents constituted the potential domestic tourism demand of Chitomborwizi East Ward. The open-ended and closed questions provided in-depth and statistical information to construct meaning out of the research findings (Akbayrak, 2000; Patel and Joseph, 2016). Closed questions generated standard responses which increased the reliability of the instrument and made coding of responses much easier. The open-ended questions were made up of a combination of dichotomous, multiple-choice and rank order questions (Houser, 2011; Polit and Beck, 2017). The response formats were either nominal, in which case the responses were in mutually exclusive categories such as gender, profession, and marital status among other factors; or ordinal responses made up of Likert scale-type questions that range from “strongly agree” to

“strongly disagree”. An “other” component was included at the end of each closed question to avoid restricting respondents to pre-defined questions (Bird, 2009; O’ Neill and McGuirk, 2005and). Regrettably, closed questions were biased because they compelled respondents to make choices from a set of given alternatives only. Open-ended questions gave more insight into the research, but the content required was variable to the extent that more time was required for analysis of data (Patel and Joseph, 2016).

To guarantee its reliability and validity, the questionnaire was pilot tested with 100 respondents from Gunhill suburb. After the pilot test, some questions were removed from the instrument due to ambiguity. Data collection took place during the same period that interviews were conducted (Irwin et al., 2014). Questionnaires were the preferred instruments because they are affordable, and it was easier for the respondents to respond to the research questions at their convenience. Unfortunately, questionnaires have a poor response rate, high question omission rates, and targeted literate respondents, thus excluding illiterate or poorly literate ones. (See Appendix 3 for the questionnaire)

5.2.7 Data Analysis

Mixed methods data analysis is shown in Figure 5.6. Data analysis involves organising and interrogating data to identify themes, relationships and generate theories (Hatch, 2002). The researcher collected qualitative and quantitative data concurrently from Chitomborwizi East Ward Community and Gunhill suburb, respectively. Data from semi-structured interviews were analysed using thematic analysis while data from questionnaires were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Once the analysis was completed, merging of corresponding identities from qualitative and quantitative data followed to triangulate the findings (Cresswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Da Cunha et al., 2017; Driscoll et al., 2007). Consequently, combining data from both methods produced rich insights into the phenomenon this study sought to investigate. The qualitative research findings helped to further explain the quantitative research findings (Alavi and Håbek, 2018) and to corroborate and cross-validate research findings.

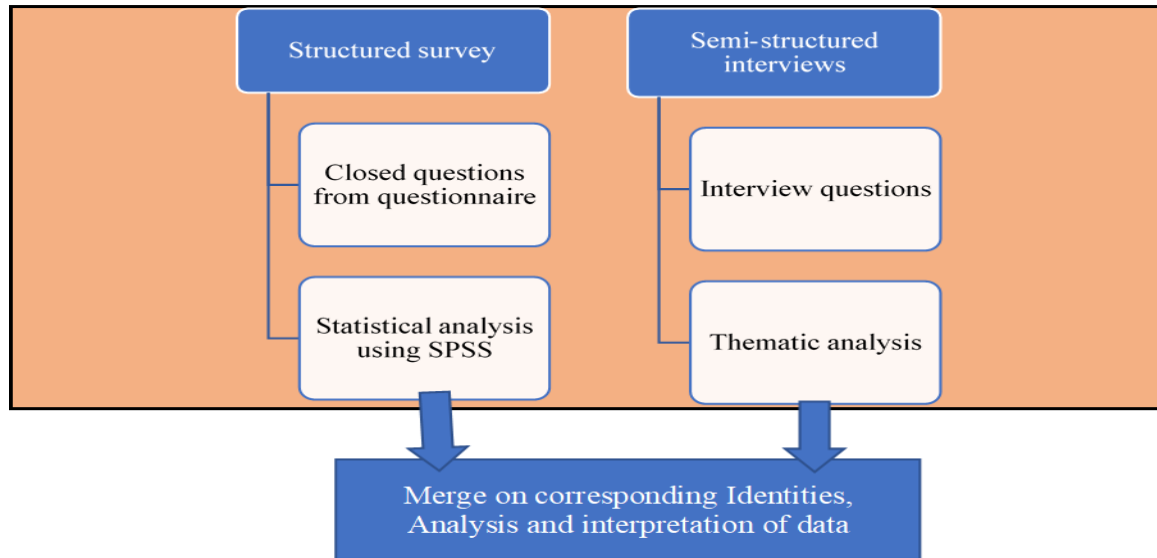


Figure 5.6: The Framework for Data Analysis in Mixed Methods

5.2.7.1 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is a method of qualitative data analysis used for analysing, describing and organising data into themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). A framework by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used to conduct thematic analysis as shown in Figure 5.7. The first stage of thematic analysis was data reduction. To achieve this, the researcher tabulated the interview question responses from the key informants and farm households. Once the data were tabulated, the researcher then analysed the responses of each respondent per question to identify similarities and differences between responses given by interview subjects. After this exercise was completed, common responses were then broken down into smaller themes that were developed. The data were shared with an independent reviewer to check the reliability of the themes that the researcher had developed in line with research objectives and collected data. Feedback from the external reviewer formed the basis for further refining the developed themes. Data were then displayed in narrative texts and quotations.

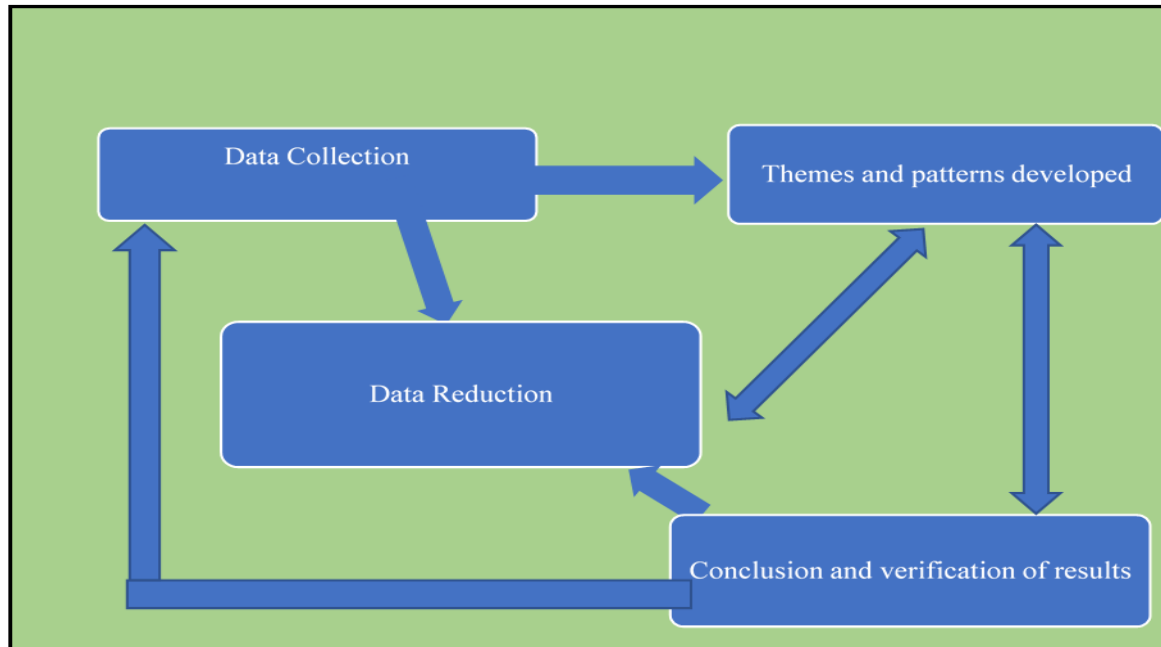


Figure 5.7: Thematic Analysis

Source: Adapted from Miles and Huberman (1994)

5.2.7.2 Quantitative data analysis

The responses from the questionnaire were analysed using the SPSS which made statistical analysis and graphical presentation of the survey data easier. Responses from the data contained in the 350 questionnaires distributed to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi were mainly categorical. As a result, descriptive statistics such as frequency tables, graphs and pie charts were generated. Additionally, cross tabulations were used to test the relationships between dependent and independent variables in categorical data sets. The relationship between tourism travel vis-a-vis gender, age, income, age, and marital status was explored using cross tabulations. Inferential statistics were generated by testing the significance of the association between categorical values at 5% confidence interval using the Pearson Chi-Square as categorical and quantitative variables. A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out to test the relationship between travel expenditure (dependent variable) and the demographic variables of age, gender, income level and level of education (dependent variables). A p-value which is more than 0.05 indicates that the means are not statistically different whereas a p-value less than 0.05 indicates that the means are

statistically different. In the former the null hypothesis is rejected whereas in the latter it is accepted.

5.2.8 Reliability and Validity of Quantitative research

Reliability and validity are concepts used in research to measure the accuracy of quantitative research (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Validity is concerned with ascertaining whether measuring instruments measure what they were intended to measure (Thatcher, 2010). Content validity deals with the extent to which an empirical measurement matches a specific area of content. The researcher developed questions that were aligned to the research questions. The questionnaire was reviewed by the researcher's supervisor to guarantee its validity.

Reliability refers to the ability of a research instrument to yield consistently the same results over repeated testing periods for similar or comparable subjects (Cresswell, 2009). The researcher did a Cronbach alpha test to test the internal reliability for twenty questions in Section C of the questionnaire which comprised a 7-point Likert scale from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree". Cronbach alpha is a coefficient of reliability that was used to test the covariance of the multiscale items in the questionnaire (Chmielewski and Watson, 2009; Cronbach and Shavelson, 2004). Once the questionnaire was developed it was pilot tested with 100 respondents in Gunhill suburb. Data from the questionnaires were coded, entered in SPSS and a Cronbach Alpha test was done. Ursachi et al. (2015, p. 681) commented that a generally accepted rule is that an α of 0.6-0.7 indicates an acceptable level of reliability, and 0.8 or greater a very good level (Ursachi et al., 2015). Ranges of α between 0.70 to 0.95 are also acceptable (Bernstein et al., 1994; DeVellis, 2003; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Values above 0.95 indicate redundancy in the instrument whereas lower values communicate a low number of questions or poor interrelatedness between questions. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.902 was obtained for Likert scale questions in Section C of the questionnaire, as shown in Table 5.3. The section contains twenty questions that evaluate destination characteristics. This confirmed that the instrument was reliable.

Table 5.3: Cronbach Alpha Value

CRONBACH'S ALPHA	CRONBACH'S ALPHA BASED ON STANDARDISED ITEMS	N OF ITEMS
0.902	0.904	20

5.2.9 Data Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research

Trustworthiness refers to criteria for evaluating the scientific merit of qualitative research (Leininger, 1991; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The authors provided the following criteria for achieving trustworthiness of data:

- credibility;
- transferability;
- dependability;
- confirmability.

5.2.9.1 Credibility

Credibility establishes that the interpretation made by the researcher represents respondents' views (Hadi and Closs, 2016; ; Korstjens and Moser, 2018; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). To guarantee credibility, the researcher made use of pro-poor tourism research methods that were utilised by other organisations that do work on tourism and poverty alleviation. The SLA framework that is used by ODI in livelihood analysis was used to determine if tourism is a sustainable livelihood strategy that is worth pursuing in the study area. To further enhance credibility, the researcher had prolonged engagement with community leadership and farmers of Chitomborwizi East Ward to build mutual trust and rapport to allow detailed data collection (Morse, 2015; Lincoln and Guba, 1981; 1985). The familiarisation process was critical to understand the cultures prevalent in the area. In addition, the researcher sought consent before interviewing respondents or giving them a questionnaire. Seeking consent of subjects allowed them to give their information freely.

Use of iterative questioning allowed the researcher to test for truthfulness in the responses given by the respondents (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Similar questions from the interview guide

were asked differently to test if the responses were consistent. Inconsistency of responses was a sign of false information being given by the respondents. In such cases, some of the information was discarded.

The interview guide was reviewed by the researcher's peers. The researcher shared the research instruments with colleagues who have in-depth knowledge in the field of tourism. From the feedback provided, the researcher refined the interview guide to facilitate accurate data collection. Moreover, the interview guide was also piloted with a few of the community respondents. Interview responses from the pilot study shaped the review of the research instrument in line with the research objectives.

The researcher sought consent from the respondents to record the interviews. At the end of each interview the researcher asked the respondents to listen to a replay of the recorded interview. This was meant to confirm if the recording was a true reflection of their responses. In addition to the audio recordings, the researcher also recorded responses in her notebook. These notes and interview recordings were transcribed during thematic analysis of qualitative data. In the process, the researcher persistently read interview transcripts and listened to recorded audios. By so doing the researcher gained in-depth knowledge from interview responses.

Peer debriefing was done to increase the credibility of the study (Hadi and Closs, 2016; ; Ghafouri et al., 2016; Rapport and Braithwaite, 2018). The researcher's supervisor acted as the peer debriefer by encouraging the researcher to think critically and appreciate multiple perspectives on the research problem. In addition, the researcher also consulted other researchers who are experts in qualitative research to provide additional guidance. The peer debriefing assisted the researcher to develop new insights and impressions about the research process (Liamputtong, 2010; Streubert and Carpenter, 2015; Tabatabee et al., 2013).

5.2.9.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the generalisability of research findings (Korstjens and Moser, 2018; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Morse, 2015; Padget, 2008; Tobin and Begley, 2004). Qualitative

research focusses on a small group of respondents and therefore it is not generalisable. However, the researcher provided in-depth information of the research process to make the research comparable to similar cases in future. Provision of detailed contextual information would make it possible for another researcher to make detailed inferences about the application of pro-poor tourism findings to other settings (Cope, 2014; Ghafouri and Ofoghi, 2016; Gray, 2017; Hadi and Closs, 2016; Rapport and Braithwaite, 2018).

5.2.9.3 Dependability

Dependability is a critical aspect of ensuring trustworthiness of research (Tobin and Begley, 2004; Ghafouri and Ofoghi, 2016; Moon et al., 2016). To achieve dependability, the research processes were explained in detail with emphasis being placed on the research design and its implementation, data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The research process must be logical, traceable, and repeatable if dependability is to be satisfied (Ferero et al., 2018).

5.2.9.4 Confirmability

Triangulation, creation of an audit trail and development of a reflective journal are methods of achieving confirmability that were used in this research. The process of data collection and theory development were achieved by the creation of an audit trail. Self-reflective journals, transcripts and reports produced richer findings to expand knowledge on pro-poor tourism development.

5.3 Ethical process

The researcher sought informed consent before interviews were conducted. All questionnaires that were distributed in Gunhill Suburb had a consent letter attached. All the respondents and participants signed the consent forms to show willingness to participate in the research. No information that could identify the respondent in person was asked. All interview participants were verbally informed of the purpose of the research. In the case of the interviews no personal identification was possible of the participants. At the end of each semi-structured interview, participants were debriefed of the research outcomes to validate their findings.

Participants were further informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any given point in time provided data analysis has not been done. Interviews were conducted in the respondents' usual place of residence/work to ensure that they were protected from any physical harm. Similarly, questionnaires were distributed at the respondents' homesteads. The researcher made sure that all questions in the semi-structured interview guide and questionnaire did not trigger any emotions. Lastly, confidentiality was maintained throughout by ensuring that names of respondents remained anonymous. All questionnaires, interview transcripts and interview recordings were only available to the researcher and supervisor. All documents are password protected and will be kept as part of the database of North West University. In fulfilment of the ethical process, the researcher submitted her proposal to the ethics committee of Tourism Management which awarded ethical clearance: NWU: 00717-20-A4.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This research adopted a pragmatic philosophy which promotes the melding of qualitative and quantitative research. Pragmatism contradicts the claims that quantitative and qualitative research methods are incompatible. The researcher used mixed methods because methodological choices are affected by the solutions desired for a research problem and not deep-seated paradigm wars (c.h. Chapter 6). Deductive and inductive approaches were used for quantitative and qualitative and research, respectively. The deductive approach made it possible to generate and test hypotheses and generalise the research findings. Concurrent mixed methods designs were adopted to offset the weaknesses of reliance only qualitative or only quantitative research.

A case study strategy was used to study the community of Chitomborwizi East. The case study made it possible to establish the in-depth perceptions of residents on pro-poor tourism development. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from households in Chitomborwizi East. The semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to obtain as much information as possible by probing the respondents further to seek clarity on some responses. The interviews made it possible for the interviewer to clarify questions in situations where the

interviewees lacked comprehension. However, the interviews required a great deal of time and money.

A survey strategy was used to collect quantitative data. 350 questionnaires were distributed to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi to collect data on tourism demand. Self-administered questionnaires were cheap and easy to distribute. However, some questionnaires were returned unanswered, probably because some respondents were illiterate. Also, the interviewer was unavailable to provide clarity on some questions that were left unanswered in the questionnaire.

Qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis whereas quantitative data were analysed using SPSS. Descriptive and inferential statistics in the form of Chi-Square tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used in the analysis of quantitative data. Identical qualitative and quantitative research findings were merged and discussed as per mixed methods requirements.

CHAPTER

EMPIRICAL ANALYSES: RESOURCE ANALYSIS AND STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN CHITOMBORWIZI EAST

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis and interpretation of data that were collected using semi-structured interviews from 42 respondents and 350 questionnaires from residents of Gunhill Suburb in Chinhoyi Town. Thirty participants from Chitomborwizi East Farms were selected to answer 18 questions contained in an interview guide that was developed, based on a critical review of related literature. 12 key informants were also interviewed and therefore a total of 42 interviews were conducted including 30 farmers. The analysis and discussion of findings are based on the objectives that are stated below.

Added to the first part of the research, 12 key informants were purposively interviewed to establish their perceptions of tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. In addition, 30 farmers were also interviewed. In total 42 respondents were interviewed. The responses from the interviews are analysed using thematic analysis in this chapter. Thematic analysis is a method of qualitative data analysis used for analysing, describing, and organising data into themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Interview respondents were coded from 1 to 42. Common responses were then broken down into small themes. Feedback from an external reviewer formed the basis for further refinement of the developed themes. Data were then displayed in narrative texts and quotations.

It is the purpose of this chapter to present, analyse and discuss findings from the questionnaires distributed to Gunhill residents and interviews conducted with small-scale farmers. Pro-poor tourism resource analysis was conducted in Chitomborwizi East to determine its tourism potential by exploring the perceptions of key informants and farmers towards tourism development. This chapter also discusses the potential for domestic tourism by analysing questionnaires collected from Gunhill residents.

6.2 Results of the Qualitative Research

The section analysed the data from the interviews of farmers and key informants pertaining to pro-poor tourism.

6.2.1 Understanding the Participants in the Qualitative Research

This section describes the characteristics of small-scale farmers in Chitombirwizi East in order to give a detailed profile of the nature of participants.

6.2.1.1 Demographic Details of the Small-Scale Farmers

This section analysed the demographic data of the farmers such as gender, educational level, income, period of residence in Chitomborwizi East Ward and size of the farm owned. Thirty of the small-scale farmers participated in the research. Selected farming information is also included as it related to their current livelihood and it will influence the development of tourism. Table 6.1 below shows the bio data of the participants.

Table 6.1: Demographic profile of Small-Scale Farmers

Age	Number
20-29	3
30-39	5
40-49	5
50-59	3
60-69	10
70-79	2
80-89	1
90-99	1
Total	30
Gender	
Male	21
Female	9
	30
Education Level	
Primary School (Grade 7)	18
Secondary (ZJC)	8
Secondary (O level)	3
Tertiary	1
Total	30

Income	
No records	14
US\$ 100-US\$ 500	6
>501-1000	1
>1000	9
Total	30
Years of Residence	
<10	4
11-20	1
21-30	4
31-40	3
41-50	3
51-60	1
61-70	12
71-80	0
81-90	1
>91	1
Total	30
Farm Size	
20-30 ha	1
31-50	1
51-79	18
80-99	7
100-119	1
>120	2
Total	30

As shown in Table 6.1, 17 of the farmers were 50 years and older. These comprised the first generation of the farm owners and their descendants. Fourteen of the participants were in the 60—79 years old age group because most of these were retirees who had relocated from urban to rural areas. Only 11 participants of the interviewees were between 20-49 years old because a significant number of this economically active age group had migrated to urban areas and other countries in search of better livelihood opportunities. Abel et al. (2013) revealed that migrants had left the country due to the prevailing harsh economic conditions.

Twenty-one of the participants were males because in the traditional African family structure – particularly in the Shona tribe – males head households. This supports the findings by Mutami (2015) and Toro (2016) who mentioned that households in all land tenure systems were predominantly patriarchal. Land administration in rural areas remained patriarchal since male chiefs and male headmen work together to distribute land according to male family names

(Makwara, 2015). This was the reason why, at most of the homesteads, women referred the interviewer to the men. Nine of the female participants were either widowed or divorced, or their husbands were at the fields at the time of visit or were employed in distant cities and towns. In cases where the men had migrated to urban areas in search of better employment prospects, the women took charge of agricultural production and headed the household temporarily.

Twenty-six of the participants held Zimbabwe Junior Certificate (ZJC) and Grade 7 qualifications, hence there were low levels of literacy amongst farmers in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Three of the respondents had 'O' level whilst only one participant had a tertiary qualification. Most of the participants indicated that they did not proceed beyond ZJC because financial resources were not available to fund their education. As a result, farming remained the only viable option for survival for the participants because of the farming experience they had accumulated by virtue of having been born and brought up on the farms. Participant 14 bemoaned composite classes as a contributing factor to poor quality results from the primary and secondary schools in Chitomborwizi East. With a poor general educational background, progression to tertiary education is unlikely to occur. Participant 10 lamented that “....one teacher is supposed to teach two levels to achieve a teacher-to-student ratio of 1:4” and went on to say that the chances of community members having relevant tourism and hospitality tertiary qualifications were rare since progression to tertiary level was compromised by the current education system.

Low literacy levels also affected farming operations and any other possible further development initiatives such as tourism. Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (2012) mentioned that the high rate of illiteracy of small-holder farmers denied community members access to formal agri-business learning institutions. Respondent 27 mentioned that to compensate for their deficient literacy, farmers relied on their farming experience and sporadic visits from government agricultural extension workers who provided farming advice. Nevertheless, possession of an agricultural qualification translated to better decision-making and implementation of contemporary farming practices that improved productivity (Masvongo et al., 2013). Participant 13 reiterated that with no substantial income from farming, poverty alleviation and livelihoods diversification could not be achieved.

Fourteen of the participants were unaware of the income they generated from farming operations because they did not keep any farming records. Participant 12 said the absence of farm records made it impossible for farmers to determine profitability and identify problem areas that required attention. Farmers may have a keen interest in keeping records, but lack of relevant record- management competences – which correlated with poor educational qualifications – was a major constraint. Hahlani and Garwi (2014) proposed the involvement of agriculture extension workers in helping farmers set up farm records. Unfortunately, the African Development Bank (2019) cast doubt on the proposition because shortage of finances hampered provision of extension services by the government. Participants 2 and 3 were of the view that the income generated from farming activities was too low to warrant record keeping. Surprisingly, even in the absence of farm records, nine of the farmers claimed they made more than US\$1000 annually from exported tobacco. Six of the farmers who made between US\$100 and US\$500 were non-tobacco growers who were unable to mobilise labour and inputs required to participate in tobacco farming. They later resorted to maize production for household consumption and sold the surplus to the Grain Marketing Board. Horticulture also supplemented farm incomes.

Twenty-five of the farmers had farm sizes of between 50-99 hectares. Participant 15 commented that despite having these medium-sized farms, full utilisation was unachievable because farmers lacked financial resources to purchase farm inputs such as seed, fertiliser and farm equipment. Chisango (2017) makes the point that only having land access was inadequate because financial resources were required to convert land into a productive resource. Furthermore, Participant 18 commented that farm mechanisation was a source of value-added agricultural tourism activity that had a direct impact on the growth of rural economies. In addition, Participant 8 commented that being in possession of large tracts of land was no guarantee of increased farm productivity unless other factors essential to production were accounted for.

Fifteen of the participants had lived in Chitomborwizi East Ward for ten or more years, either as original owners of the farms or as first, second and third generation descendants of the original owners. One would expect these respondents to have advanced in farming operations and

to have implemented diversification strategies such as tourism, given the prolonged period they had stayed in the farming area. However, Participant 11 said farm productivity remained below par because farmers were not able to marshal all the resources required for agriculture production.

6.2.1.2 The Profile of Key Informants

The interviewer had face-to-face interviews with 12 key informants. The participants were purposively sampled based on their ability to give information on pro-poor tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Appendix 2 shows the interview guide that was used to interview key informants. The participants were from Ward leadership as well as ministries and parastatals that play an active or supportive role in tourism development. Table 6.2 shows a summary of the key participants.

Table 6.2: Profile of Key Informants

RESPONDENT	RESPONDENT CODE	GENDER
District Administrator	31	Male
Agriculture extension worker: Livestock	32	Male
Agriculture extension worker (Arex): Crop Production	33	Male
Provincial Cultural Officer (Ministry of Rural Planning and Development)	34	Female
Public Administrator (Ministry of Rural Planning and Development)	35	Male
Chief Executive Officer (Makonde Rural District Council	36	Female
District Cultural Officer	37	Male
Zimbabwe Tourism Authority Representative	38	Male
Area Councillor	39	Male
Environmental Management Agency representative	40	Male
Zimbabwe National Water Authority Representative	41	Male

Ministry of Cooperative Development Representative	42	Female
Total Number of Respondents	12	

The interviewees comprised the Makonde District Chief Executive Officer and District Administrator who were mandated to oversee the running of Makonde District where Chitomborwizi East Ward is located. Provincial agriculture extension workers were interviewed with a view to comprehending crop and livestock production in Chitomborwizi East since farmers in the area practised mixed farming. The livestock division together with other state institutions also played a critical role in issuing licenses to fishing cooperatives. Interviews were also conducted with public administrators and cultural officers from the Ministry of Rural Planning and Development. The Ministry was responsible for the promotion of rural development through numerous initiatives which included tourism. The Ward Councillor was also interviewed to establish the position of local leadership on pro-poor tourism development.

Two of the participants were females whilst ten were males. Twelve of the participants were aged between 30 to 52 years of age because this was the economically active age group who were gainfully employed. All participants had a minimum of a tertiary qualification since ministerial positions required a certain level of qualifications commensurate with roles assigned to individuals.

A week prior to the interviews, the researcher made appointments with participants and sought consent from the interviewees to conduct and record interviews for future reference during data analysis. All key informants were coded from numbers 31 to 42 to ensure anonymity. During data analysis, the interviewer listened to the interview recordings before any analysis and interpretation were done. The responses of the key informants were similarly thematically analysed. First the responses were coded and thereafter themes were generated to analyse, interpret, and discuss the findings. In cases where similar themes emerged from interviews of farmers and key informants, the findings were analysed under a common theme.

The themes that emerged from the interview questions were farming and environmental challenges; possible tourism opportunities; and stakeholder perceptions on tourism development.

6.2.2 *Resources for Pro-Poor Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Zimbabwe*

The section provides information on tourism resources in Chitomborwizi East. The research findings presented in this section were derived from key informants and small-scale commercial farmers. Even though this study focuses on the development it was clear from the onset that farming, and farming activities are very important to the participants. To determine the possible potential of tourism as part of agri-tourism it was necessary to gain detailed information on their current livelihood which is farming. A detailed assessment of the farming challenges therefore became necessary given the fact that farming is a resource that the local people can use to attract tourists with limited investment. Therefore, the research aims to lay bare the challenges of farming and their solutions to pave way for tourism development. Agriculture once successful can then be complemented by other resources such as culture and water resources.

6.2.2.1 *Farming Activities*

In this questionnaire the participants were asked what their source of livelihoods was. Participant 23 stated that Makonde Rural District was an agro region divided into the three constituencies of Mhangura, Makonde and Chinhoyi Districts. Maize, tobacco, soya, and cotton production were major farming activities undertaken in Makonde District where Chitomborwizi East District is located. The maize and tobacco output were sold to Grain and Tobacco Marketing Boards. Participant 20 also revealed that livestock rearing was not a major activity because the farms were too small for sustainable livestock rearing. He added that beef and dairy cattle, goats, and chickens (broilers and layers) were common livestock that farmers kept but did so on a small scale. Participant 14 stated that to promote small-stock livestock rearing, the area senator occasionally donated goats and chickens to selected women's groups. Regrettably, such projects were unsustainable livelihood strategies since they collapsed once produce was sold. In the same vein, the Government of Zimbabwe (2017) blamed failure of community ventures on a lack of effective marketing and finance.

Participant 16 commented that nine farmers benefited from a Nestle Dairy project where farmers were contractually offered dairy cows. In return, the farmers were obliged to supply milk daily to Nestle's Zimbabwe depot in Chitomborwizi East for a period of two years. When the contract lapsed, ownership of the cows was transferred to the farmers. This project was an initiative of a local informal development network made up of the local elites. Participant 16 further stated that to promote successful dairy farming, project farmers underwent training at Chibhero Agricultural College in Zimbabwe. Unfortunately, the farmers did not receive training in value-added dairy production activities. Participant 16 further stated that with relevant training and appropriate value-added infrastructure, farmers could exploit opportunities to pursue value-added processing activities in Chitomborwizi East Ward that could attract tourists. However, respondent 36 scoffed at the idea of value addition because he was concerned that the dairy farmers did not even have the necessary silage production equipment to produce silage for their dairy cattle. To him, value addition was an unrealistic idea.

6.2.2.2 **Reliance on Rainfed Agriculture**

Farmers in Chitomborwizi East relied on rain-fed agriculture. Green Climate Fund (2019), Dube, (2016) and Svodziwa (2015) agreed that many smallholder farmers depended on the rains that fall between November and April annually to carry out their farming operations. After the harvest time of the traditional farming season, farmers in Chitomborwizi East shifted their efforts to horticulture production with the aim of getting a steady stream of income throughout the year.

Participant 25 remarked that:

“..... Takazvipa magarden pamenderekedzo yedhamhu saka hatizivi kuti vakuru venzvimbo vanotii nazvo.” Tinorima miriwo totengesa kuChinhoyi. (We just allocated ourselves additional land at the servitude of Chitomborwizi Dam, but we do not know what local authorities will say. We do market gardening in the dry season and sell our produce at farmers' markets in Chinhoyi).

Participant 21 echoed the view that horticultural production provided opportunities for value-added processing activities that could draw leisure and business tourists to Chitomborwizi

East. Participant 17 however, said horticultural production was confronted with numerous challenges. Participant 13 mentioned that the incessant rains that fell during the 2016/2017 farming season saw many farmers venture into horticulture. Consequently, the output during that season was very high. Participant 13 then added that this led to an oversupply of vegetables which forced prices down to unprecedented levels. To prevent such losses, some farmers delayed harvesting their horticultural produce in anticipation of price increases. Participant 11 commented that, regrettably, the delays caused further financial losses because crop quality deteriorated while in the field. Transportation of produce to the horticultural markets escalated the production costs. Participant 13 mentioned that apart from the above-mentioned costs, farmers paid US\$3 per day market fees to Chinhoyi Town Council. As a result, total costs outweighed revenue inflows. This was consistent with the findings by Chiguswa et al. (2013) who said that smallholder farmers sold in highly competitive open markets that offered lower prices for their produce. Crop and livestock markets that offered higher returns on investment should be developed (Muzariri, 2009; Hooman and Rooyen, 2008). Participant 26 had this to say:

“..... Muriwo waimboita 50 cents pabhanduru asi tainge totengesa ne5 cents. Madomasi ataitengesa US\$40 pacrate tatakuatengesa US\$20.” (A bundle of green leafy vegetables whose standard price was 0.50 cents was sold at US\$0.05 cents whereas a crate of tomatoes which normally was sold at US\$40 was reduced to US\$ 20).

Participant 26 further stated that the costs of horticultural production outweighed the revenue generated by the farmers. Maposa et al. (2011)) commented that small rural markets, the high cost of transport to urban markets and inaccessibility to buyers and buyer information further complicated the farmers' position. Participant 25 cited that one elite resident of Chitomborwizi East proposed a horticultural Export Processing Zone to diversify produce markets because farmers were unable to fetch a good price for their vegetables locally.

6.2.2.3 Farmers' Market Challenges

Participant 21 said all the farmers interviewed grew maize for household consumption and for sale to the Grain Marketing Board (GMB). The Government of Zimbabwe Statutory Instrument

235A of 2001 reserved the right of the Grain Marketing Board to be the sole buyer and seller of maize (and Maposa et al., 2011). Participants 21, 22 and 23 complained that fixing of maize prices and delays of payouts to recipients by the GMB compromised farmers' liquidity position. Financial losses were also experienced by farmers when government gazetted prices that were lower than production costs (Muzariri, 2009).

It was evident from the responses that every farming season farmers struggle to secure agriculture inputs. Participant 23 mentioned that as a result it was difficult for farmers to improve agricultural productivity on a year-by-year basis. Participant 33 commented that similar marketing challenges were experienced with livestock sales. Farmers were being exploited by middlemen when they sold livestock. Participant 35 from the Livestock Department remarked:

“Pane vanotenga zvipfuwo zvevarimi nemari dzepasi vozonotengesa nemari yakawanda”.
(There are middlemen who purchase cattle at a lower price from the farmers for resale in more profitable markets.) He further lamented that in the past cattle used to be auctioned locally and the highest bidder would secure a sale. In this way farmers sold their cattle at competitive prices and generated substantial income which contributed to increased agricultural productivity.

Homann and Rooyen (2008) agreed that better markets were needed to enable farmers to price their cattle competitively. Participant 25 said that if farmers did not fetch high prices for their produce from the markets, farming would remain constrained in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Farmers lacked the finances to expand their farming operations to make their farms attractive to agri-tourists. To counter marketing challenges Participant 34 suggested:

“...developing tourism will open up opportunities for farmers to sell their farm produce. The expansion of the farmers' market will aid the farmers to pay their annual farm fees to the Rural District Council which will in turn carry out development projects geared towards improving the living standards of farmers.”

He further emphasised that for tourism to develop, farmers needed financial resources which could be generated from the existing farming operations but unfortunately, this is not currently happening.

6.2.2.4 Financial Impediment

The major impediment to farming was lack of finance. 90% of the interviewees revealed that they had no money to buy farm materials and implements. Participant 38 commented that financial institutions require potential borrowers to securitise their lending with title deeds of a house in the city. Unfortunately, 95% of the farmers do not have such properties in the cities.

In support, Participant 9 observed: “... *hatina mari yekurimisa saka takangorima 10 out of 50 hectares.*” (We have no money to purchase inputs so out of the 50 hectares we are only ploughing 10.)

Participant 9 further observed that financial exclusion arising from stringent lending requirements of financial institutions deterred farmers from accessing loans to buy farm inputs and mechanise farms to improve farm productivity. Makoni (2014) highlights that the exclusion was based on the view of commercial banks that investment in rural areas was non-viable. Participant 9 further reiterated that if lending institutions maintained this stance, underproduction would remain a threat to sustainable farming. Participants 28 and 29 raised concerns that the decline in banks’ financial liquidity had also compounded the situation because some farmers expressed disappointment at their inability to withdraw money from their bank accounts to purchase farm inputs. Participant 14 remarked:

“... the country is cash strapped and so farmers find it hard to access money from their bank accounts to buy inputs. To make matters worse, if one queues for cash at the bank, they manage to withdraw an average of US\$ 20 per cash withdrawal per day. A bag of Compound D fertilizer costs US\$ 25 and Top fertiliser costs US\$ 34, respectively. Therefore, a withdrawal of US\$20 is not enough to afford one bag of fertiliser.”

Participant 14 agreed that successful farming required availability of financial resources to secure farming inputs. The liquidity crunch caused by a decline in the macro-economic conditions in the country made it difficult for farmers to access cash from banks to buy farming inputs. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (2018) claimed that the current liquidity crisis was caused by low investment inflows and the inability of lending institutions to access offshore funds. To address the financial challenges Participant 12 commented that “... some community members sold their livestock to fund farming activities. Consequently, cattle sales reduced the draught power for ploughing because our farms are poorly mechanised.”

Participant 22 reiterated that some farmers had no livestock at all while others resisted the temptation to sell livestock because livestock ownership determined wealth status. In support of the above assertion, Participant 35 said:

“.....*Vamwe varimi havakwanise kutengesa huku kana mbudzi kuti vakwanise kurapa mombe dzavo kana kufirita zvirimwa zvavo.*” (Some farmers are unwilling to sell small livestock, for example chickens and goats, to buy vaccines to treat their livestock or pesticides to spray their crops.)

Participant 41 said cattle lending was an innovative approach to ease financial challenges that affected farmers in Chitomborwizi East. Through this arrangement, farmers used their cattle as security to guarantee bank loans (Bote et al., 2014). Participant 24 commented that in as much as farmers in the Ward hailed the approach, the small herds of cattle they owned reduced their uptake of such loans. He further commented that with such a weak financial position, Chitomborwizi East Ward remained unattractive for agricultural tourism development. It was evident from the responses that the general feeling was that poverty reduction would remain an unachieved goal. Participant 24 mentioned that, despite the above financial challenges, the government had come up with farming support programmes to improve farm productivity. This was backed up by Chigunhah et al. (2020) who mentioned that the government introduced Agriculture Sector Productive Enhancement Facility, Operation Maguta, Champion Farmer Schemes, Presidential Well Wishers' Input Support Scheme, Agriculture Input Support Programme and Command Agriculture Scheme to finance farming, as related by

Interviewee 39:

“...to mitigate financial challenges, the Government of Zimbabwe set up the presidential scheme and the Command Agriculture programme to provide seed and fertilizer to vulnerable farmers. Under the Command Agriculture Scheme farmers obtain seed, fertilizer, chemicals and diesel to support tillage and therefore boost maize production.”

Eight of the participants pointed out that command agriculture inputs were received late in some cases. Participant 28 mentioned that in circumstances when delivery was on time, the input packages were incomplete since farmers received either diesel, fertilizer, herbicides, or a combination of any two inputs. Mutami (2015) lamented the poor performance of these schemes and blamed this on delays in disbursement of funds and inputs to targeted beneficiaries, as well as on nepotism and the dominance of elite and partisan politics. Participants 15 and 16 emphasised the need for improved access to credit lines so that they could purchase inputs before the onset of the farming season. They highlighted that the government schemes perpetuated a serious dependency syndrome from which they wanted to break away. They further reiterated that it was prudent to review these input support schemes to address any shortcomings. Participant 16 further said that the above challenges were peculiar to maize farmers and the same could not be said for tobacco farmers.

Tobacco farmers accessed inputs and technical support from private contract companies such as Zimbabwe Leaf Tobacco, Progressive Leaf Tobacco and Premier Tobacco. Contractual agreements between farmers and private operators obliged farmers to sell their crop output solely to these companies. Participant 25 remarked that

“.... these companies swindle farmers by offering lower market prices for their crop.”

Ncube (2020) criticised contract farming for the unequal relationships between contract companies and farmers where the latter always had a weaker bargaining position. Ideally, contractual agreements should be win-win agreements. Participant 24 said it was regrettable that contract farming benefits were skewed in favour of private contracting firms. Faced with no other

alternatives, Participant 22 commented that many small-holder farmers considered contract farming a solution to their financial woes. He further said that since tobacco was under-priced, small-scale farmers did not generate sufficient income to intensify farming operations to diversify into tourism.

Participant 25 said it was deplorable that not all small-holder farmers benefited from contract farming. This was because private companies preferred to sponsor large-scale commercial farmers who had insurance. According to Nierkerk and Ndlovu (2015), 71.4 % of contract companies supported large-scale commercial farming while 28.6% sponsored small-scale farmers. However, the 2000 land reform caused private companies to shift to small-holder farmers because many large-scale commercial farms were targeted for resettlement (Maunze, 2010). Participant 33 said notwithstanding this current trend, small-scale producers still lost lucrative contracts because they produced poor quality yields and side-market produce. He further said that a vicious cycle of poverty persisted due to the shortage of farm inputs, poor yields, and low farm revenues. If the cycle was not broken, small scale farmers would remain trapped in poverty. This vicious cycle is shown in Figure 6.1.

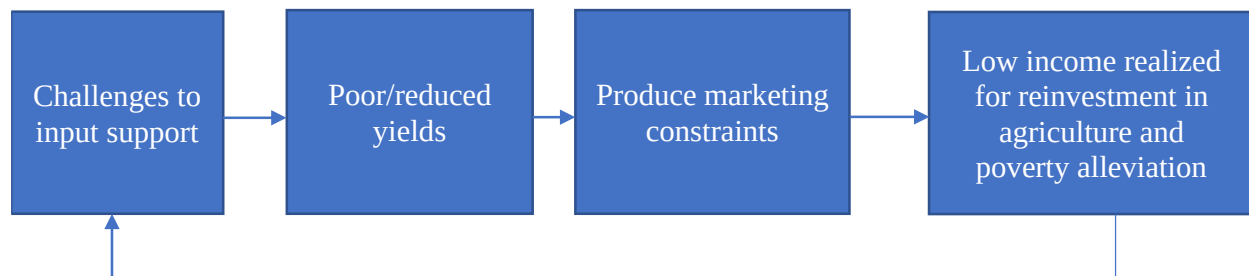


Figure 6.1: Vicious cycle of poverty at the Chitomborwizi small-scale farms

Participant 33 said financial institutions were sceptical about providing loans to farmers because the fast-track land reform programme converted land into a dead asset. Land could not be used as collateral because, according to the new land policy, all land belonged to the state (National Agricultural Policy Framework, 2018) and was therefore untransactable. He further said partial financing led to poor farm mechanisation, low fertilizer usage and poor seed varieties that produced low yields. Consequently, low revenues were generated. Lending institutions over the

past years had failed to recover loans that were awarded to qualifying small scale farmers. Participant 40 commented that

“..farm produce is not centrally marketed and as a result, the stop order system such as what applies to the Grain Marketing Board does not work in the case of lending institutions.”

As a result of all these factors, many farmers defaulted on loan payments. Participant 40 said in circumstances where farmers defaulted on loan payments, a lengthy litigation process was pursued to recover the money. He further commented that to avoid these inconveniences, lending institutions targeted businesses and individuals that had the potential for a high recovery rate and small-scale farmers often fell outside this category.

6.2.2.5 Shortage of Resources for Curing Tobacco

Manyanhaire and Kurangwa, (2014) affirmed that tobacco production returns were high, but this came at the cost of environmental degradation. Participant 22 said farmers struggled to source firewood for curing tobacco because the Environmental Management Agency (EMA) criminalised indiscriminate harvesting of firewood. Illegal harvesting of firewood attracted a fine of US\$100 which many farmers could not afford. Participant 22 commented:

“... Haticharimi fodya nekuti EMA haitibvumidze kutema miti kuti tipise fodya yedu. Ukabatwa unobvisa US\$100. Tirikunzi titenge marasha kuMhangura asi kure saka tinounza nei tisina mari yetransport.” (We no longer grow tobacco because we are not allowed to harvest firewood to cure tobacco. They want us to use coal, but it is very costly to transport from Mhangura Mine)

Participant 25 agreed, saying that: *“...pasina mari hapana chinofamba.”* (Without money there is no progress.) He further said that, given the prevailing circumstances, many farmers have abandoned tobacco farming for maize production which fetched a lower market price. It was evident from the responses that denying farmers access to natural resources impacted negatively on the achievement of sustainable livelihood outcomes. Participant 41 said with proper planning and support, tobacco production could attract agro-processing industries to Chitomborwizi East, diversify income earning opportunities and contribute to poverty alleviation. Johansson (2011)

commented that tobacco farmers earned small amounts of income from exporting unprocessed tobacco.

6.2.2.6 Quality of Cattle Feed

The quality of pasture in Chitomborwizi East had declined due to the prevalence of veld fires and bush encroachment of grazing areas. Participant 38 reported that ‘

“...huswa hunooma plus kunoitika maveld fires saka mombe hadzina kwekufura.” (The grass dries up during the dry season. In addition, there is occurrence of veld fires which destroy pasture.)

He further observed that the situation was made worse because farmers abandoned growing cattle feeds such as silver leaf and velvet beans which are rich in protein. Mapiye et al., (2006) remarked on the impact of a shortage of seeds, poor provision of legumes and lack of information dissemination to farmers regarding the value of giving legumes to the cattle for forage. Participant 38 said farming forage legumes produced better quality cattle feed and high beef grades which fetched higher market prices. It was evident from the responses that higher incomes provided incentives for diversification into livelihood activities such as tourism. Participant 38 commented that farmers’ markets may become commonplace in Chitomborwizi East when the meat and meat products sold are of the highest quality. Value-added activities were likely to flourish when better quality animal products were produced.

6.2.2.7 Poor Livestock Breeding Practices

Participant 38 reiterated that most of the farmers in Chitomborwizi East practised cattle in-breeding, resulting in small offspring which fetched low market prices. Improved breeding techniques such as artificial insemination that produced better offspring and better-quality beef were desirable. Participant 35 said it was regrettable that artificial insemination was beyond the reach of many farmers.

According to Participant 35:

“...the department of livestock falls under the Ministry of Agriculture with representation at national, provincial, district and ward level. The mandate of the department is to provide technical and advisory services on livestock farming. The services provided include castration, ear tagging, dosing, demonstrations, and training in livestock farming. The training is normally provided free at the farmer’s request.”

Unfortunately, farmers shun such training for no apparent reason.

6.2.2.8 Migration and Livelihoods

Participant 20 reiterated that young people had migrated to neighbouring countries and urban areas in search of better livelihood opportunities. Migration had forced a few farmers in the area to discontinue tobacco production since the crop was labour intensive.

Participant 20 reiterated that:

“Fodya haticharima nokuti hatisisina vekurima navo nekuti vana vakafa plus vamwe vakaenda kunze kwenyika asi ndivavo vamwe varipano vatomira negumbo rimwe vachida kudzokera kuBotswana.” (We no longer grow tobacco because death has robbed us of some of our family members. Some of our children have left the country for greener pastures. One of them is here. She wants to go back to Botswana).

Migration-related labour shortages impacted on farm productivity (Maposa et al., 2011). Labour scarcity translated to low productivity which was related to low farm incomes. Participant 25 mentioned that migration was also a necessary evil because migrants remit cash and non-cash goods to households back home. He further added that cash remittances contributed to diversification of income-earning opportunities for the remaining households, as shown in Figure 6.2. Cash remittances are used to purchase farm materials to improve agricultural productivity. Docquier (2005) insists that a boom in agriculture production presented opportunities to diversify into pro-poor agriculture tourism.

Participant 27 made the point that:

“...Where farm labour is available, there was a high level of absenteeism. This decline in work ethic is due to labour scarcity induced by migration, as farmers are forced to retain workers who have unacceptable work practices.”

Participant 26 expressed the view that

“...apart from labour shortages caused by migration, the rainy season worsens the situation because the rivers divide the source of labour (Zvimba District) from Chitomborwizi East farms flood and become non-navigable. This includes renowned rivers such as Garoi, Nyamasanga and Hunyani. Labour is normally sourced from Ashby, Riverside and Fair Hill farm which are in Zvimba District”

Participant 38 suggested that to address labour shortages, farm mechanisation should be promoted at the farms. It was evident from the responses that poor farm mechanisation meant poor harvest and consequently a decline of the agro attractiveness of a region. Chisango (2017) recommended investment in agro-processing mechanisation to promote value addition to curb poverty in rural areas.

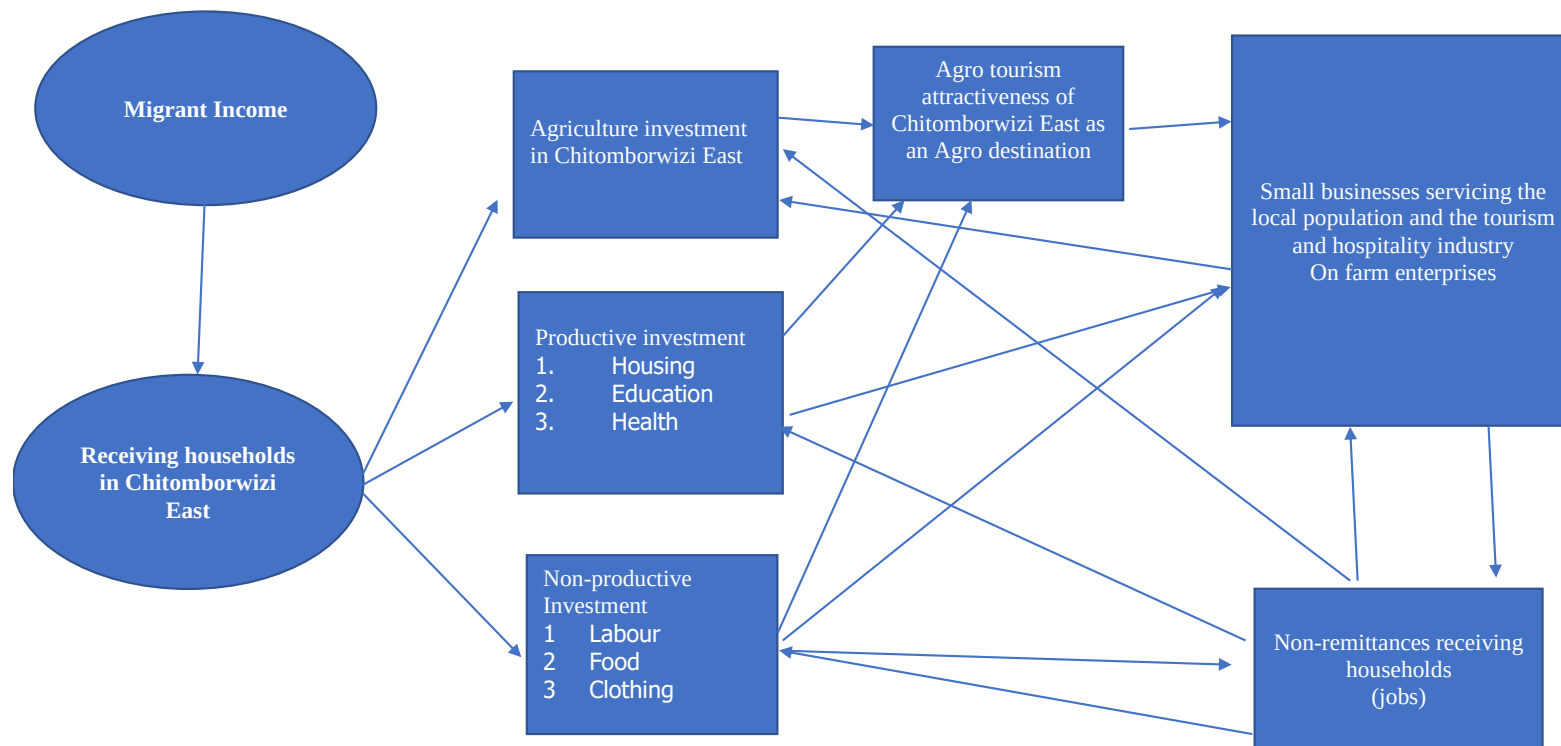


Figure 6.2: The Migration Remittances Web
Source: Adapted from Ncube and Gomez (2011)

6.2.2.9 Shortage of Draught Power

15 of the participants identified a shortage of draught power as a major constraint to agricultural production in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Participants 13, 18 and 21 mentioned that farmers who had large herds of cattle barter draught power for farm labour with farmers who have no cattle. In support, Van Rooyen and Homann (2008) pointed out that lack of cattle ownership is the reason farmers cultivate small fields and barter trade or hire draught power from well-to-do families well after the planting season has commenced. Participant 21 commented that limited access to draught power meant deferred planting which is often associated with low yields. Draught power availability permits early land preparation and good harvests.

Participant 22 remarked:

“hatina mombetomirirawo vamwe kana varima” (We have no cattle. We only plough after others have ploughed), while

Participant 19 stated that:

“...in some cases, cattle may be available but are too small to provide draught power. The shortage of draught power is further compounded by rampant stock theft.”

It is clear that farming in Chitomborwizi East is gravely restricted by a shortage of draught power caused by stock theft and lack of finances to purchase the necessary assets.

6.2.2.10 Prevalence of Farm Intruders

Newly resettled farmers are threatening the livelihoods of Chitomborwizi East farmers.

Participant 26 stated that: “.... new settlers at nearby Portlait resettlement scheme steal farmers’ paddock wire for their own use.”

He further stated that removal of paddock wire exposes crops to destruction by stray livestock. The results of crop destruction are reduced incomes and household food insecurity. Participant 11 alleged that these intruders are also involved in poaching of small game at the farms.

6.2.2.11 Climatic Vulnerability

15 of the participants commented that the area has suffered severe drought for the past 15 to 20 years. Svodziwa (2018) claimed that the country experienced a decline in rainfall of 10-20%. Participant 14 said droughts cause crop failure, livestock deaths, food insecurity, shortage of cash and inputs and increased poverty. He further added that frequent droughts increase the vulnerability of households. Participant 38 stated that:

“For the past five decades it rained before November. This allowed farming operations to commence timeously in preparation for the farming season. Timely planting led to a bumper harvest that made it possible to have sufficient food not only for consumption but for sale. Given the climatic changes, rains now set in as late as early December.”

Participant 41 revealed that to manage the effects of climatic variability, rain-fed agriculture can be complemented by irrigation. Participant 14 alluded to the fact that:

We need support to draw water from Biri Dam. We paid money in the past, but nothing happened. Almost US\$ 5000 “*yakadyiwa hapana chakaitika. Pamusha nemusha pakabiswa mari* but 5 years down the line *hapana chakaitika*” (As a community we collectively contributed US\$5000 to erect irrigation infrastructure. Each household contributed some money. It has been five years since we paid that money, but nothing has happened.)

In agreement, Participant 10 said that:

“.....*Mafarms arikurara vanhu havasi kurima. Dai irrigation ikaitika zvaibatsira. Munhu anobva kuroad achiuya kunoita magarden kuDam kuti varime.*” (Farms are just left fallow because there is no irrigation infrastructure in

place. People whose homesteads are about 10km from Biri Dam established horticultural projects close to the dam so that they can easily water their plants).

Participant 9 observed that:

“Takange tanzwa kuti Biri zvarauya tichawana irrigation water asi takapegerwa tikachera matrench asi miti yakamera hapana chakaitika.” (When Biri was constructed we were relieved since we believed that water would be available for irrigation purposes. Trees have grown in the trenches that we dug to lay irrigation water pipes. Nothing has materialised so far)

To emphasise their disappointment of the failure of the irrigation project to take off, Participant 25 exclaimed:

“.....Takanyeperwa takanzi ngaticherei matrench for irrigation asi simba revanhu rakaendera mahara.” (The leadership lied to us. We dug trenches to lay irrigation pipes, but our strength was used up for nothing as the project did not materialise.)

Participant 6 contended that:

“Tinongonyeperwa pane vakauya vachiita zveBiri tikabvisa mari but zvakapera zvakadaro mari dzikaenda. Murume wangu ndiye aitungamira. Hatizivi kwakuda vekudenga isu aiwa tataura pedu.” (We are lied to. We paid money for the irrigation project that never was. My husband was the project chair. We need God’s intervention for the plan to be successful.)

Dube (2016) mentioned that absence of irrigation infrastructure entrenches the rural people in poverty. Participant 17 revealed that only two farm households drew water from Biri Dam for farming purposes. He further added that given the background of the failed irrigation project, community members were unwilling to engage in any collective developmental projects.

Participant 37 expressed the opinion that

“...the government budgetary allocation to erect irrigation infrastructure in the farming area is never adequate.”

Farmers expressed disappointment that some communities outside Chitomborwizi East drew water from Biri Dam while they were failing to access irrigation water. Participant 27 explained that The Municipality of Chinhoyi, which is located 20 kilometres away from the rural area, drew water from the dam to supply its residents whereas the rural residents do not have water.

To make up for the unavailability of irrigation infrastructure, seven participants mentioned that during the dry season farmers fetched water from deep wells at their homesteads for domestic use and watering of horticultural gardens. Participant 35 commented:

“Mvura yacho inoenderana nekuti inobatika papi mumadeep wells.” (The depth of the wells depends on the water table. Sometimes it is difficult to dig deep wells to get water.)

He added that during the dry season, deep wells were a source of water for domestic and farming purposes because boreholes, which provided safe water, were scarce in Chitomborwizi East. Panganai and Mangizvo (2016) suggested that clean water for domestic consumption should be provided to avoid outbreaks of water-borne diseases such as typhoid, cholera and dysentery. Participant 7 said that, in contrast to prolonged droughts that cause water shortages, Chitomborwizi East was sometimes ravaged by periodic flash floods that destroyed crops and killed livestock. According to Green Climate Fund (2019), heavy downpours in the 2016/2017 farming season damaged crops and livestock. Participant 5 said that, given the vulnerability of farming to climatic variations, many households turned to gold panning as a coping mechanism.

6.2.2.12 Agro-Tourism Activities

Farming is the dominant activity in Chitomborwizi East and therefore offers opportunities for agro-tourism products. Cuisine tourism, archeological attractions, traditional festivals, and small game are some of the resources found at farms that have potential for agro-tourism. This type of tourism is advantageous to the farmers since it relies on resources that farmers already

have. Therefore, there is limited investment required to introduce such kind of tourism. Therefore, the next section presents detailed findings of agro-tourism resources at farms.

Participant 12 mentioned that annual extraordinary agricultural shows were held at ward, district, provincial and national levels in Chitomborwizi East, Mhangura, Chinhoyi and Harare, respectively. These shows had the potential to grow into major tourist attractions. In support, Participant 21 revealed that awards at agricultural shows were normally kitchen utensils, farming implements and farming inputs and such awards had failed to attract the attention of many farmers. It was against this backdrop that agricultural shows were being held less often. Participant 25 specified that

“ndiro, mapoto, mabhara, mbeu, spray yezvirimwa ndizvo zvinohwinhiwa navanhu saka vanhu havachina shungu nazvo.” (Winners only get plates, pots, wheelbarrows, seeds, and herbicides as prizes and as a result many farmers have lost interest in these shows.)

Apart from agricultural shows, field days were also crucial events in Chitomborwizi East. Participant 26 raised the concern that farmers’ field days were disappearing because of a fall in agricultural productivity caused by a persistent shortage of inputs and periodic droughts. He further commented that as field days declined in popularity, the extension support that came with them would also become scarce. It was evident from the responses that under these circumstances, farmers were unable to obtain knowledge on contemporary farming practices that increase agricultural productivity.

6.2.2.13 Biri Dam as a Resource for Tourism

Eighteen of the participants pointed out that there were no tourism resources in Chitomborwizi to East. Participant 24 commented that:

“Kuno tinongoziva ana Sinoia Caves. Vashanyi Vanouya vachionei. Hapana chokuona. Iyo Chirorodziva iyoyo.” (We only know Chinhoyi Caves. There is nothing to see except Chinhoyi Caves. There is nothing that visitors can come and do here.)

Participant 18 revealed that many community members were unaware that Biri Dam, local cuisine, culture and agro-tourism products were key attractions that could put Chitomborwizi East Ward on the tourist map. Anon (2018) revealed that tourism in Zimbabwe was based on celebrated attractions such as Hwange National Park, Lake Kariba, Matopos National Park, Nyanga National Park, The Great Zimbabwe, and Chinhoyi Caves. This explains why community members could not easily identify attractions in their environment.

To some residents, Biri Dam was perceived as a dangerous hotspot. Participant 20 related that;

“.... KuBiri Dam Kune makarwe anobata vanhu gore negore. Kubva Biri Dam rachivakwa kwabatwa vanhu makumi maviri. Makarwe apedza vanhu. Pagore panorohwa vanhu 2.” (Crocodiles wreak havoc at Biri Dam, killing at least 20 people from the time the dam was built up to now. On average two people fall victim to crocodile attacks per year.)

Biri Dam is perceived as a dangerous destination rather than a potential tourist attraction. Participant 20 complained that sometimes no effort was made to rescue victims of crocodile attacks:

“Pane murimi wechichena anobatsira vanenge vabatwa nemakarwe akanzi huya ubatsire upfure garwe rabata munhu. Anowanzopindura achiti garwe ravinga munhu here kana kuti munhu ndiye avinga garwe parinogara.” (There is a white farmer who self-tasked himself with rescuing crocodile attack victims. At one point he turned down a request to rescue a community member who was attacked by crocodiles because he believed the victim encroached into the crocodile's territory)

He further commented that community members interpreted the selective assistance provided by the rescuer to crocodile attack victims as a sign of protesting against rampant fish poaching in the dam. Participant 18 mentioned that in many of the reported cases, crocodiles preyed on the fishermen because they used improvised fishing boats made from tree bark when

they engaged in their illegal fishing escapades. He further added that despite the prevalence of crocodile attacks, the community of Chitomborwizi East Ward continued to poach fish because it was a source of income. Community members had a sense of entitlement to fish resources; because they lived near the resource, they believed they had the right to co-manage it with the government (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2018).

Fifteen of the participants indicated that Biri Dam was a popular fishing and speed boating destination for a few white tourists. Respondent 16 remarked “*Varungu tinovanona vachimhanya vachitamba muvhura nemaboat. Nhasi Saturday so the white people varikutamba mumvura.*” (We see the white people participating in water-based sports at Biri Dam during the weekends.)

Participant 38 proposed that chalets could be built at the farms located along the dam to accommodate fisherman and water-based recreation enthusiasts. Currently, tourists who visit Biri during the weekends slept in their own caravans. Participant 41 said, on the other hand, some excursionists retreated to nearby areas such as Chinhoyi and Zvimba which offered tourist accommodation.

6.2.2.14 Cuisine Tourism

Gastronomy is one potential key tourism attraction in Chitomborwizi East Ward (Kanokanga et al., 2015). Participant 15 remarked that:

....through food tourism, the rural poor can earn extra income, boost agricultural production and reduce food import leakages. However, development of culinary tourism is threatened by absence of a viable market for crops such as sorghum and rapoko which have been dropped in favour of maize and tobacco production. Some traditional foods grown on the farms are shown in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Overview of Chitomborwizi East Traditional Foods and Medicines

Traditional Vegetables • Blackjack (<i>Bidens Pilosa</i>) • Nyevhe (African Spider herb) • Muboora (<i>curcubita maxima</i>) • Mowa (<i>Amaranthus</i>) • Tenza (vlei tuber) • Magaka Wild cucumber (<i>215ucumis metaliferus</i>) • Dried vegetables (mufushwa) • Derere (Bush Okra) • Mbambaira (Sweet potato)	Wild Fruits • Matufu (<i>Vangueriopst Lanciflora</i>) • Tsombori • Mutsubvu (<i>vitex payes</i>) • Muroro (<i>Anona Sytenophylla</i>) • Muonde (<i>F. Sycamorous</i>) • Mukuyu (<i>F. Capensis</i>) • Muzhanje (<i>Uapaca Kirkiana</i>) • Nhunguru (<i>Dovyalis caffra</i>) • Hacha (<i>Parinari Capensis</i>) • Matohwe (<i>Azanza gaerkana</i>) • Hute (<i>Syzygium cordatum</i>)	Cereals • Chibage (Maize) • Mapfunde (Sorghum) • Rukweza (Millet) • Mupunga (Rice)
Processed Foods • Sadza rezviyo nemhunga (Cooked Sorghum) • Mutakura (A mixture of cooked dried maize and pulses) • Manhuchu (Samp in peanut butter) • Mafere (Nhopi) (melons in peanut butter sauce)	Traditional Medicines • Muremberembe • Munzungu • Mungangachi	Animal Foods • Gwaya (bream) • Matemba (Kapenta) • Ndere (Chafer <i>Rufelia</i> spp) • Gurwe (<i>Brachtryepes</i>) • Membranaceous) • Hwiza (Grasshopper) • Ishwa and majuru (flying termites) • Chimukuyu • Biltong (Chimukuyu)

Tao and Wall (2009a) encouraged communities to intensify agricultural production by increasing input use, farm mechanisation and technology. Participant 17 said culinary tourism relied on successful agricultural production. Unless conditions were favourable for agricultural growth, agro-tourism diversification opportunities would not materialise.

6.2.2.15 Archeological Attractions

There were several archaeological attractions in Chitomborwizi East. Unfortunately, these attractions were not listed despite having huge tourist potential.

Participant 28 observed that:

“.....Zvimufananidzo zvaidrwowewa nemabushman vachimhanyisa mhuka zviriko pachikomo cheChitomborwizi asi ndofunga zvakapinda mumvura. Chikomo ichocho chine ninga dzine hari chiri mumvura. Mukaona mhuka dziri pamatombo hadzisi kupfudzika uye pese paitambira mabushman pane ninga.” (Bushman paintings are visible in the submerged Chitomborwizi Hills. There are also pottery remains in the cave in the same hills)

He further commented that rock paintings were reported to be in caves found at Karemba, Savanhu and Kapungu Farms in Chitomborwizi East and in the nearby Zvimba District at Nyamangara and Kawondera Villages. The caves that harboured the paintings were burial sites for ancient kings. Participant 38 stated that

“.... the government has begun the process of inventorying heritage attractions, but the exercise is being constrained by lack of funds, poor road infrastructure and lack of archeological expertise.”

Participant 34 said that the Department of National Museums and Monuments that was tasked with the identification and preservation of heritage resources was not represented at the provincial district and ward level. The Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality (2015) emphasised that in tandem with constitutional reforms, tourism structures should be developed that have representation at all levels.

6.2.2.16 Traditional Rituals

Participant 41 said in recognition of the rich culture in Mashonaland West Province, the Ministry of State and Provincial Affairs had launched a maiden annual cultural tourism week in 2016 which then became the flagship of cultural heritage attractions in the province. Participant 38

revealed that traditional practices that were showcased in the province include but were not limited to:

- *Kurova Guva* (traditional memorial for the dead)
- *Kurerwa kwemwanasikana* (upbringing of a girl child)
- Cooking of traditional foods
- *kusika moto* (traditional method of lighting a fire)
- *kupfura mapadza nematemo* (blacksmithing)
- Building traditional kitchen shelves
- Processing of traditional herbs (indigenous plants for treatment of various ailments).

This was in agreement with the claim of Siwadi and Chaderopa (2012) that 70% of the country's population resided in rural areas that boasted a rich history, heritage, traditional rituals, and numerous religions (Siwadi and Chaderopa, 2012).

Participant 38 related that:

.....a delegation from Mashonaland West Province travelled to Matopo Hills which is 35km south of Bulawayo, to appreciate a cultural village named Amagugu International at White Waters. The cultural village has a crafts and industry workshop, curio shop, exhibition hall, kitchen, and restaurant. Local villagers produce art works, do cultural performances and poetry.

The benchmarking exercise was useful since a similar initiative was planned for the province and wards such as Chitomborwizi East. Such cultural villages were a hub of the diverse cultures that could interest tourists. Participant 35 revealed that cultural officers are already inventorying and developing cultural resources in preparation for such community tourism initiatives.

Participant 39 mentioned that to buttress the promotion of culture in the province, the National Arts Council (NAC) existed to promote and preserve culture as well as regulate activities of the arts industry. NAC was a fluid parastatal that had operated under several ministries over the past decades. In addition, Participant 39 said that as a result, the organisation did not discharge its

duties consistently because its mandate at any given point was dictated by the priorities of the parent ministry. Participant 41 claimed that

“.....in Mashonaland West Province where the study area is located, the NAC is incapacitated because its office is manned by only two officers. In addition, there are no vehicles assigned to the NAC to enable the two officers to visit all provincial areas to promote arts.”

Promotion of the arts boosts cultural tourism in the rural communities. Participant 39 said the government must capacitate agents of cultural tourism development such NAC to transform Chitomborwizi East Ward into a fully-fledged cultural tourism destination.

6.2.2.17 **Kurova Guva (Traditional Memorial for the Dead)**

Twelve of the participants mentioned that cultural festivals are a potential tourist attraction in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

Participant 25 observed that:

“Kurova guva ndicho chimwe chiitiko chingafadza vanoshanya. Makuva arikurohwa asi machechi arikuti kurova guva idhimhoni. kwangosara maone one.” (Ritual integration of the deceased’s spirit to his living family still occurs in isolated homesteads only. This is because Christianity considers the practice demonic.)

Despite the decline in popularity of the practice, Participant 2 was adamant that:

“Hatina mhosva kuti mwana wedu wapinda church ipi. Isu ana mai vako torova makuva. kurova guva kudzosa mweya mumusha. Vasingaiti makuva vakarasika” (We do not care that you were a Christian during your lifetime. When you die, we perform the ritual. The traditional practice is meant to reunite the dead with the living. Those who have abandoned the practice are misguided elements of the community.)

The ritual integrates the deceased’s spirit into his family to evade inheritance conflicts. The intermediation process, according to Participant 23, is shown in Figure 6.3.

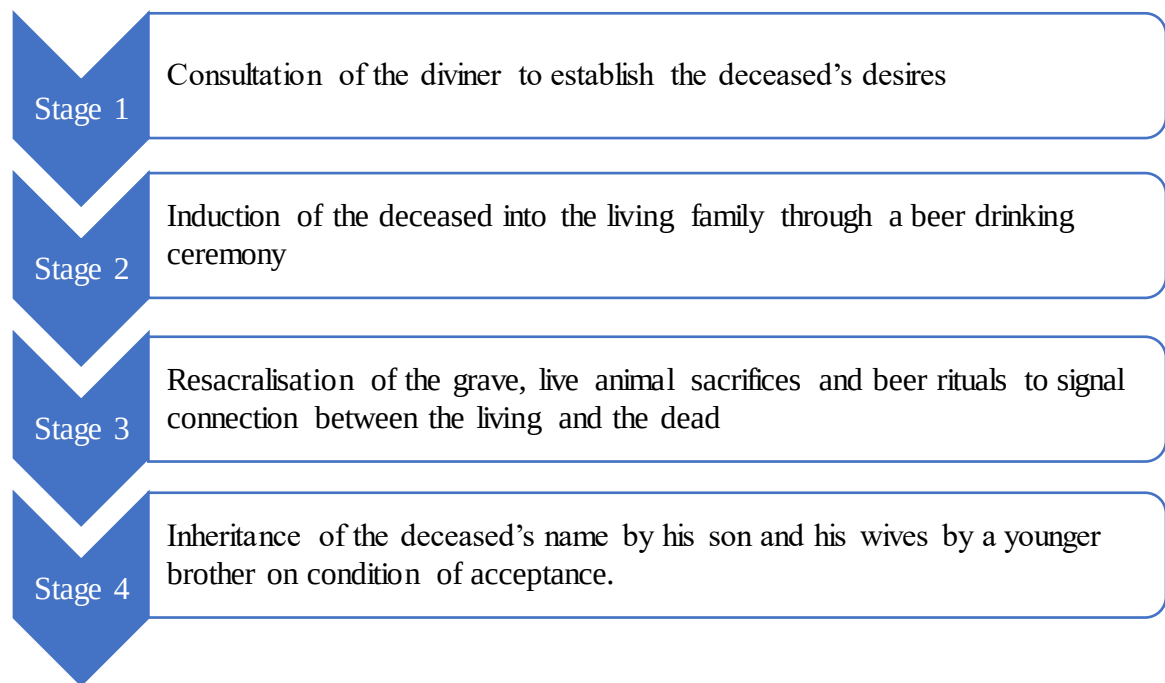


Figure 6.3: Ritual of Integration of the Dead

Traditional practices need to be preserved in the wake of the rise of Christianity. These traditional events could add to the portfolio of tourism products in Chitomborwizi East.

6.2.2.18 Bira (Ancestral Invitation into Living Family)

Participant 10 affirmed that *Bira* (a practice to invite ancestors into the family) was another important ritual performed in the community. The creeping in of modernisation and Christianity was a blow to continuity of these traditional cultural practices which were often labelled ‘primitive’ and ‘demonic’.

Participant 4 further asserted that;

“Vanoita zvemapira ndevewaKavanzaruva, Matengarufu and Muchenje ndovanoita mapira munaAugust September” (Ritual integration of the dead into the living family is an all-night ceremony during which families seek help from spirit mediums. There are only three families that still conduct such ceremonies, and these are Kavanzaruva, Matengarufu and Muchenje families.)

At the ceremony families brewed beer in honour of their ancestors while *mbira* music (music from finger harp instrument) was played. The *mbira* dances were believed to invite ancestors into the family. This traditional practice could attract tourists seeking authentic cultural immersion.

6.2.2.19 Rain-Making Ceremonies

Participant 10 said the *Mukwerera* (rain-making) ceremony was held annually in September. He added that the community made financial contributions towards *Mukwerera* (rain-making ceremony) to buy food and beverages that were consumed at the event. Participant 15 said the chief communicated with spirit mediums who interceded for rain on behalf of the people of Chitomborwizi East. The ceremony, which was marked by dancing and singing, was held under a *Parinari curatellifolia* (*Muchakata*) tree. Participant 5 informed the interviewer that:

...in Chitomborwizi East Ward, the rain making ceremony takes place at Zvimbwana Hills and at Mutsvene farm which was a habitat of ‘rain’ lions (*Mhondoro*). The ceremony is attended by the public and spirit mediums (*svikiro*.)

He explained that roaring lions signalled the coming of the rains and the need for people to till the lands. However, Participant 10 affirmed that

“... cultural practices such as this one are seasonal because they take place at certain months of the year.”

However, cultural practices were opportunities that could generate a steady flow of income despite being seasonal in character.

6.2.2.20 Traditional Dance Festivals

In Makonde District, traditional dancing was unpopular and slowly dying out. As a result, strategies should be developed to preserve these cultural resources. Participant 42 remarked:

“.... the Zimbabwe National Traditional Dancers Association (ZNTDA) and other sponsors such as Delta Beverages celebrate the country’s traditional dances through

Jerusalem Mbende Arts Festival held in Murehwa, Neshamwari Traditional Dance festival and Murehwa Uzumba Cultural Dance Festival”

Despite the popularity of traditional dances in other parts of the country, the same could not be said of Chitomborwizi East. Participant 42 further stated that pockets of these traditional dance festivals in Chitomborwizi included the Jikinya Dance festival competitions held every November under the NAC and National Association of Primary Schools banner to showcase all traditional dances nationwide. The competitions commenced at school cluster level in wards then progressed to district, provincial and finally national level. She regarded it as unfortunate that many schools in the study area failed to participate in such competitions because the teaching staff did not have traditional dancing expertise.

6.2.2.21 Small Game

All participants mentioned that ‘Big Five’ wildlife tourism was not feasible as a tourist attraction because human encroachment into former wildlife zones had driven away the species. Participant 10 remarked that

“.... Zvimbwanana Hills used to be a lion’s habitat but the Department of Wildlife and National Parks relocated them to protected national parks.”

Small game including warthog, bushbuck, impala and monkeys in Chitomborwizi East were under threat from newly resettled farmers not far from Chitomborwizi East. These animals were illegally hunted at night. Participant 12 said anti-poaching strategies needed to be in place to preserve the little remaining small game which were threatened by extinction, because small game viewing was a potential tourist attraction in Chitomborwizi East Ward and could also interest domestic tourists. Destinations such as Hwange National Park, Lake Kariba, Matopos National Park and Nyanga National Park were more popular because they had the ‘Big Five’ sought after by tourists (Government of Zimbabwe, 2017).

6.2.2.22 Mineral springs

Participant 11 and 12 revealed the existence of mineral springs at Gomwe Farm which had healing properties for many ailments. Siwadi and Chaderopa (2012) hailed successful tourism development as a pathway to capitalise on untapped natural resources to diversify livelihoods in areas where agriculture was a major activity.

6.2.2.23 Sports Tourism

Sports tourism attractions could be developed in Chitomborwizi East. Participant 13 mentioned that after the harvest period, community members participated in football and netball tournaments for fun. On this basis, communities could collectively develop sporting facilities to attract sports tourists to rural environments, given their keen interest in sports.

6.2.3 Infrastructure Available for Tourism Development

Infrastructure development facilitates tourism development anywhere. An area may be endowed with natural, financial, human, and social capital but if physical capital were neglected, tourism development would probably be unsuccessful. Availability of power, water and sanitation, power, rail, road, and air infrastructure were of paramount importance for the development of tourism.

6.2.3.1 Incomplete Rural Electrification Programme

Availability of electricity is important in running rural tourism ventures. Only six of the participants mentioned that electricity was connected to their farms. Participant 5 stated that “*Magetsi ariko asi vashoma vanawo. Havasi vese vakawana magetsi nekuda kwemari.*” (Electricity is available to a few community members that had financial resources to pay for connectivity.)

Participant 26 claimed that rural electrification in Chitomborwizi East was done in three phases. Participant 22 said farmers feared that they were going to wait for a lengthy period before the next electrification phase. A delay of the process affected farmers’ uptake of agro-tourism initiatives. Others, like Participant 23, noted that

“*asi kwakaenda tsuro ndokwakaenda imbwa.*” (We paid for installation of electricity but to date we did not get the service.)

Dzirutwe (2019) commented that generation of additional power through public-private sector partnerships had failed to materialise because of unavailability of funds, government bureaucracy and limited foreign direct investment into the power sector. Regrettably, in circumstances where farmers had their homesteads connected to the national grid, power cuts and broken-down equipment were commonplace.

In agreement, Participant 21 related that;

“..... *Magetsi aripo asi transformer yakatsva and hapana maintenance yakaitwa.*” (Electricity was connected to our homesteads but the transformer was damaged by lightning and responsible authorities have not bothered to make any repairs.)

Participant 22 and 26 said despite benefiting from the rural electrification programme, some farmers cited prolonged load shedding and power infrastructure maintenance as factors that crippled farming operations. The latter was a result of the brain drain caused by the migration of skilled staff to greener pastures (African Development Bank, 2019). Participant 38 said in such situations, irrigation of winter wheat was disrupted, and a poor harvest was the ultimate result.

6.2.3.2 Absence of Health Facilities

Presence of health facilities is a key success factor in tourism destination development. Seven participants bemoaned the absence of health facilities in Chitomborwizi East. In backing the above assertion, Scheyvens (2014) explained that the poor live in environments rich in natural resources but lacking in basic infrastructure, sanitation, health facilities and schools.

Participant 29 observed that “*Maclinic amurikutura hapana. Tinotofamba 10km kusvika kune maclinics ari pedyo*”. (There are no clinics in Chitomborwizi East. We walk 10km to the tarred Chinhoyi-Chegutu highway to get transport to the nearest clinics.)

Participants 12 and 13 mentioned that Matoranjera Clinic and Chinhoyi Hospital were 4.5km and 20km respectively from the nearest farms, and these local clinics had limited medical supplies.

Twelve of the participants highlighted that efforts to improve the health delivery system in Chitomborwizi East were in vain. In support, Dodzo and Mhloyi (2017) cited that rural health delivery services were either unavailable, inaccessible or expensive. To address the absence of medical facilities, farmers in Chitomborwizi East Ward endeavoured to transform a school hall into a makeshift clinic.

Participant 14 alleged that;

“..... PaChitomborwizi School pane Hall yakavakwa naDr Mombeshora kuti paite clinic asi haina kuzoita.” (A hall that was built by the late Government Minister Dr Swithun Mombeshora at Chitomborwizi School was supposed to be converted into a clinic. We are not sure why the plan was fruitless.)

Successful tourism development requires a robust health delivery system. Non-existence of such facilities translated to limited popularity of a tourism destination. This meant that tourism could not be a viable option to successfully diversify livelihoods.

6.2.3.3 Poor Road Networks

Eighteen participants revealed that Chitomborwizi East has a poor road network. Participant 23 stated; *“... Kana wakutsauka kuenda kuBiri Dam nzira dzacho hadziiti...”*. (The feeder roads that connect dam and farms and the main roads are unnavigable.) Participant 16 confirmed this, saying that *“... Magravel roads arimo anoda maintenance. Anoda magrader nekuvhurirwa drainage.”* (The gravel roads are there but they need to be maintained. Road drainage also needs to be improved.) In support, Participant 24 complained that

“.....maroads aripo makomba ega ega. Tinobhadhara mitero yemapurazi but havagadzire maroad.” (The roads are full of potholes. We pay farm lease fees to the Rural District Council, but they do not maintain the roads.)

Poor roads date back to the colonial epoch when the colonial government neglected the development of rural infrastructure (Maposa et al., 2011and). Residents criticised the Makonde

Rural District Council for failing to maintain the farm feeder roads despite receiving annual farm fees ranging US\$140 -200 per household depending on farm size. Participants 17, 19 and 21 said two prominent farmers in Chitomborwizi East had to use personal resources to maintain gravel roads that link their farms to input suppliers and produce markets. In addition, they commented that unfortunately, not every farmer could afford periodic maintenance of access roads. The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (2012) cited poor roads as the reason farmers failed to transport farm inputs and produce. Apart from disrupting the movement of farm inputs and produce, poor roads caused many public transport operators to abandon any routes that included Chitomborwizi East.

According to Participant 4, “... the transport service was discontinued because of the poorly maintained gravel roads which inflicted damages to vehicles.” Participants 9 and 21 attributed the discontinuation of transport services to the small population size of Chitomborwizi East which made it unviable to run a profitable transport service.

Participant 10 remarked:

We requested a bus from Zupco “*rikauya asi raizobva kumaruwa epedyo rakazara. Takabva taramwa tikavharisa bhazi racho.*” (We requested for a daily bus from Zimbabwe United Passenger Company to solve our transport blues but for some reason this bus was always full of passengers from nearby communal areas despite that fact that our community made the request. When the operator discontinued the service for reasons cited above, we were not bothered because we were not benefiting at all.)

With no transport service in the farming area, it was difficult for tourists who do not own vehicles to access Chitomborwizi East. AFDB (2019) revealed that many road networks in the country had outlived their lifespan by 10 to 15 years and therefore serious maintenance was needed. Therefore, Government must put in place relevant infrastructure to facilitate pro-poor rural tourism development. In similar vein, Saayman et al. (2012) mentioned that tourism development in Maputaland in South Africa was constrained by lack of infrastructure such as roads, water, and electricity.

6.2.3.4 Communication Networks

Chitomborwizi East was not well networked with other areas. Four participants revealed that landline telephone cables were removed by Telone, Zimbabwe's state-owned fixed telecommunications operator, without notifying the farmers. Participants 19, 23 and 24 hypothesised that this was done to replace overhead cables with fibre optic cables. Participant 19 said farmers used their mobile phones to communicate though the network is often unstable. According to Tsokota et al. (2017), Zimbabwe Information Communication Technologies were characterised by poor connectivity, load shedding and expensive data.

6.2.3.5 Availability of Retail Outlets

Tourist amenities were an important component of the destination amalgam. Despite the local District Council's having set aside commercial plots for retail, securing these plots was made difficult by bureaucracy.

Participant 11 detailed that “.... *Mashops mashoma uye nzvimbo dziripo asi zvinodiwa kuRural District Council zvakawandisa zvinonetesa vanhu.*” (There are a few plots that were set aside for commercial purposes but the process of application to secure a plot and the licensing requirements are quite stringent.)

Participant 23 revealed that “...the shops that are operating currently are few and expensive with a bottle of two litres cooking oil selling at five dollars. Despite being expensive, usually such shops are understocked and have limited products available to customers.”

Six participants mentioned that local shops were expensive and as a result, residents travelled to Chinhoyi town which was 20km away to buy basics at affordable prices. Participant 13 suggested that “it is important to upgrade the local township to reduce income leakages of from purchases of goods and services made outside local economy.”

Local shops that served tourists and residents could contribute to the further economic development of Chitomborwizi East Ward. The shops should sell locally made products to increase the destination's competitiveness. Spencely and Meyer (2012) claimed that it was necessary for local

people to secure retail space because the poor benefit from tourism expenditure on accommodation, food, drinks, and shopping by tourists. To address the above issue, Participant 14 put it more succinctly, saying; “*Vana vemuno ngavaawane mastands.*” (Stands should be allocated for the local young people to establish their businesses.)

He further revealed that when locals were allocated plots to run commercial entities, income generated from local ventures could contribute to diversification of livelihoods. It was evident from the responses that diversified livelihoods contributed to poverty alleviation.

6.2.3.6 Accommodation and Food and Beverage Availability

There is no tourist accommodation in Chitomborwizi East. Surprisingly, Participant 9 confirmed that:

“....in the neighbouring Zvimba Rural District Council there is a farmer who owns fishing lodges that are frequented by white people. The farmer is pocketing the money realised from the accommodation facilities while purporting to be using the finances to conserve fish in Biri Dam. So far there is only one campsite at Portlait.”

Twelve participants pointed out that Murombedzi Growth Point in Zvimba District and Chinhoyi Town boasted tourist accommodation facilities. Nevertheless, four of the participants were of the view that even though tourism might be a sustainable livelihood option, farmers lacked the finances to build standard accommodation facilities for tourists. This financial challenge could be overcome by community-private sector partnerships (Harrison, 2008). Participant 14 suggested that the government should build hotels and lodges to accommodate potential tourists in Chitomborwizi East Ward. However, this was a daunting task for the government since its number one priority was infrastructure development. Participant 10 put forward the following suggestion:

“Kune zvikoro kana machurch panokwanisa kugara vanhu.” (There are schools and churches which can be temporarily converted into overnight accommodation facilities.) Such suggestions were an indication of some locals’ lack of awareness of the expected standards of tourist accommodation. Ad hoc arrangements such as this would not be acceptable to most tourists.

6.2.3.7 Safety and Security

Participant 12 made the point that at present, there were no police services in Chitomborwizi East which presented serious implications for the safety of tourists. Safety and security were pre-conditions for tourism development and visitor satisfaction. Participants 8 and 11 were confident that as the tourism industry developed, an upsurge in crime was bound to occur.

6.2.4 Stakeholder Perceptions of Tourist Development

Despite the potential for tourism development in Chitomborwizi East, stakeholders cited numerous challenges. These challenges included limited tourism awareness, management complexities, poor marketing, and lack of local representation of ministries and departments responsible for tourism development in Chitomborwizi East.

6.2.4.1 Limited Tourism Awareness

Community members stated that tourism could easily be accepted as a livelihood strategy if they were aware of what it entailed. Twenty-one participants admitted ignorance about what tourism is.

Participant 23 remarked: “*Tinongonzwa zvetourism tichingona vanoenda ku Kariba, Mutare, Mazvikadei, Chinhoyi, Hwange ne Victoria Falls.*” (We hear about tourism and we see people travelling to Kariba, Mutare, Mazvikadei, Chinhoyi, Hwange and Victoria Falls.) Participant 5 said: “*Izita randakanzwa asi handizivi zvinorevei asi pamwe vakadzidza.*” (I have heard of the term tourism, but I do not know what it means. The educated may know what it means.)

In support, Participant 11 remarked ‘*...hatingazive kuti tourism chii handidi kukunyeperai*’. (I do not know what tourism is and I do not want to lie.); while Participant 20 had this to say: “*... hatina ruzivo nezvetourism saka hatizivi kuti ndianani vatingabatana navo. Hatizivi tourism yacho inoita nezvei saka hatingazivi kuti machallenges acho ndeyei.*” (We are not aware of what tourism is and so we cannot predict what support we need to develop tourism as well as its potential challenges.)

Participant 1 disclosed that:

“Hatisati tamboona kuti tourism yacho painoitwa chii saka hatizivi kuti inotibatsira papi. Tingadawo kuva muchirongwa ichocho tichidzidzawo. Tichionawo asi hazviitike.” (We have never been to a tourism destination and so we do not know the benefits that come with tourism. We want to play an active role in tourism development by being given opportunities to learn. However, we never get such opportunities.)

Participant 2 added that *“Handikwanise kuziva zvorevei asi pamwe zvikatsanangurwa kuti tourism chii ndopatingazoziva kuti inobatsirei tozokwanisa kupindura mubvunzo.”* (I do not know what it means but if it is explained, I will be able to respond to your questions.), while Participant 6 observed that

“Matambidziko anouya kana vanhu vakasanzwisisa nezvetourism. Sevanhu vasingazive tourism tinogona kutadza kugashira vashanyi nekuvabatsira.” (Since we do not understand what tourism is about, we may fail to receive visitors and host them accordingly.)

The above responses were evidence that the community lacked tourism knowledge. Kim et al. (2014) pronounced that lack of tourism awareness caused by low education levels and inaccessibility to tourism-related information constrained tourism development in rural areas.

Participant 8 noted that:

“Biri Dam ndiro ratinotarisa kuti richatiunzira vashanyi. Pane vakachatira kuPortlait Village vakauya kuzotorwa mapics kuDam. Pane vamwe vanhu vakugara mhiri kwemakungwa vanouya kuzoona Dam kuAustralia.” (We believe Biri Dam can bring us tourists. The scenic view of the dam attracts wedding parties for photoshoots. Former residents who migrated to countries abroad such as Australia visit Biri Dam whenever they are in the country.)

In support, Participant 27 made the point that tourism was not a new activity in Chitomborwizi East. He further commented that Z.P. Patel, a businessman from Chinhoyi Town,

regularly visited and camped at Nyamasanga Dam in in the 1950s. In addition, he said the major tourist activities he undertook during that period were boating, fishing and bird hunting. Limited tourism knowledge explained the community's failure to identify and take advantage of tourism resources in their environment. Participant 28 voiced the need to raise tourism awareness through the adoption of similar approaches used for other community initiatives in the past. He stated that: "When we were introduced to dairy farming, we attended three months' dairy farming training at Gwebi Agricultural College. A similar training can be conducted for those interested in investing in tourism."

He further proposed that due to limited expertise and funding for tourism development, farmers could establish partnerships with private-sector tourism investors to develop viable tourism ventures. In support of the private-public sector partnerships, Participant 38 proposed

"...a community-private sector partnership where the private sector provides the funding and relevant competencies whilst the community avails the tourism resources is an ideal development model since community cooperatives have failed."

Involvement of a private sector partner in tourism development had its own shortcomings. Scheyvens (2007) lamented that local communities were often disadvantaged in business dealings that involve the private sector.

Despite little to no awareness of tourism, Participant 11 remarked that "*Musha musha rudzii kana usina vanoshanya.*" (A home cannot be a home unless there are visitors.) This response indicated receptivity of the locals to tourists. Development of pro-poor tourism will require the Chitomborwizi East community to cultivate an open attitude to tourism.

6.2.4.2 Tourism Development Brings Positive Effects

Fifteen of the farmers welcomed the proposal to develop pro-poor tourism in Chitomborwizi East. They anticipated that tourism development could create numerous benefits. In response to the above, Kunasekaran et al. (2011) cited economic diversification, employment and higher incomes as some major effects of tourism. Participant 6 mentioned the growth of the tourism industry as a potential market for farm produce.

He commented that “*kana vashanyi vakauya tovatengesera zvatakarima. Zvakare tourism inotipa mabasa pakuvakwa kwenzvimbo dzekugara kwematourists.*” (Tourists will be a market for our agricultural produce. In addition, tourism will contribute to employment creation through construction of lodges and rural economic development.)

Farmers’ markets are a potential tourist attraction that could generate additional revenue to farmers. To realise this benefit, Weber and Labaste (2010) mentioned that the poor should create products that are of the right quality and standards. Participant 6 further cited that apart from benefits of selling agro-produce, knowledge-sharing is cited as one of the pro-poor tourism benefits. Tourism increases human contact and presents opportunities for cultural exchange. In support of this, Participant 11 observed that “*Vana varimuno havazive varungu vanoziwa vemaEdgars.*” (The young children who are here do not know a white person. The only white person they know is a dummy that they see in Edgars Stores.) Based on the above views, it seemed that the community anticipated serving white international tourists rather than black local ones which should be addressed.

6.2.4.3 Tourism Development is a Source of Displacement

There were mixed feelings regarding tourism development. Participant 9 feared that backing tourism development could lead to displacement from farmland. Coria and Calfucura (2012) revealed that in Mapu Lahual National Park in Chile, local communities were sceptical of engagement in ecotourism for fear of being dispossessed of their land by government and private companies. To allay these fears, Participant 12 mentioned that it was of paramount importance for the community to be given the assurance that tourism development would complement rather than replace existing livelihoods.

Apart from fear of loss of land, community members viewed tourism investment as a preserve of the wealthy. Participant 26 expressed the view that

“*Tourism inoitwa nevanhu vane mari kana ndisina mari yekutenga mushonga webhutsu tourism yandinoita ndeyei.*” (Tourism investment is meant for the rich. I cannot engage in tourism when I cannot even afford to buy shoe polish.) He went on to say that the community

needed to be educated to appreciate that investment in tourism was cheaper than other sectors of the economy, because rural tourism thrived on the natural resources owned by the poor.

6.2.4.4 Lack of Social Capital in Chitomborwizi East

All community members were concerned about the type of community-based tourism development to adopt because cooperatives had failed to achieve rural development objectives. Participant 39 mentioned that several fishing, housing, and agriculture cooperatives had been running in Makonde District since time immemorial. She mentioned that the Cooperative Societies Act of Zimbabwe governed the operations of these cooperatives. In addition, she stated that Sections 35, 36 and 48 of the Cooperative Society Act stipulated that cooperatives should produce accounting records in line with international accounting standards, be audited, and hold Annual General Meetings to report their performance. She also said it was unfortunate that, when cooperatives generated income, it was immediately shared amongst the members and for this reason no cooperative bank accounts were opened. This contradicted the Cooperative Society Act which stipulated that 20% of the earnings should remain in the cooperative bank account. The limited success of cooperatives was deemed to be a result of lack of social capital.

Participant 39 confirmed this, stating:

“Mafishing cooperatives anongobata hove vachitengesa vachingotaura kuti toda kuchengeta mhuri.” (The fishing cooperative members do not bank proceeds from the sale of fish. The income that is generated is shared amongst cooperative members to cater for their immediate household needs.) She mentioned that the above situation transpired because the Cooperative Act was silent on penalties of non-compliance.

Participant 25 commented: *“Mumwe anoti ndine nhamo yangu inoda kugadziriswa nhasi saka zvekuti tosheya mari monthend hazviite.”* (One member may have a financial problem which needs to be solved momentarily and may demand those financial proceeds from cooperatives be shared instantaneously.)

Participant 10 voiced a concern that

“Dambudziko ringaitika nderekuti vanhu vane muono wakasiyana maererano nebudiriro.”
(People have different views about development and therefore community-based tourism initiatives may not materialise in Chitomborwizi East Ward.)

Although the Ministry of Small to Medium Enterprises and Cooperative Development provided start-up support and monitored cooperative activities, few of them had succeeded. According to Participant 40, cooperatives failed because the members considered cooperatives social rather than business undertakings. To substantiate the above claim, Participant 39 said some cooperatives were reported to have leased their fishing permits to non-residents of Chitomborwizi East for a paltry fee. Moreover, most Zimbabweans were conditioned to work individually. This signalled a dearth of social capital.

Participant 21 remarked that “there are no group projects that are in place in the area except only those for fishing. The only things that bring us together are meetings that are held to distribute farming inputs. We also gather during funerals.”

Participant 41 said community members lacked vast experience of working in groups. Farm input distribution clusters self-dissolved once the exercise was complete.

6.2.4.5 Ineffective Community Development Leadership

Participant 38 revealed that local governance structures in rural areas were as follows; at the lowest level was the Village Development Committee headed by the village headman and six other committee members. The Village Development Committee was a subset of the Village Assembly which was made up of adults aged 18 years and above. The same structure was replicated at Ward level through a Ward Development Committee and Ward Assembly. Procedurally, the Ward Assembly reported to a Committee of Councillors that reported to the Rural District Development Committee that oversaw development of the District. The latter relayed developmental issues to the provincial leadership and ultimately to the central government. Regrettably, of these local governance structures, only Ward Committees existed in Chitomborwizi East. These grassroots structures were responsible for natural resource conservation and other development initiatives. Participant 38 said it was unfortunate that such a committee was not vocal on any tourism

development issues in Chitomborwizi East. Participant 38 said the community lacked trust in the current leadership. Nunkoo and Gursay (2017) considered trust in public institutions to be a product of good governance and promotion of transparency. Moscardo (2014) called on the government institutions to willingly engage communities and act ethically in charting the community development agenda (Moscardo, 2014).

Participant 28 stated that ‘*Hakuna leadership.*’ (There is no leadership. This place is full of corrupt people. Everything is politicised.)

Participant 26 echoed these sentiments, stating that

“*Councillor ndwezita hapana development irikuitika.*” (The councillor is there in principle but in practice he is not coordinating any development.) Participant 23 complained that: “we just hear about the councillor. He lies a lot. We even do our own roads.”

Twenty-one participants mentioned that the Member of Parliament (MP) and the councillor had a responsibility for coordinating development in the area under study. Regrettably, the pair had failed to discharge its mandate.

Participant 10 observed that “...the councillor and his group are responsible for drought relief programmes, building of clinics and schools, road maintenance and farming inputs distribution”, but added that the leadership predominantly played a social welfare rather than a developmental role. Participant 16 said even as social welfare agents, the performance of the Ward Committee was unsatisfactory. It would be prudent to set up a community trust that oversaw tourism development. However, Participant 14 complained that

“*Munenge mune maideas asi hazvife zvakaitika. Ndinokunyorai muhistory vana vedu vagokuverengai.*” (Development ideas that are tabled by some community members are never taken on board. If your [the interviewer’s] ideas are embraced, we will write you in the books of history for our children to read.)

Participant 10 further elaborated that: “*Kana pane development inoda kuitwa munhu anoculculater metsi dzake akaona kuti hapana pekuba napo haaite develop.*” (The leadership prefers those development initiatives for which there is personal gain.)

Residents 21 and 22 lamented inequalities, corruption and selfishness perpetrated by the Ward Committee in implementing community projects. In these circumstances, local communities had lost trust in the local leadership. Participant 21 commented that community cooperation and solidarity could not be fostered in environments deficient of trust. To address development inadequacies, Participant 27 highlighted that Chitomborwizi Development Network was formed by professionals who originated from Chitomborwizi East. He mentioned that, given the fact that current public institutions were not effective in championing development, new autonomous institutions needed to be developed to promote pro-poor tourism.

6.2.4.6 Ineffective Community Development Leadership

Participant 35 revealed that the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry was not represented at Provincial, District, and Ward level. The Ministry discharged its mandate of tourism development from its headquarters in Harare. Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (2015) highlighted the need to develop institutional structures at the above levels of government. Absence of tourism development plans in Chitomborwizi East Ward was a clear indication of lack of decentralisation of the ministerial functions. In agreement, Participant 38 alleged that:

“There is a disjointed approach to tourism development at national, provincial, district and ward level. Fishery cooperatives for example are licensed separately by the Ministry of Agriculture (livestock department), Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism as well as The Ministry of Cooperative Development.”

Participant 41 observed:

“A tourism development steering committee comprising of relevant Government Ministries, the Department of Tourism and Hospitality at Chinhoyi University of Technology, District and Ward committees, should be established to chart the tourism development pathway in Chitomborwizi East.”

Harmonisation of the different ministerial roles was central to tourism development success in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Disjointed tourism development efforts between private and public sector were also common and did not have the community's best interests at heart. Participant 38 indicated that

“... the private sector is represented by Mashonaland West Tourism Association and Youth in Tourism lobby for their own interests.”

He went on to say that the tourism industry was fragmented and therefore all stakeholders should come together and consolidate their efforts towards transforming Mashonaland West into a tourism destination of choice.

6.2.4.7 Unavailability of Tourist Information Centres (TICs)

Availability of tourist information is a key determinant in tourism decision-making. Participant 31 lamented the lack of information as a major constraint to tourism development in Chitomborwizi East.

He said that; “.....there is no documented information about popular tourist attractions such as Chinhoyi Caves for example. Tourists are left wandering about such sites, clueless. In some tourist sites even the tour guides who should possess depth of knowledge about key attractions fail to do proper interpretation.”

It was evident from the responses that visitor information centres market, promote and link tourists to local businesses, attractions, accommodation, and events.

6.2.4.8 Environmental Threats to Biri Dam

Biri Dam was facing serious environmental threats. Participant 37 commented that

“.....Biri Dam is heavily polluted by tributaries that flow from Harare and Chitungwiza. If pollution is not curtailed, water-based activities such as fishing may not be possible in future. Poaching is also a widespread pandemic that is threatening the tourism potential of Biri Dam.”

Poachers use mosquito nets to indiscriminately catch fish from breeding grounds. Participant 37 further added that even if the DNPWM was notified of poaching incidents, they either responded late or were bribed by the poachers. To make matters worse, Participant 35 commented that night-time poaching made it even more difficult for law enforcement agencies to conduct patrols since they did not operate at night.

6.2.4.9 Land reform and its impact on tourism

The fast-track land reform programme dealt a blow to tourism development in Chitomborwizi East. Participant 38 mentioned that:

“.... the fast-track land reform exercise that took place in 2000 was chaotic. Farmers were resettled in wildlife zones such as Doma Safari which are in Mashonaland West Province.”

He added that Doma Safaris was a prime wilderness resource that could complement tourist attractions in Chitomborwizi East. Participant 27 lamented that “Biri Dam has no servitude where communal recreational parks can be developed since farms close to the dam were pegged into the dam”

Participant 37 mentioned that since time immemorial, the government of Zimbabwe had established a recreational servitude for all dams. In addition, Lake Chivero and Lake Kyle Recreational Parks in Harare and Masvingo respectively were developed from recreational servitude set aside after the construction of the respective dams. He further added that nevertheless, today’s dam constructions ignored the servitude requirement.

6.2.4.10 Resistance to change

Farmers in Chitomborwizi East are a unique community. Participant 41 complained that they normally blocked government programmes for no apparent reason. She further commented that when the Rural Electrification and Nestle Dairy Programmes were launched, only a few of the farmers took advantage of these projects. Her fears were that such behavioural tendencies may manifest themselves in the proposed tourism ventures.

Participant 37 made the suggestion that

“... there is need to sensitise the local people on what tourism involves including its benefits. As with any new idea, there is potential of resistance, but sensitisation of community members can dispel any undesirable perceptions concerning tourism development.” Participant 37 therefore suggested raising awareness of the importance of tourism to avoid potential resistance.

6.2.4.11 **Bureaucratic Processes hinder the Establishment of Cooperatives**

Residents lamented that obtaining a fishing licence was difficult because it involved several processes and procedures that required approval from different state institutions. Participant 41 revealed that permit applicants had to seek a seal of approval from the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Climate and Rural resettlement, the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Community and Small to Medium Enterprises and Ministry of Environment, Climate Change and Tourism as well as the hospitality industry. This she said was a very bureaucratic process. Participant 10 mentioned that at community level, applicants had to obtain a letter of recommendation from the Ward Councillor which they must present to the Livestock Department in the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture, Water, Climate, and Rural Resettlement. The letter was one of the requirements for processing fishing licences for cooperatives.

Participant 10 aired these concerns;

“ *Biri rinofanirwa riri remunhu wese. Vasina kudzidza havakwanise kusvika kumahofisi. Kumalience kunonetsa zvinoda kutengesa mombe kuti tiwane malience. Zvino ungatengesa mombe nekuda hove. Kumahofisi kunoda mari unosvikako wonzi saka urikuitasei. Totoona zvirinane kuti titenge hove kune vanhu dze US\$2.*” (Biri should be for both the educated and the uneducated. We cannot sell cattle to pay for fish licences. Therefore, we are forced to buy fish from fish mongers for US\$ 2. We need money to bribe government officials to obtain fishing licences.)

All participants suggested a one-stop shop for processing fishing licences for cooperatives. Furthermore, Participant 26 revealed that fishing licence fees were paid to the Department of Livestock as well as the Department of Wildlife and National Parks Management in Chinhoyi. He

pointed out that, regrettably, local communities residing close to the Dam obtained no proceeds from the licence fees. The same sentiments were echoed by Participant 14 who complained that:

“Munhu anobva KuKariba kuzobata hove dzedu. Mavunerable edu haabatsirwe asi Biri achingopomba mvura vamwe vachiraure hove vanhu vachiita matumbu. Isu hove tichadzibata tisina malicence. Inoda kukandira iyoyo toisa mupoto.....”

(People from as far as Kariba obtain fishing permits whilst we locals fail to do so. Our orphans and the elderly do not get any assistance from non-residents who catch fish from the dam. Certain people outside the community are benefiting from Biri Dam while we languish in poverty. The current situation encourages us to poach fish even from hatcheries.) This scenario mirrors the core-periphery theory, where the metropolitan core siphons resources from the rural peripheries.

6.2.4.12 Main Conclusions from the Qualitative Analyses

- Participants do not realise the value tourism can hold as they have no knowledge of this, are focused on making a daily living and do not want to change their current livelihood strategy.
- There is an abundance of resources that can be utilized for tourism purposes such as the Biri-Dam, storytelling, traditional practices and dances, mineral springs.
- Specific challenges include poor electricity, absence of health facilities, poor roads, and communications networks.
- Migration of younger people should be addressed, and tourism can assist in this regard.
- There is a lack of trust between all different stakeholders, and it was clear that working in a group will need facilitation and mentoring.
- The lack of a long-term vision will need to be addressed if tourism is implemented in the area.
- The current community leadership is ineffective and new governance structures are important.
- There is potential to attract the local market as a start.

6.3 Results of the Quantitative Analyses

Quantitative data make use of strategies such as experiments and surveys to collect data that are based on predetermined responses (Williams, 2007; Mohajan, 2018). The researcher used the

survey strategy to conduct quantitative research. Survey research is defined as the collection of data from a sample of respondents drawn from a large population to establish attitudes, opinions, behaviours or characteristics of a population (Kelley et al., 2003). Survey research can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. Cross-sectional survey takes place at a particular point in time while longitudinal surveys take place over a period of time. The researcher chose the cross-sectional survey, because of time and financial constraints. The survey research process is detailed in Figure 6.4. Survey research was adopted for producing generalisable data on a real-world phenomenon.

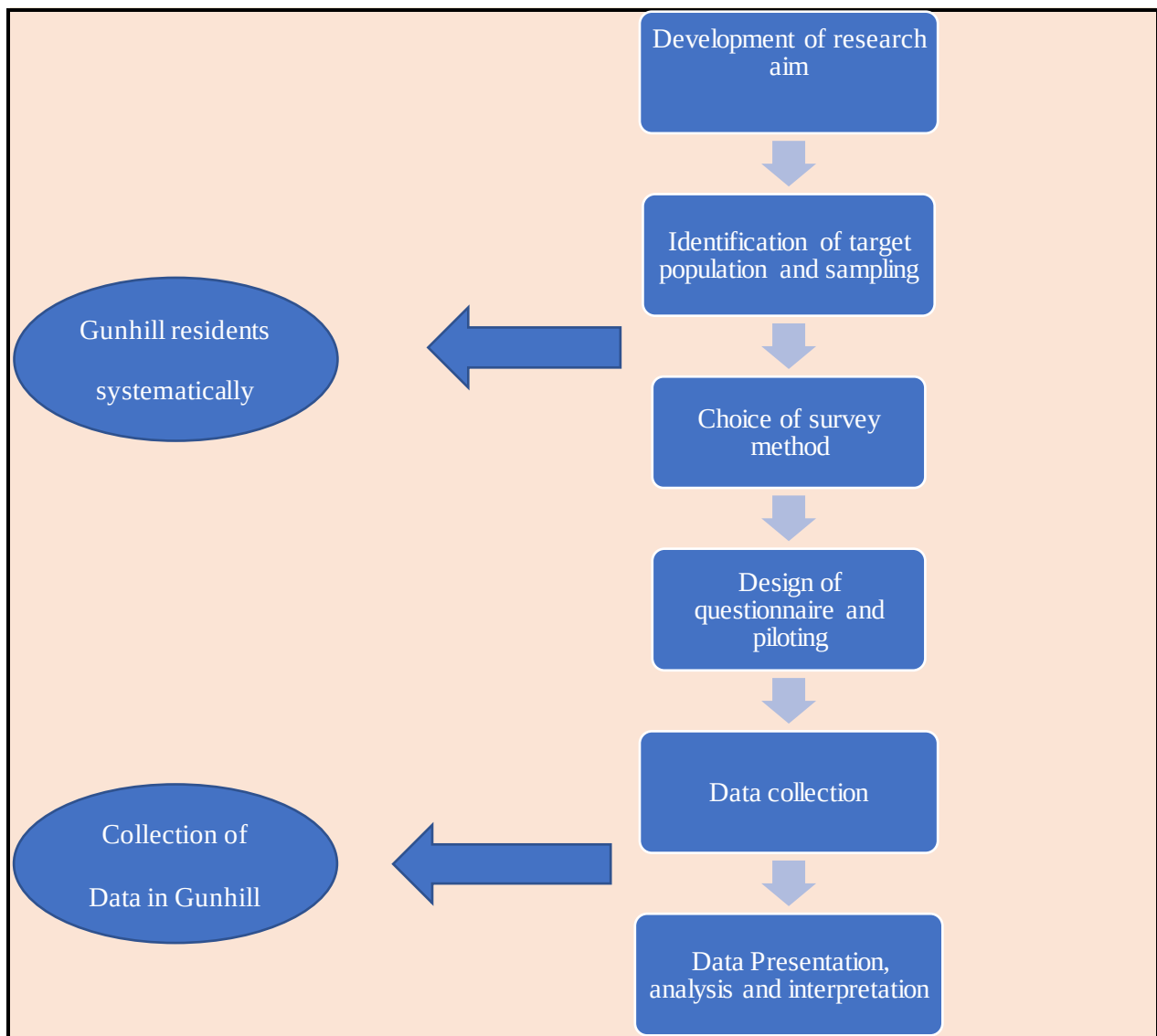


Figure 6.4: The Survey Research Design Process

Source: Own compilation

Three hundred and fifty questionnaires were administered to residents of Gunhill suburb in Chinhoyi. Self-administered questionnaires were chosen because they saved the researcher time and made it possible to distribute questionnaires to a large geographical space with ease (Bowling, 2009; Gwaltney, 2008). Gunhill residents constituted the potential domestic tourism demand of Chitomborwizi East Ward because of the former's proximity to the study area. The open-ended and closed questions provided in-depth and statistical information to construct meaning from the research findings (Akbarak, 2000; Patel and Joseph, 2016). Closed questions generated standard responses which increased the reliability of the instrument and made coding of responses much easier. Closed questions compelled respondents to make choices from a set of given alternatives only. The open-ended questions were made up of a combination of dichotomous, multiple-choice and rank order questions (Houser, 2011; Polit and Beck, 2017). Open-ended questions gave more insight into the research, but the content required was variable to the extent that more time was required for analysis of data (Patel and Joseph, 2016). The response formats were either nominal in which case the responses were in mutually exclusive categories such as gender, profession, and marital status among other factors; or ordinal responses made up of Likert scale-type questions that ranged from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. An 'other' component was included at the end of each closed question to avoid restricting respondents to pre-defined questions (Bird, 2009; O'Neill and McGuirk, 2005 and).

The questionnaire was pilot tested with 100 respondents from Gunhill suburb to improve its reliability and validity. After the pilot test, some questions were removed from the instrument due to ambiguity. Data collection took place during the same period when interviews were conducted in 2019. Questionnaires were preferred instruments because respondents could complete them at their convenience. Sometimes questionnaires have a poor response rate, high question omission rates, and target literate respondents and it is important to plan for these possibilities. Of the 350 questionnaires that were distributed, 300 were returned. This represented a response rate of 86%.

The responses from the questionnaire were analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25. SPSS made statistical analysis and graphical presentation of the survey data easier. Responses from the data contained in the questionnaire were mainly categorical. As a result, descriptive statistics such as frequency tables, graphs and pie charts were generated.

Additionally, cross tabulations were used to test the relationships between dependent and independent variables in categorical data sets. The relationships between tourism travel vis a vis gender, age, income, age, and marital status were explored using cross tabulations. Inferential statistics were generated by testing the significance of the association between categorical values at 5% confidence interval, using the Pearson Chi-Square categorical and quantitative variables. A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out to test the relationship between travel expenditure (dependent variable) and demographic variables of age, gender, income level and level of education (independent variables). A p-value which is more than 0.05 indicates that the means are not statistically different whereas a p-value less than 0.05 indicates that the means are statistically different. In the former the null hypothesis is rejected whereas in the latter it is accepted. Question number 21 on destination evaluation characteristics was analysed using R software because of its precision and quality graphical and visual outputs.

6.3.1 Demographic profile of Gunhill residents

Table 6.4 below shows a summary of demographic data of the respondents. It summarises the age, gender, marital status, income and education level of research respondents. 84% of the respondents were in the 25-44 years age range because this age group was productive in employment and therefore likely to reside in urban areas working or in search of jobs. 24.3% of the respondents were in the 35-44, 11% were in the 45-54 whereas 3.7% were in the 55-64 years age groups. The latter age group was less economically productive and in the retirement phase and the majority normally resided in rural areas. The sample was thus biased towards the younger respondents.

65.67% of the respondents were males whilst 34.33% were females. The households in Zimbabwe were predominantly patriarchal and as a result the first point of call at any homestead was usually the males (Mutami, 2015). This explains the higher number of male respondents. 51.7% of the respondents were married followed by 45% that were single, 1% divorced, and 2.3% widowed. 0.7% did not respond to the question. The higher number of married respondents might contribute to creating demand for tourism if both husband and wife were earning an income. Dual incomes contribute to increased discretionary income that facilitates travel and tourism. 62% of the respondents were educated with a tertiary education qualification. 0.3% and 37.7% of the respondents had either a primary or secondary education qualification, respectively.

84.6% of the respondents earned between US\$ 1 and US\$ 999 whilst 7% of the respondents earned between US\$1000 and US\$1499 per month. Only 6.3% earned above US\$1500. Income is a very important determinant of travel propensity. Garin-Munoz (2009) and Taylor and Ortiz (2009) agree that there is a positive relationship between tourism demand and income levels.

Table 6.4: Demographic Details of Respondents

Demographic Variable		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age	25-34	180	60	60.6	60.6
	35-44	73	24.3	24.6	85.2
	45-54	33	11	11.1	96.3
	55-64	11	3.7	3.7	100
	Total	297	99	100	
Missing		3	1		
Total		300	100		
Marital Status	Married	154	51.3	51.7	51.7
	Single	134	44.7	45	96.6
	Divorced	3	1	1	97.7
	Widowed	7	2.3	2.3	100
	Total	298	99.3	100	
Missing		2	0.7		
Total		300	100		
Education Level	Primary	1	0.3	0.3	0.3
	Secondary	113	37.7	37.9	38.3
	Tertiary	183	61	61.4	99.7
	Total	298	99.3	100	
Missing		2	0.7		
Total		300	100		
Gender	Female	103	34.3	34.3	34.3
	Male	197	65.7	65.7	100
	Total	300	100	100	
Designation	Top Management	14	0.3	0.3	0.3
	Middle Management	113	37.7	37.9	38.3
	Supervisory	144	48	48.3	86.6
	Operational level	39	13	13.1	99.7
	Total	298	99.3	100	
Missing		2	0.7		
Total		300	100		

Income	<\$500	148	49.3	50.2	50.2
	\$500-\$999	106	35.3	35.9	86.1
	\$1000-\$1499	21	7	7.1	93.2
	>\$1500	19	6.3	6.4	99.7
	None	1	0.3	0.3	100
	Total	295	98.3	100	
Missing		5	1.7		
Total		300	100		

6.3.2 Travel for Tourism Purposes

Figure 6.5 shows that 77% of the respondents had travelled for tourism purposes. As a result, there was potential for those actively engaged in tourism to also visit Chitomborwizi East Ward. This suggested that there was a higher likelihood that domestic tourism in Chitomborwizi would materialise.

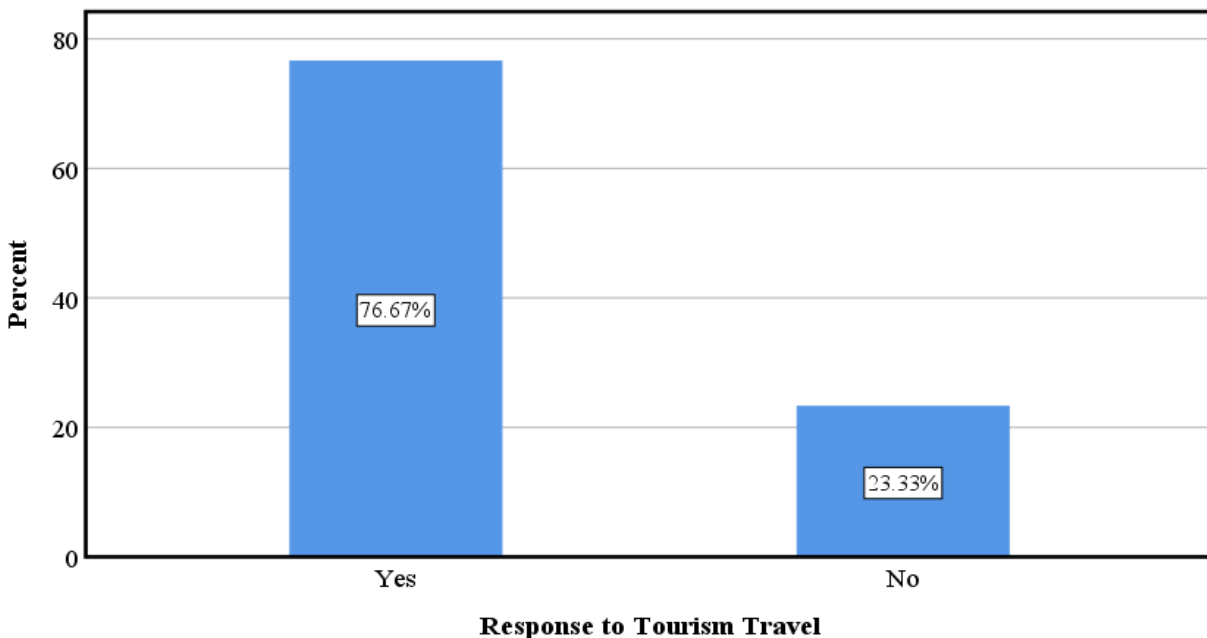


Figure 6.5: Previous travel for tourism purposes

6.3.2.1 Factors Influencing Tourism Demand

This section analyses factors which influence tourism demand such as education level, marital status and income.

6.3.2.1.1 *Education*

Table 6.5 shows that 64% of the respondents who had a tertiary qualification participated in tourism. 35% of the respondents had a basic education qualification. The higher the level of education, the greater the propensity to travel.

Table 6.5: Education Level and Tourism Demand

			Tourism Travel		Total
			Yes	No	
Education Level	Primary	Count	1	0	1
		% Tourism Travel	0.4%	0.0%	0.3%
	Secondary	Count	81	33	114
		% Tourism Travel	35.5%	47.8%	38.4%
	Tertiary qualification	Count	146	36	182
		% Tourism Travel	64.0%	52.2%	61.3%
Total		Count	228	69	297
		% Tourism Travel	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Hypothesis testing was done to test the relationship between education level and tourism demand. The hypothesis was tested as follows:

H₀: Tourism demand is independent of education level.

H₁: Tourism demand is not independent of education level.

As shown in Table 6.6, there was no significant relationship between education level and tourism demand since $p=0.258$.

Table 6.6: Pearson Chi-square test: Education and Tourism demand

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.035 ^a	3	0.258
Likelihood Ratio	4.276	3	0.233
N of Valid Cases	297		
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .23.			

6.3.2.1.2 Age

Figure 6.6 shows that 66.11% of the respondents involved in tourism were in the 25-44 years age group. This was the most economically active age group that had the highest propensity to travel because of the income earned from employment. The 45-64 years age group range accounted for only 10.85% of tourism travel because this group comprised retirees. As a result of the prevailing hyperinflationary environment in Zimbabwe, their pensions might have lost value. On the contrary, Sniaderk (2006) propounds that this population has the greater propensity to travel.

The null hypothesis for the relationship between age and tourism travel was stated as follows;
 H_0 : Tourism demand is independent of age.

H_1 : Tourism demand is not independent of age.

A p-value of 0.580 from Table 8.7 indicates that tourism demand was independent of age. The null hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, from the findings, age was not a determinant of tourism demand. Sniadek (2006) is of the opposite view that age is a determinant of tourism demand. When compared to young people the older generation tended to be involved in more recreation as compared to the young ones because they had more time and better financial resources.

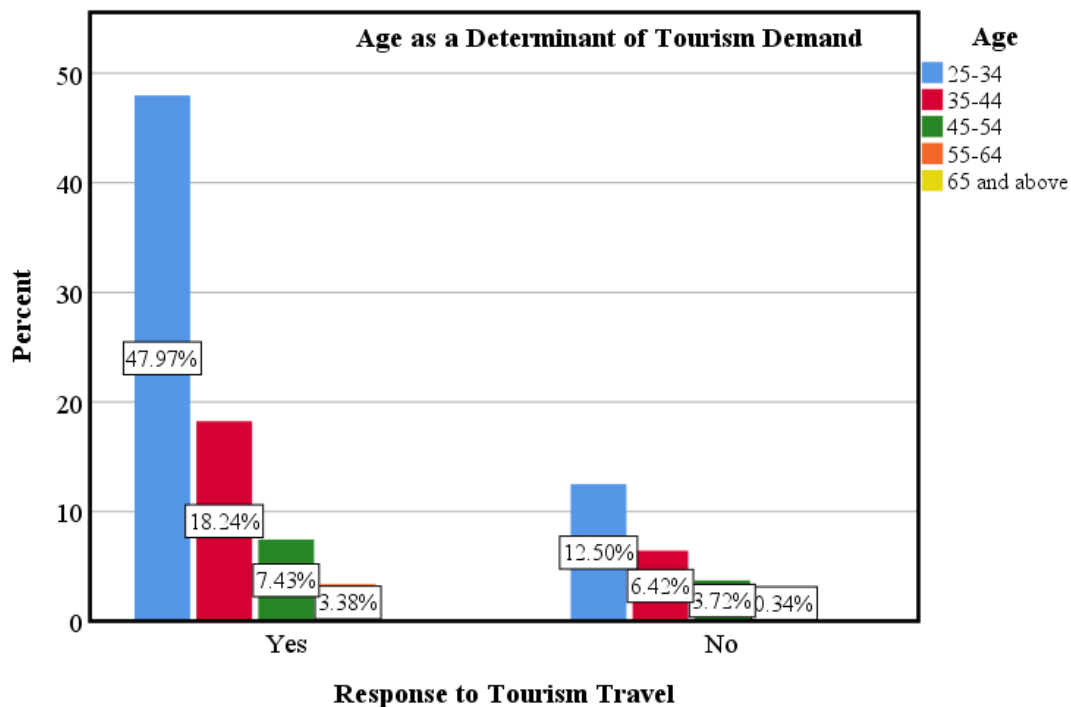


Figure 6.6: Age and tourism demand

Table 6.7: Pearson Chi-Square Test: Age and Tourism Demand

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.722 ^a	6	0.580
Likelihood Ratio	5.166	6	0.523
N of Valid Cases	296		
a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .04.			

6.3.2.1.3 **Gender**

Figure 6.7 shows that 48.82% of males were involved in tourism travel compared to 26.71% of the women. Therefore, men have a greater propensity to travel compared to women. The results could be based on the fact that more men than women answered the questionnaire.



Figure 6.7: Gender and Tourism Demand

The relationship between age and gender was tested as follows:

H₀: Tourism Demand is independent of gender.

H₁: Tourism Demand is not independent of gender.

As shown in Table 6.8, a p value of 0.000 means that a relationship between tourism demand and gender exists. Consequently, tourism demand and gender are interrelated.

Table 6.8: Pearson Chi-Square Test: Gender and Tourism Demand

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	101.682 ^a	4	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	12.631	4	0.013
N of Valid Cases	300		
a. 5 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.			

6.3.2.1.4 **Marital Status**

Table 6.9 shows that a higher percentage of married couples engaged in tourism travel. 50.2% of married couples took part in tourism. Only 46.7% of singles engage in travel. Participation in tourism may occur to offset loneliness associated with being single. 3% of the respondents were either widowed or divorced. Loss of a partner may reduce income available to participate in tourism or may reduce interest in tourism as an activity.

Table 6.9: Marital Status and Tourism demand

			Tourism Travel		Total
			Yes	No	
Marital Status	Married	Count	114	39	153
		% Tourism Travel	50.2%	55.7%	51.5%
	Single	Count	106	28	134
		% Tourism Travel	46.7%	40.0%	45.1%
	Divorced	Count	1	2	3
		% Tourism Travel	0.4%	2.9%	1.0%
	Widowed	Count	6	1	7
		% Tourism Travel	2.6%	1.4%	2.4%
Total		Count	227	70	297
		% Tourism Travel	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The relationship between marital status and tourism demand was tested as follows:

H₀: Marital status is independent of tourism demand.

H₁: Marital status is not independent of tourism demand.

Marital status and tourism demand are independent variables because p-value of 0.233 was recorded as shown in Table 6.10. Married couples may have a dual income which facilitates travel. Therefore, dependency between the two variables was expected but turned out not to be valid.

Table 6.10: Relationship between Marital Status and Tourism Demand

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.273 ^a	3	0.233
Likelihood Ratio	3.728	3	0.292
N of Valid Cases	297		
a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .71.			

6.3.2.1.5 *Income*

Figure 6.8 shows that 64.97% of the respondents who travelled earned US\$ 999 or less. This was because the prevailing macro-economic conditions made it difficult for employers to pay high salaries. However, people might still undertake day trips based on their low incomes. 5.44% of the residents who travelled earned between US\$1000 and 1499. 6.46% earned more than US\$ 1500. Of the 30% that had never travelled for tourism purposes, 21.08% earned less or equal to US\$999, while 0.34% earned between US\$ 1000-US\$ 1499.

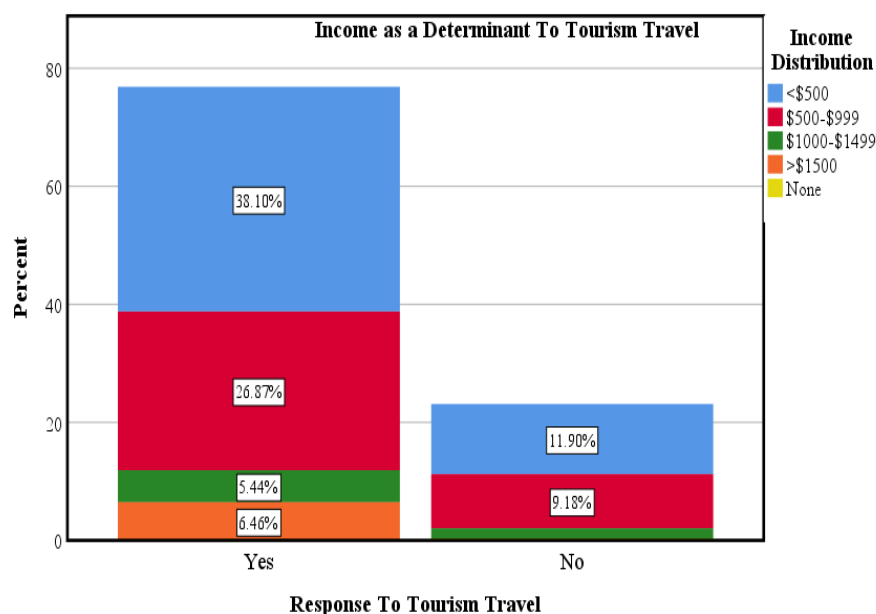


Figure 6.8: Income as a tourism determinant

The relationship between income and tourism travel was framed as follows:

H₀: Income and Tourism demand are independent.

H₁: Income and Tourism demand are not independent.

Table 6.11 shows that income and tourism demand were independent since p has a value of 0.052. There was no correlation between income and tourism demand. This contradicts findings by Cooper, Fletcher, Fall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2008) who stipulate that the higher the income earned, the greater the propensity to travel.

Table 6.11: Relationship between Income and Tourism Demand

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.411 ^a	4	0.052
Likelihood Ratio	13.287	4	0.010
N of Valid Cases	294		
a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .23.			

6.3.2.1.6 **Position in Organisation**

Table 6.12 shows that 51.3% of the respondents who had travelled for tourism purposes occupied operational positions within organisations. This could be attributed to the fact that most organisations had reduced managerial positions in companies in a bid to reduce the wage bill. The current harsh macro-economic environment in the country made it difficult for companies to keep employees in high positions and pay high salaries. These findings tallied with the fact that 38.1% tourism travellers fell within the income bracket of those who earned less than US\$ 500. These probably represented a portion of 51.3% of operational staff. Only 33.9 % of top- and middle-management did not travel because they might have been time-rich but money-poor. 64.3% of those who did not travel were operational staff. As operational staff their salaries may have been too low to warrant any involvement in tourism. 32.8% of those who did not travel were at either top-, middle- or supervisory-level.

Table 6.12: Organisational Position and Tourism Demand

			Tourism Travel		Total
			Yes	No	
Designation	Top Management	Count	44	5	49
		% Tourism Travel	19.1%	7.1%	16.3%
	Middle Management	Count	34	8	42
		% Tourism Travel	14.8%	11.4%	14.0%
	Supervisory	Count	22	10	32
		% Tourism Travel	9.6%	14.3%	10.7%
	Operational	Count	118	45	163
		% Tourism Travel	51.3%	64.3%	54.3%
Other	Count	12	2	14	
	% Tourism Travel	5.2%	2.9%	4.7%	
Total		Count	230	70	300
		% Tourism Travel	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The relationship between income and tourism travel was framed as follows:

H₀: Organisational Position and Tourism demand are independent,

H₁: Organisational Position and Tourism demand are not independent.

Table 6.13 shows that organisational position and tourism demand were independent since p had a value of 0.073. There was no correlation between organisational position and tourism demand. This contradicts findings by Cooper, Fletcher, Fall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2008) who stipulate that income earned is directly related to the professional status of the individual. It is expected that those in higher positions of authority would have more income and as a result would tend to exhibit a greater propensity to travel.

Table 6.13: Relationship between organisational position and Tourism Demand

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.579 ^a	4	0.073
Likelihood Ratio	9.454	4	0.051
N of Valid Cases	300		
a. 1 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.27.			

6.3.3 Purpose of Travel

Figure 6.9 shows that 76.66% of the respondents cited fun, sports and recreation as the main reasons for travel. 8.33%, 7.67% and 3% of the respondents travelled for business, visiting friends and relatives and religion, respectively. Therefore, the main reason for undertaking trips was for leisure purposes. Consequently, Chitomborwizi East Ward needs to be developed to cater for leisure tourists. There was little interest in cultural tourism despite Chitomborwizi East Ward boasting a multiplicity of cultures. Only 2.67% of the respondents travelled for cultural purposes.

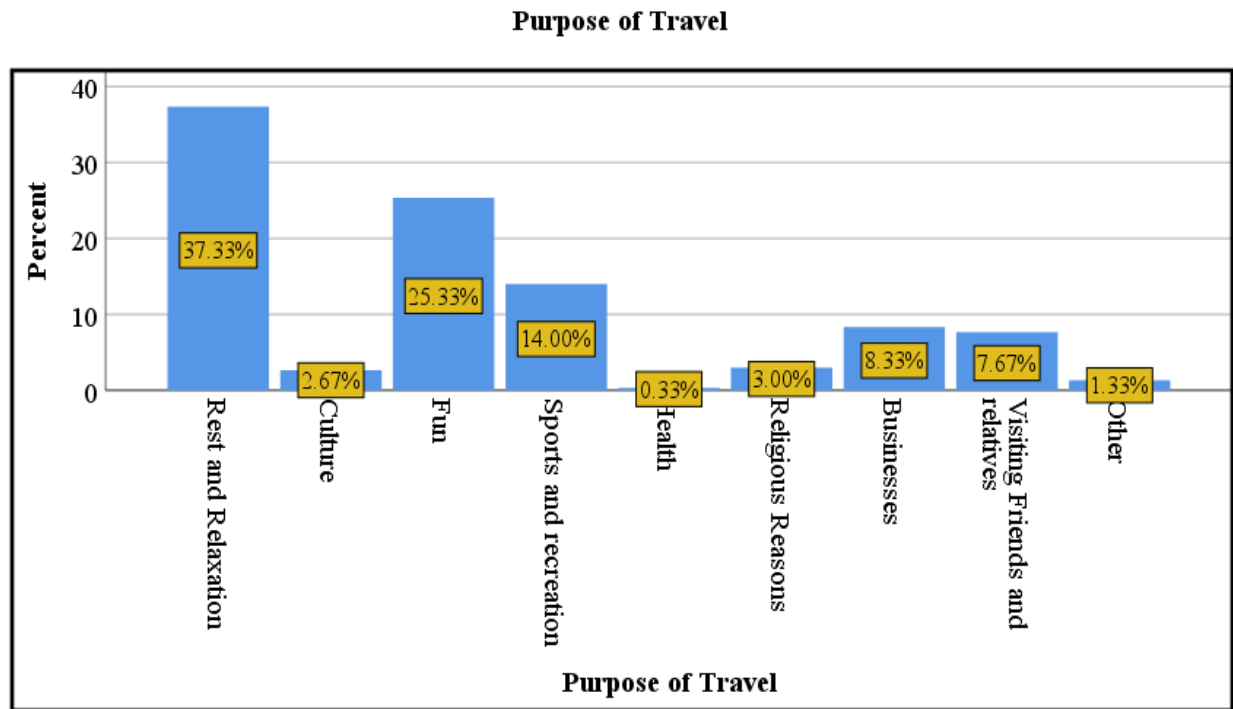


Figure 6.9: Travel Purposes

6.3.3.1 Factors influencing purpose of travel

6.3.3.1.1 Age

As shown in Figure 6.10, the 25-44 years age group travelled predominantly for leisure purposes. 31.8% of this age group travelled for rest and relaxation, 28.24% travelled for fun while 10.48% travelled for sports and recreation. Hence tourism products and services in Chitomborwizi East should be tailored to meet the needs of this age group. The same age group recorded a frequency

of 5.07% for both business travel and visiting friends and relatives (VFR). 0.34% of the 55-64 years age group travelled for health purposes.

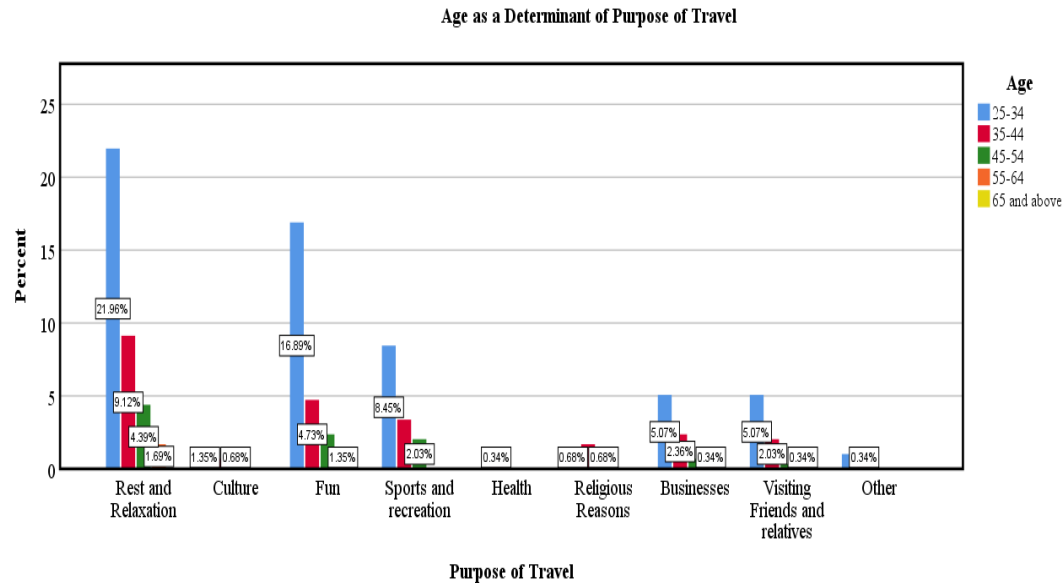


Figure 6.10: Age and purpose of travel

The relationship between age and purpose of travel is framed as below.

H_0 : Age and travel purpose are independent of each other.

H_1 : Age and travel purpose are not independent of each other.

There was no relationship between age and travel purpose with a p-value of 0.773 as shown in Table 6.14 below. Therefore, age did not influence the purpose of travel. However, Cooper *et al.* (2008) contend that age determines purpose of travel because the millennial age cohort has a greater propensity to travel for experiential purposes compared to other generations. From the findings of the present study, however, age was not found to be a determinant of travel purpose

Table 6.14: Relationship between age and travel purpose

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.593 ^a	24	0.773
Likelihood Ratio	20.569	24	0.664
N of Valid Cases	296		
a. 23 cells (63.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .04.			

6.3.3.2 Gender

Figure 6.11 shows that 25.25% of those who travelled for rest and relaxation were males whilst 12.46% were women. 15.15% of males travelled in search of fun and 9.76% females sought the same. 9.43% of the men engaged in sport and recreation, as did 4.38% of females. 6.73% of males and 1.68% of females engaged in business travel.

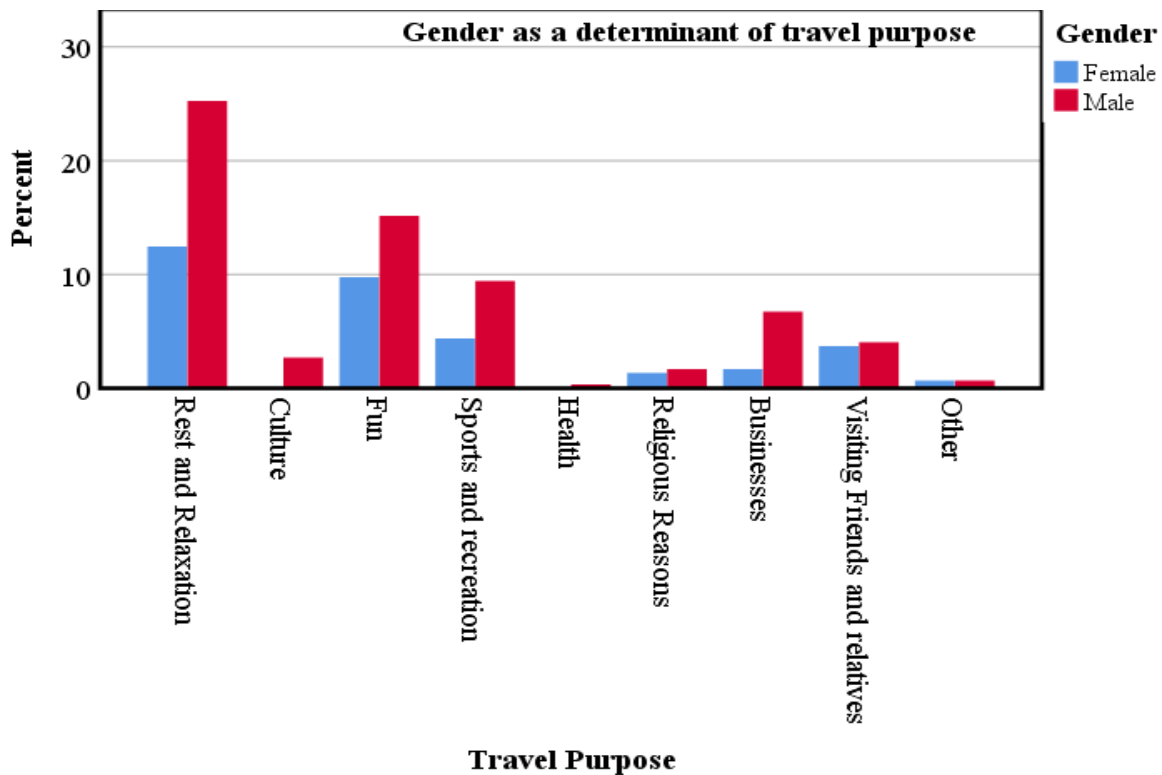


Figure 6.11: Gender and Travel Purpose

The relationship between gender and purpose of travel is framed as below.

H₀: Gender and travel purpose are independent of each other.

H₁: Gender and travel purpose are not independent of each other.

As shown in Table 6.15 gender and travel purpose were independent of each other. A p value of 0.490 represents the independence of the relationship.

Table 6.15: Relationship between Gender and Travel purpose

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.476 ^a	16	0.490
Likelihood Ratio	19.250	16	0.256
N of Valid Cases	300		
a. 15 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.			

6.3.3.3 Marital Status

Figure 6.12 shows that married and single respondents made up 36.37% of the residents who travelled for rest and recreation. The same categories of respondents accounted for 23.91% of residents who travelled for fun. Single and married respondents also accounted for 13.8% of those respondents who travelled for sports and recreation. The married couples travelled for fun, rest and relaxation with their families. Single individuals travelled to have fun, relax, and play sport with the intention of creating social bonds with others. However, the married couples dominated participation in the three major activities.

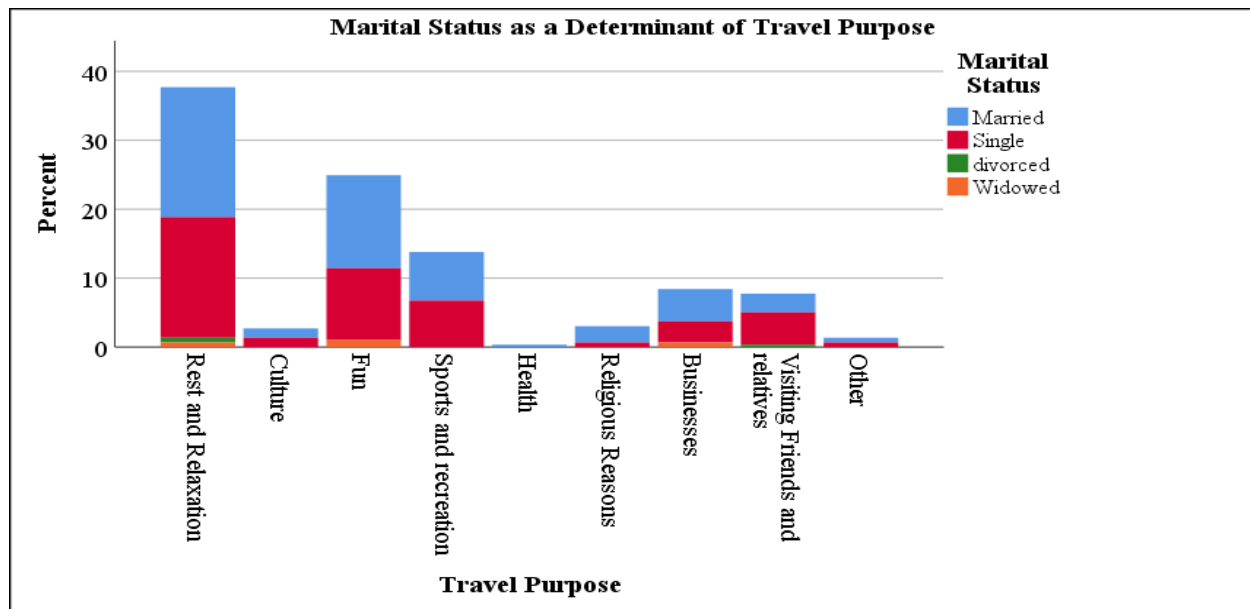


Figure 6.12: Marital status as a determinant of travel purpose

The relationship between marital status and purpose of travel is framed as below.

H_0 : Marital status and travel purpose are independent of each other.

H_1 : Marital status and travel purpose are not independent of each other.

As shown in Table 6.16 gender and travel purpose were independent of each other. A p-value of 0.490 represents the independence of the relationship between marital status and travel purpose.

Table 6.16: Relationship between marital status and travel purpose

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.476 ^a	16	0.490
Likelihood Ratio	19.250	16	0.256
N of Valid Cases	300		
a. 15 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.			

6.3.3.4 Income and Travel purpose

30.28% of the respondents who engaged in travel for the purpose of rest and relaxation earned US\$999 or less. 22.45% of the respondents in the same income category took part in fun-filled activities. 12.92%, 4.76% and 4.76% of respondents in the income category of less or equal to US\$999 and below travelled for sports and recreation, business, and VFR. 3.74% of respondents who earned between US\$1000-1499 travelled for rest and relaxation. Only 0.3% of those who earned more than US\$1500 travelled for rest and relaxation. Despite earning less than or equal to US\$999, respondents in this category tended to travel more than other income categories.

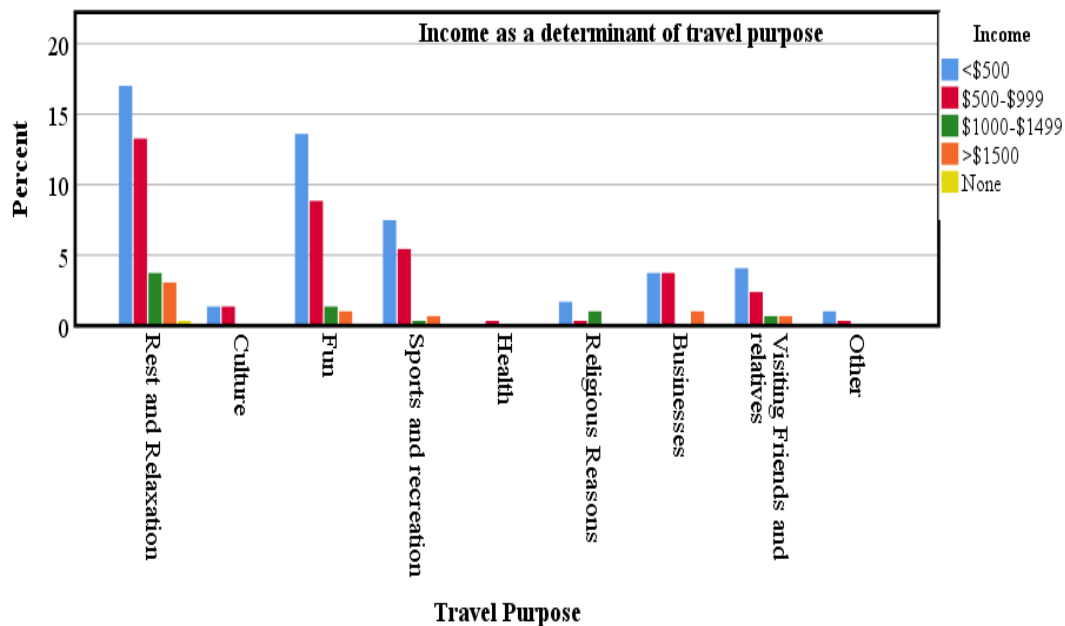


Figure 6.13: Income and travel purpose

The relationship between travel purpose and income was tested using the Chi-square test as follows;

H_0 : Income and travel purpose are independent of each other.

H_1 : Income and travel purpose are not independent of each other.

Table 6.17 shows that income and travel purpose were independent of each other since p has a value of 0.757. The study finding also revealed the same since residents who earned US\$999 or less tended to engage in tourism more than those who earned more than they did.

Table 6.17: Relationship between Income and Travel Purpose

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.157 ^a	32	0.757
Likelihood Ratio	27.198	32	0.708
N of Valid Cases	294		
a. 32 cells (71.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.			

6.3.3.5 Education level

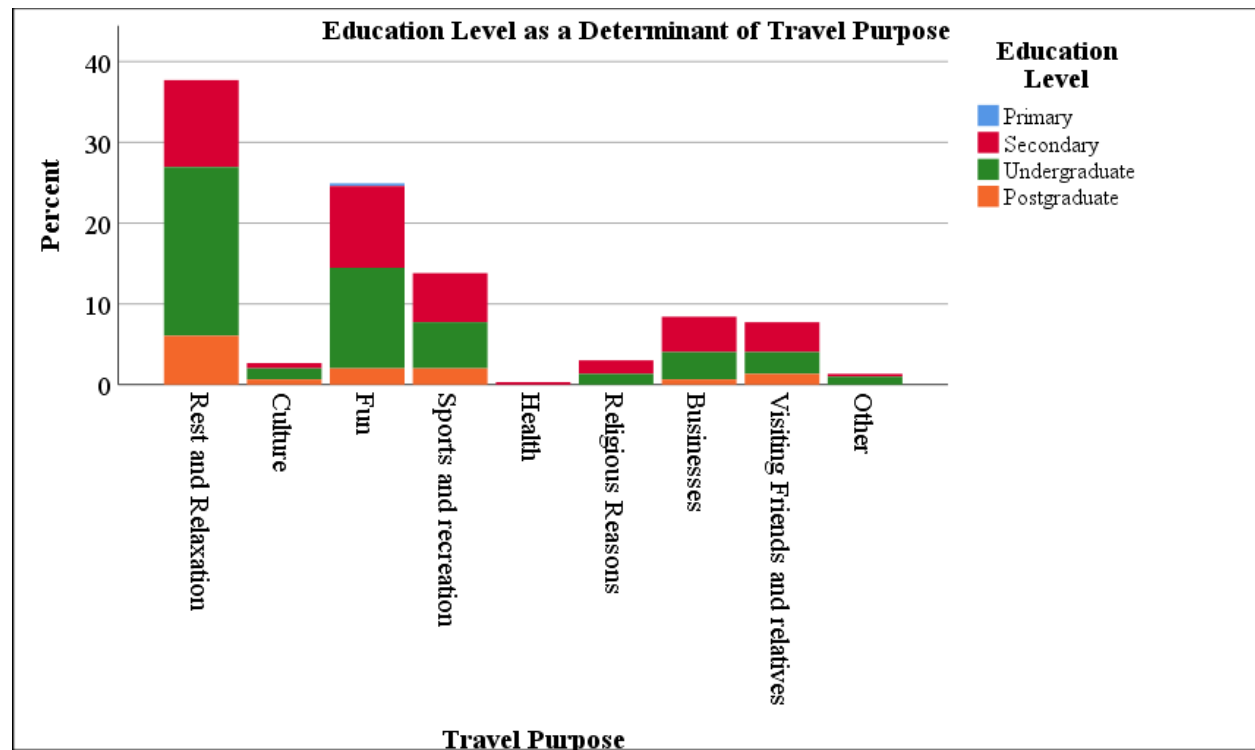


Figure 6.14: Level of Education as a Determinant of Travel

As shown in Figure 6.14, 26.94%, 14.48% and 9.74% of respondents who had a tertiary qualification travelled for rest and relaxation, fun and sports and recreation, respectively. Similarly, 10.77%, 10.44% and 6.06% of respondents who had basic education travelled for rest and relaxation, fun and sports and recreation, respectively. In addition, 4.38% of respondents who had basic

education travelled for business purposes. 3.70% of respondents who had basic education also travelled to VFR.

The relationship between travel purpose and education level was tested using the Chi-square test as follows:

H₀: Education and travel purpose are independent of each other.

H₁: Education and travel purpose are not independent of each other.

Education level and travel purpose were independent of each other since p has a value of 0.696 as shown in Table 6.18. The level of education was not a determinant of tourism purpose.

Table 6.18: Education level and purpose of travel

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.015 ^a	24	0.696
Likelihood Ratio	21.761	24	0.594
N of Valid Cases	297		
a. 23 cells (63.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.			

6.3.4 Travel Preferences

6.3.4.1 Type of Travel Enjoyed

Table 6.19 shows that short-haul travel was preferred to long-haul travel. 69.6% of the respondents undertook domestic travel whilst 21.0% undertook regional travel. This was attributed to the fact that residents who engaged in tourism were those who earned less or equal to US\$ 999. Therefore, these respondents could afford short-distance travel. Only 8.9% of the respondents had visited international destinations. 0.4% of the respondents travelled to all destinations.

Table 6.19: Type of Journeys

	Frequency	Percent
Domestic journeys	156	69.6
Regional journeys	47	21.0
International journeys	20	8.9
All	1	0.4
Total	224	100.0

6.3.4.2 Preferences for Short-Haul Travel

As shown in Table 6.20, 40.9%, 15.2%, 5.5% and 21.3% preferred short-haul travel because it was more affordable, took a shorter time, reduced stress and avoided the hatred of long-distance travel respectively. 3% of the respondents preferred short-haul travel because it was stress free and afforded the opportunity for sightseeing. Less than 2% of the respondents chose short-haul journeys because of the desire to see familiar surroundings, lack of car ownership and the search for fun.

Table 6.20: Reasons for engaging in short-haul travel

	Frequency	Percent
Cheap	67	40.9
Reduces stress	9	5.5
Familiar surroundings	3	1.8
No car	1	0.6
No time wasted	25	15.2
Domestic tourism	1	0.6
Prevents fatigue	5	3.0
Sightseeing	5	3.0
Unplanned	3	1.8
For fun	1	0.6
Travel to unfamiliar surroundings	6	3.7
Hazardous roads	3	1.8
Hate long distance	35	21.3
Total	164	100.0

6.3.4.3 Reasons for non-Tourism Travel

Figure 6.15 shows that 67%, 27%, 16.36% and 12.73% of the respondents did not take part in tourism travel because they were money poor, time poor and had no interest, respectively. 1.82% of the respondents cited fear of travel, and religion as deterrents to travel. The macro-economic conditions in the country made it difficult for individuals to take part in tourism. Perhaps with

tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward, passive demand may transform to active demand.

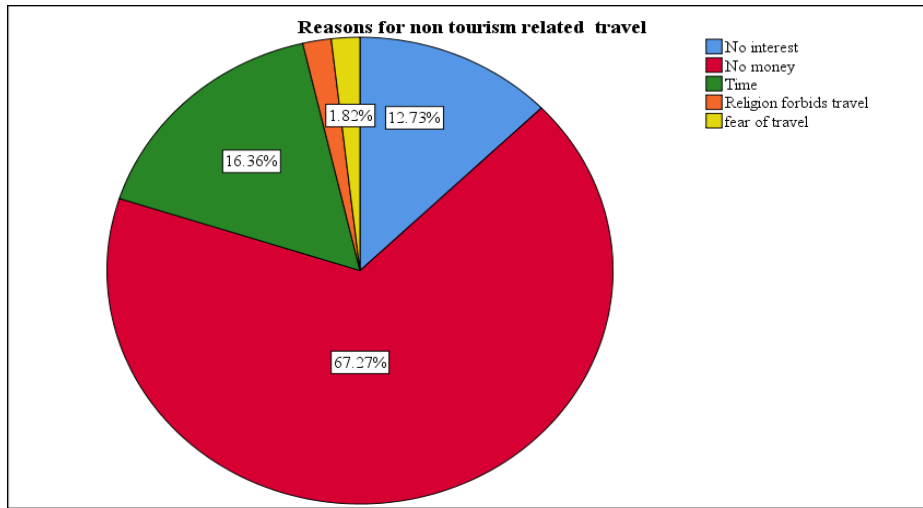


Figure 6.15: Reasons for non-tourism travel

6.3.4.4 Future Intention to Travel

Figure 6.16 shows that 93.55% of those who had never travelled indicated that they would travel in future whilst 6.45% indicated that they would not travel. If a high percentage of non-travellers intend to travel at some future date, domestic tourism demand to Chitomborwizi East would be guaranteed. The change in economic circumstances of non-travellers in future may facilitate desire to travel.

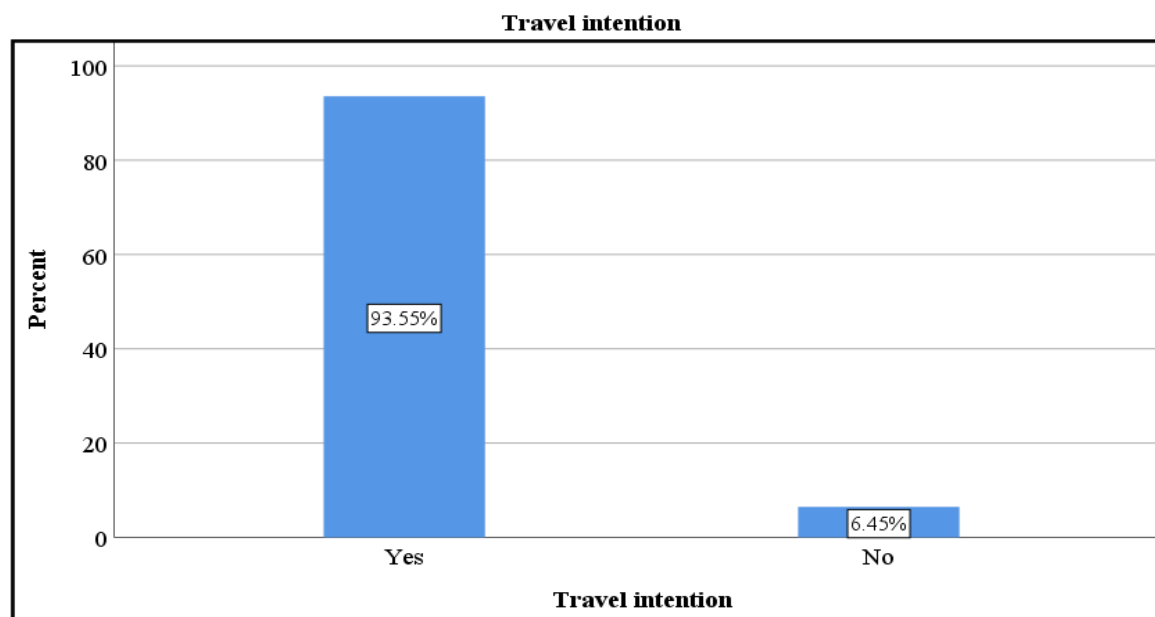


Figure 6.16: Type of Journeys

6.3.5 Travel to Chitomborwizi East Ward

Table 6.21 shows that 40.5% of respondents had been to Chitomborwizi East Ward whilst 59.5% indicated that they had never been there. Therefore, Chitomborwizi East Ward was not a well-known destination. There was therefore a need to market the destination intensively or create products that would attract visitors.

Table 6.21: Travel to Chitomborwizi East

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	118	40.5
No	173	59.5
Total	291	100.0

6.3.5.1 Reasons for not having been to Chitomborwizi East Ward

Figure 6.17 shows that 64.42% of respondents said they had never visited Chitomborwizi East because they had never heard of it.

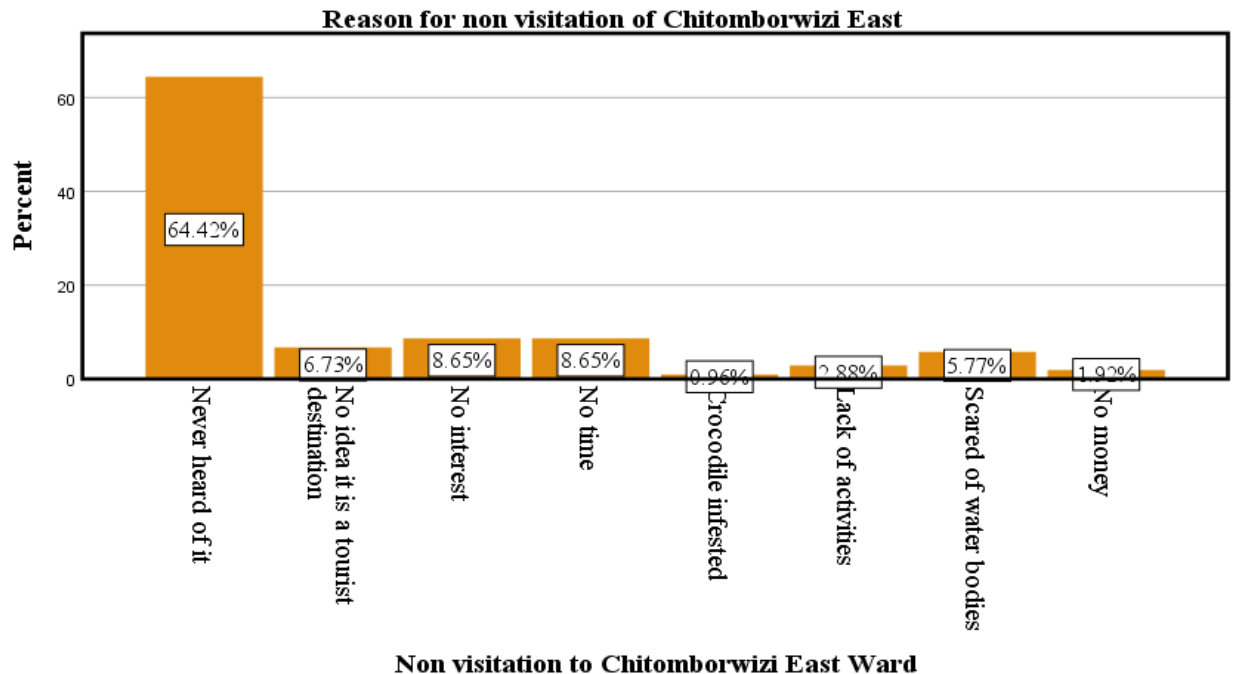


Figure 6.17: Reasons for non-visitation of Chitomborwizi East Ward

8.65% cited lack of interest and time as the reasons for non-visitation of the destination. 6.73% had no idea it was a tourist destination whilst 5.77% said they feared water bodies such as Biri Dam. 2.88%, 1.92% and 0.96% mentioned lack of diversity of activities, no money and too many crocodiles in the dam as the reason they had never been to Biri Dam.

Some of these reasons also link with the results of the qualitative research where it was mentioned that Chitomborwizi East Ward was not, yet a tourism destination and the crocodiles created challenges.

6.3.5.2 Frequency of visit

Figure 6.18 shows that 65.83% of respondents had been to Chitomborwizi East Ward once or twice, while 20% had been to Chitomborwizi East Ward three or four times. Only 14.17% had been to Chitomborwizi East Ward more than five times. Clearly, Chitomborwizi East Ward was not visited often, possibly due to a limited diversity of activities that visitors could take part in.

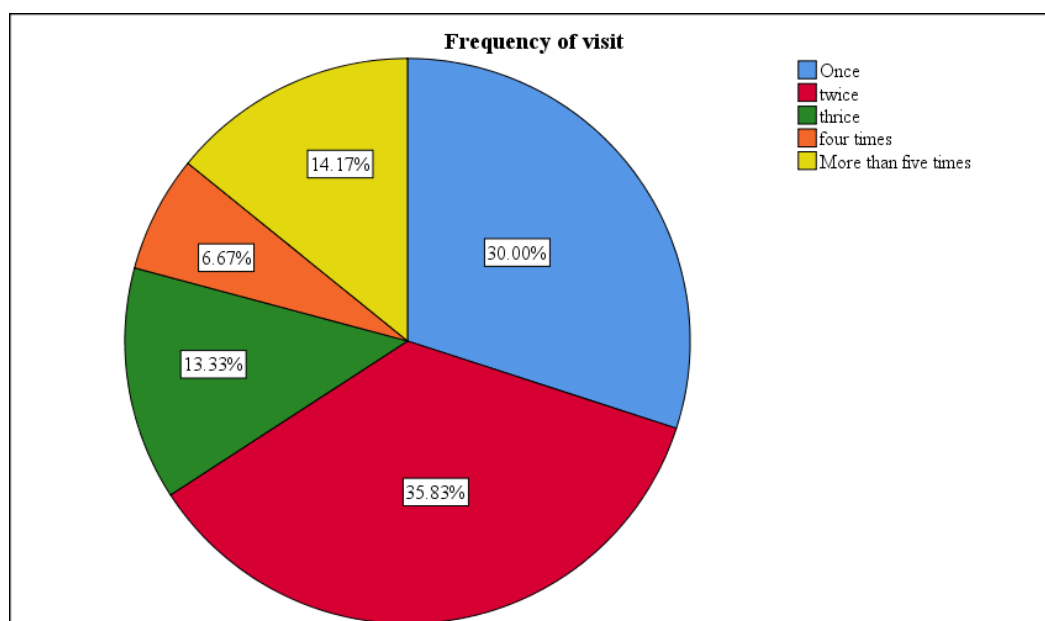


Figure 6.18: Frequency of visitation of Chitomborwizi East Ward

6.3.5.3 Knowledge of Chitomborwizi East Ward

Table 6.22 depicts that 87.2% of the respondents who visited Chitomborwizi East Ward knew about the destination from friends and relatives. 6.0%, 4.3%, 1.7% and 0.9% respectively knew about Chitomborwizi East Ward through reports and newspapers, advertising, the internet, and travel intermediaries. Word-of-mouth recommendations should be encouraged to raise an awareness of the existence of Biri Dam.

Table 6.22: Knowledge of Chitomborwizi East Ward

	Frequency	Percent
Friends and Relatives	102	87.2
Advertising	5	4.3
Internet	2	1.7
Travel agencies and Tour wholesalers	1	0.9
Reports, news, editorial articles in newspapers	7	6.0
Total	117	100.0

6.3.5.4 Place of Stay whilst Visiting Chitomborwizi East Ward

As shown in Figure 6.19, 76.92 % of the respondents cited that they stayed in Chinhoyi while they visited Chitomborwizi East Ward. 23.08 % of the respondents stayed at the destination. Many of the visitors were excursionists who had no intention of staying in Chitomborwizi East Ward. They returned to their place of residence which was Chinhoyi town.

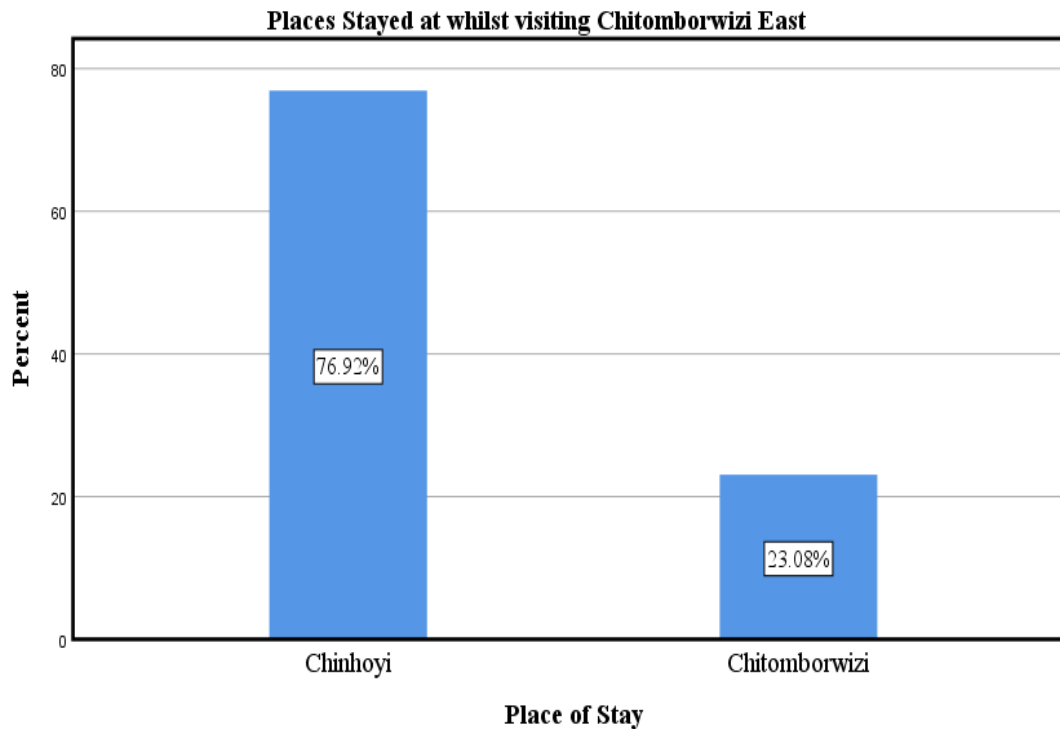


Figure 6.19: Place of stay whilst visiting Biri Dam

6.3.5.5 Number of Nights Spent

Figure 6.20 shows that 69.30% of the respondents stayed in Chitomborwizi East Ward for less than a day because the area is very close to Chinhoyi town where they reside. 28.95% of the respondents stayed in Chitomborwizi East Ward between 1 and 6 days. Only 1.75% of the respondents stayed at the proposed destination for more than 10 days. Therefore, it was apparent that people who went to Chitomborwizi East were excursionists. Apart from going to Biri Dam, there was nothing else that visitors could do in the area. This caused visitors to stay for short periods of time. To increase the length of stay at the destination, it was of paramount importance to offer a portfolio of tourism activities.

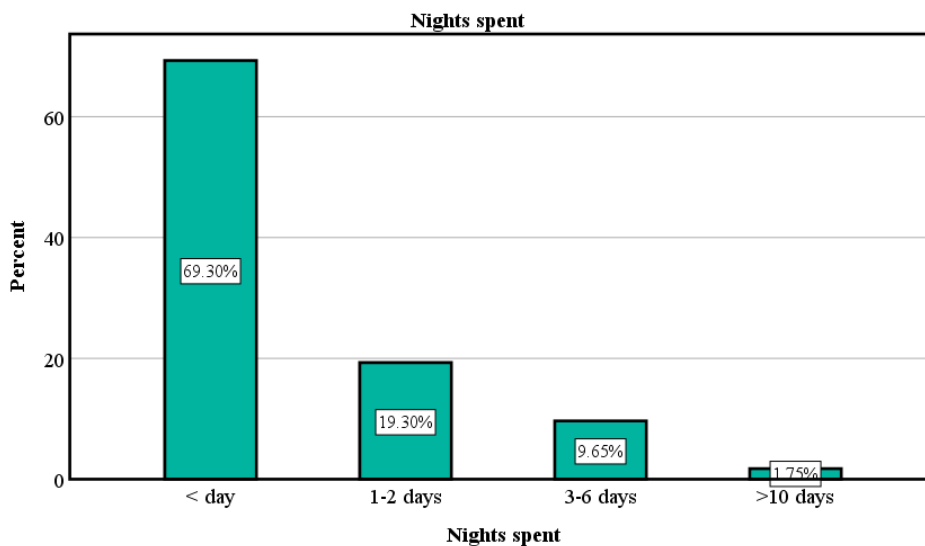


Figure 6.20: Nights Spent while visiting Chitomborwizi East

6.3.5.6 Frequency of Annual Visits

Table 6.23 shows that 78% of respondents said they would take one or two trips to Chitomborwizi East while 9.2% would take three trips. 10.1% of respondents said they would take over four trips. 2.8% of the respondents would not take any trips. The frequency of overnight trips was low because there were limited activities that could be undertaken at the destination. To increase the frequency of annual visits, introduction of diverse activities was paramount.

Table 6.23: Frequency of Annual Visits

<i>Number of annual visits</i>	Frequency	Percent
One	67	61.5
Two	18	16.5
Three	10	9.2
Over four	11	10.1
None	3	2.8
Total	109	100.0

6.3.5.7 Travel Company

Figure 6.21 shows that 54.31% of respondents travelled to Biri Dam with friends and family. 18.97% travelled with friends whilst 15.52% travelled alone. 3.45% and 1.72% travelled with business partners and co-workers, respectively. Therefore, Chitomborwizi East Ward is an area that

had the potential to attract families in search of rest and relaxation, fun as well as sports and recreation.

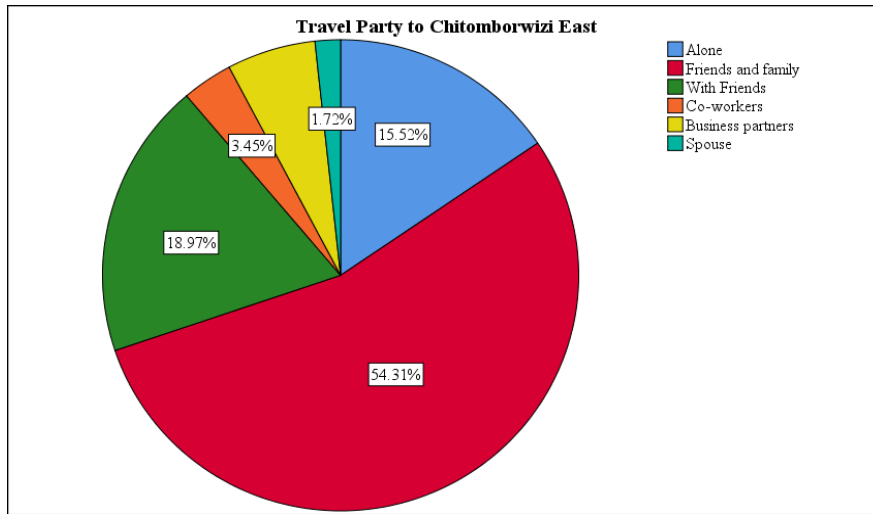


Figure 6.21: Travel Party to Chitomborwizi East Ward

6.3.5.8 Mode of Transport

Table 6.24 shows that 87% of the residents who had travelled to Chitomborwizi East Ward used their own cars whilst 13% used public transport. Biri Dam which was a major tourism resource is 10km from Chegutu-Chinhoyi Highway. There were no well-developed feeder roads from the Dam to the highway. Therefore, there was no public transport that plied the Biri Dam and Chegutu-Chinhoyi Highway route. This therefore meant that the water resource was easily accessible to those who had personal vehicles.

Table 6.24: Mode of Transport

<i>Mode of transport</i>	Frequency	Percent
Own car	100	87.0
Public transport	15	13.0
Total	115	100.0

6.3.5.9 Activities Undertaken

As shown in Figure 6.22, 64.91% of the respondents visited Chitomborwizi East Ward for fishing whilst 15.79% went to buy fish at Biri Dam. 8.77%, 6.14% and 1.75% visited Chitomborwizi East Ward for scenic views, nature walks and boat cruises, respectively. 0.8% of the respondents

each went to Biri Dam for church outreach and supervision of farm operations. Therefore, fishing emerged as the most popular activity at Biri Dam.

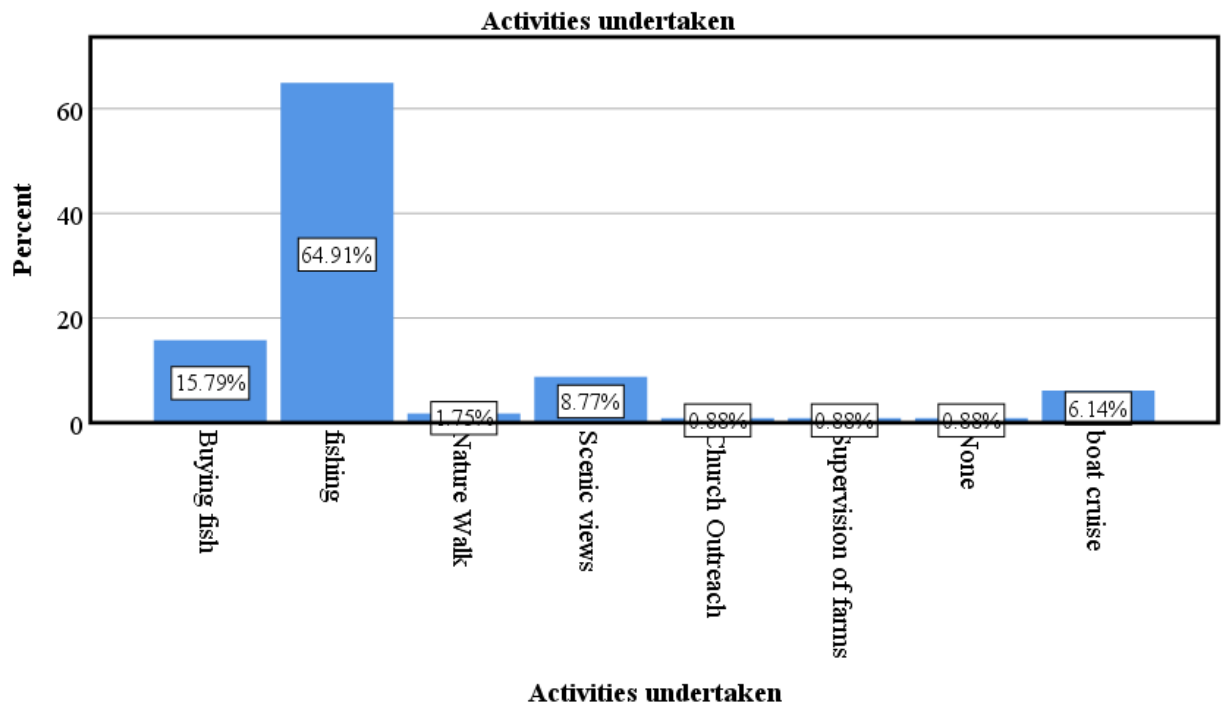


Figure 6.22: Activities Undertaken While in Chitomborwizi East Ward

6.3.5.10 Complementary Attractions

Table 6.25 shows that 54.3% of the respondents felt that there were no complementary attractions at Biri Dam. This was an indication of the existence of limited tourist activities in Chitomborwizi East Ward. 13.1 % and 3.0% cited Chinhoyi Caves and Kariba Dam respectively as complementary attractions. The latter are attractions that are outside Chitomborwizi East. 8.1% of respondents cited farms and 7.1 % cited water resources (Chitomborwizi Dam and Hunyani River) as additional attractions. An opportunity for mining tourism existed with 13.1% of the respondents citing Golden Kopje Mine. Only 8.1% of the respondents cited farms in Chitomborwizi East as complementary attractions. However, these farms could be turned into agro tourist attractions.

Table 6.25: Complementary attractions in Chitomborwizi East

Complementary attractions	Frequency	Percent
None	54	54.5
Farms	8	8.1

Hunyani River	6	6.1
Chinhoyi Caves	13	13.1
Kariba Dam	3	3.0
Golden Kopje Mine	13	13.1
Potlet	1	1.0
Chitomborwizi Dam	1	1.0
Total	99	100.0

6.3.5.11 Revisit Intention

84.85% of the respondents would revisit Chitomborwizi East Ward in future whilst 10.10% indicated that they would perhaps revisit the place. 5.05% stated they would not visit the place again. The higher number of those with the intention to revisit the place came from fishing enthusiasts and those who travelled to buy fish at Biri Dam. To change the minds of those who had no intention to revisit, it is important to develop a portfolio of activities that could stimulate interest in the area.

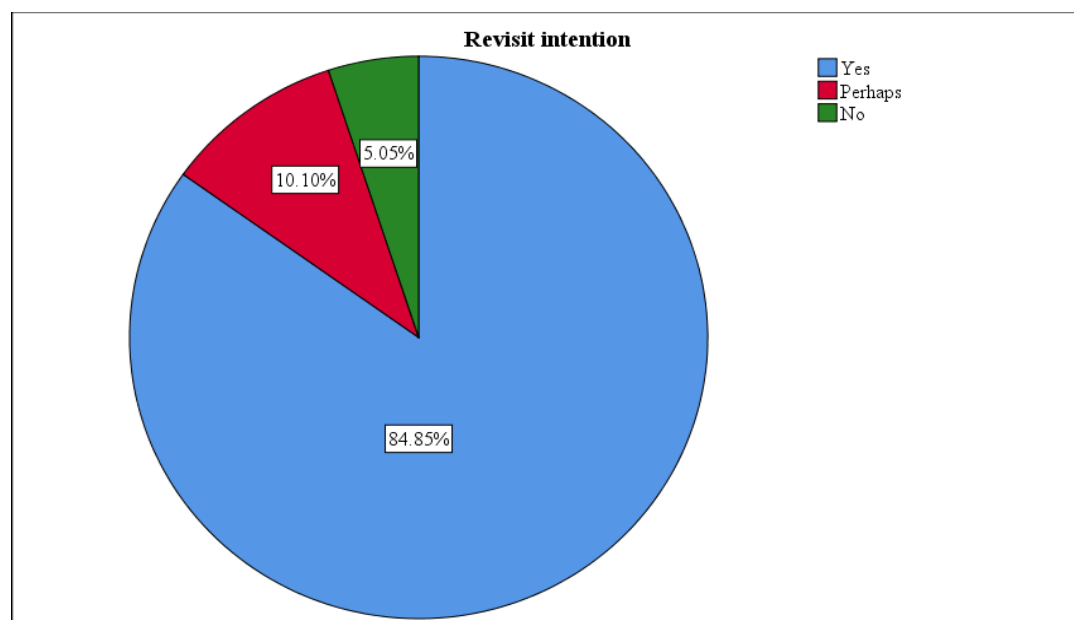


Figure 6.23: Revisit Intention

6.3.5.12 Reasons for Revisit

Figure 6.24 shows that 34.78% of the respondents would revisit Chitomborwizi East to participate in fishing while 11.96% would revisit to buy fish from Biri Dam.

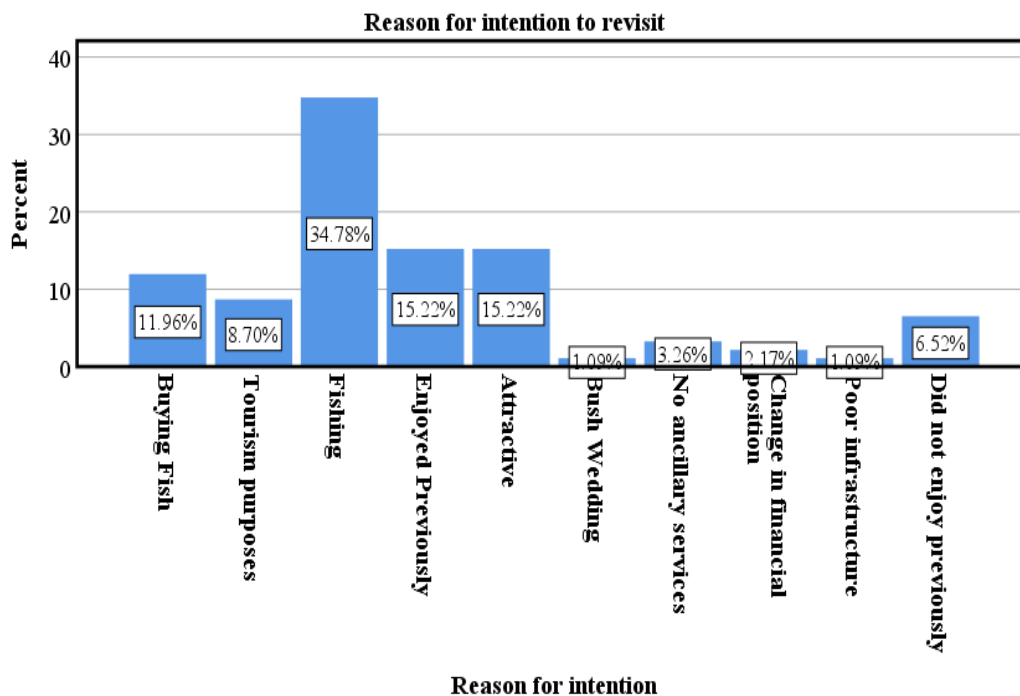


Figure 6.24: Reasons for Revisit intention

15.22% commented that they would revisit the area because they enjoyed the previous visit. In addition, they also found Chitomborwizi East attractive. 8.70% said they would travel to Chitomborwizi East for tourism purposes whilst 2.17% were of the view that they would do so if financial resources permitted. 6.52%, 3.26% and 1.09% said they would not revisit Chitomborwizi East since they did not enjoy the previous visit, or because of lack of ancillary services and poor infrastructure.

6.3.5.13 Recommendation of Chitomborwizi East to Potential Tourists

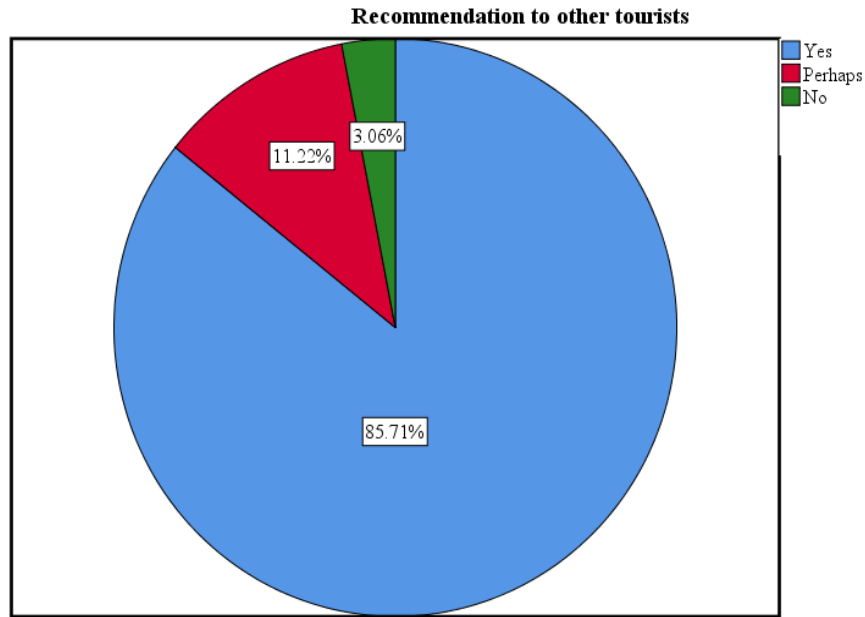


Figure 6.25: Recommendation of Chitomborwizi East to potential tourists

Figure 6.25 shows that 85.71% of the residents who had been to Chitomborwizi East said they would recommend the place to potential tourists. This could be because Biri Dam in Chitomborwizi East provided recreational opportunities for fishing that had proved to be a popular sport. 11.22% said perhaps they would recommend the destination to potential tourists whilst 3.06% said they would not do so, possibly due to poor infrastructure, superstructure, and limited activities.

6.3.5.14 Experiences at Chitomborwizi East

Table 6.26: Experiences at Chitomborwizi East

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither/ Nor	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My stay has been memorable	10.53%	12.28%	32.46%	24.56%	10.53%	6.14%	3.51%
Staying at the destination was value for money	10.9%	8.2%	21.8%	21.8%	14.5%	13.6%	9.1%
The visit was beyond my expectations	15.45%	7.27%	22.73%	21.82%	13.64%	8.18%	10.91%

Table 6.26 shows that 55.27% of the respondents disagreed that their stay in Chitomborwizi East was memorable whilst 20.18% agreed that it was. Lack of amenities, attractions, ancillary services, and difficulty in accessing the area made the stay immemorable for some. 24.56% of the respondents remained neutral. According to Table 6.26, 32.9% of the respondents disagreed that the destination offered value for money whilst 37.2 agreed that the destination did. The justification for those who disagreed that the destination offered reasonable value for money was based on the poor diversity of activities and limited availability of tourist amenities. Limited activities engaged in at the destination required only a paltry fee. 21.8% of the respondents were neutral regarding the destination's value for money. According to Table 6.26, 45.45% of the respondents disagreed that the visit exceeded their expectations whilst 32.73% agreed that the visit did exceed their expectations. Lack of amenities, diversity of attractions, ancillary services and inaccessibility of the destination were the reasons respondents felt the destination did not exceed their expectations. 21.82 % of the respondents remained neutral.

6.3.5.15 Recommendations for improvement of tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward

Table 6.27 shows that 37.9% of the respondents recommended marketing of Chitomborwizi East Ward so that it could become well known. Therefore, promotional campaigns aimed at attracting tourism to the destination were needed as a matter of paramount importance. Poor infrastructure development also hampered tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. 21.1% of respondents suggested introducing a diversity of activities whilst 11.7% recommended providing tourist accommodation. 1.9% suggested adding attractions, amenities, ancillary services, and improved accessibility to boost tourism demand. 1.5% cited improving tourist safety and benchmarking with other destinations.

Table 6.27: Recommendations for Improvement of Chitomborwizi East Ward

Recommendations	Frequency	Percent
Marketing	78	37.9
Infrastructure development	68	33.0
Diversity of activities	25	12.1
Accommodation	24	11.7
Components of amalgam	4	1.9
Safety	3	1.5
Restaurants	1	0.5
Benchmarking	3	1.5
Total	206	100.0

6.3.6 Tourist expenditure in Chitomborwizi East Ward

A One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of tourist expenditure in relation to demographic variables of age, gender, income, and education level was done. The purpose of the ANOVA was to compare means within and across groups of each of the demographic variables in the questionnaire.

6.3.6.1 Income Earned

Table 6.28 shows that respondents who earned an income of between US\$ 500 -US\$ 999 had a higher mean expenditure US\$ 107.91 when compared to other income groups. Respondents earning < US\$ 500 had the lowest mean annual expenditure of US\$ 64.80 because they earned low

incomes which translated to limited tourist expenditure. Those who earned between \$1000-\$1499 had a mean annual expenditure of US\$ 89.17. The latter tourists had their own vehicles and packaged their own food and beverages when they visited Chitomborwizi East Ward, knowing full well that the destination was under-resourced. The same applied to the group of respondents that earned > US\$ 1500 and whose mean expenditure was US\$77.86. Generally, the mean expenditure in Chitomborwizi East was very low because the destination had limited attractions and amenities and was not easily accessible.

Table 6.28: Analysis of Mean Expenditure Per income group

Factor	N	Mean	Std dev		p-value between and within groups	F-value
<\$500	44	64.7955	109.47222		0.506	0.785
\$500-\$999	34	107.9118	150.35098			
\$1000-\$1499	6	89.1667	106.97741			
>\$1500	7	77.8571	49.31676			

According to Table 6.28, a p value of 0.506 indicates insignificant differences between and within income groups. Therefore, average tourism expenditure was not statistically different between the income groups.

6.3.6.2 Age

Table 6.29 shows that the mean expenditure of US\$164.43 for the 55-66 years age group was the highest. Some members of this group were pensioners and might have had the finances to travel. The 25-34 years age group had an average expenditure of US\$78.41. This group was fairly young, might only recently have been employed, were setting up home and therefore their disposable income to spend on tourism might have been limited. The 35-44 years age group had a mean expenditure of US\$ 82.38, much higher than the 25-34 years group.

Table 6.29: Analysis of Mean Expenditure per Age Group

Factor	N	Mean	Std dev		p-value between and within groups	F-value
25-34	44	78.4091	122.73953		0.304	1.229
35-44	29	82.3793	132.15073			
45-54	11	55.4545	34.81771			
55-64	7	164.4286	165.63198			

Table 6.29 shows that a p value of 0.304 indicates insignificant differences between and within the age different age groups. Therefore, average expenditure was not statistically different between age group.

6.3.6.3 Education Level

Table 6.30 shows that the average tourist expenditure increased as the level of education increased. The level of education determined the occupation and consequently the income earned. The mean expenditure for respondents who had a tertiary qualification was US\$87.38. Primary and secondary school certificate holders had mean expenditures of US\$65.00 and US\$80.92, respectively.

Table 6.30: Tourist expenditure and education level

Factor	N	Mean	Std dev		p-value between and within groups	F-value
Secondary	51	80.9216	92.53904		0.960	0.041
Tertiary	39	87.3846	157.25769			

Table 6.30 shows that a p value of 0.960 was an indication that there were no significant differences between and within the different education groups. Therefore, average expenditure was not statistically different between the groups with varying levels of education.

6.3.6.4 Gender

Table 6.31 shows that the average expenditure for males was US\$85.70 while that for females was US\$82.59. Men tended to control the financial expenditure of families, while women tended to rely on men regarding how much to spend, especially in cases where the former were the sole income earners. The difference between the two was negligible.

Table 6.31: Tourist Expenditure and Gender

Factor	N	Mean	Std dev		p-value between and within groups	F-value
Male	27	85.7037	133.31796		0.913	0.012
Female	64	82.5938	119.97906			

According to Table 6.31, a p-value of 0.913 indicates insignificant differences between and within the genders. Therefore, average expenditure on tourism was not statistically different between the genders.

6.3.6.5 Marital Status

Married couples had a higher mean expenditure of US\$93.94 because of dual income. Singles and widows had mean expenditures of US\$72.56 and US\$65.25, respectively. Single households did not benefit from the advantage of dual incomes, unlike married couples, who did.

Table 6.32: Tourism Expenditure and Marital status

Factor	N	Mean	Std dev		p-value between and within groups	F-value
Married	48	93.9375	132.71525		0.696	0.364
Single	39	72.5641	118.07665			
Widowed	4	65.2500	10.50000			

A p-value of 0.696 is an indication that there were no significant differences between and within groups with different marital status. Therefore, average expenditure was not statistically different between marital status groups.

6.3.7 Destination Evaluation Characteristics

Figure 6.26 below shows the relative importance placed on destination evaluation characteristics by respondents. More than 80% of the respondents agreed that good weather, beautiful scenery, a quality network of tourist information, information availability, personal safety provisions, accommodation quality, a clean public environment and quality of food and beverages influenced destination choice. Furthermore, more than 70% but less than 80% of the respondents agreed that availability of the internet, diversity of activities, reasonable price of leisure services, friendly locals, price of accommodation, reasonable meal prices, availability of sports and recreation, variety of cuisine and organisation of local transport were fundamental elements of destination choice. 67% and 61% respectively of the respondents agreed that night-life entertainment and shopping possibilities influenced destination choice. Chitomborwizi East Ward as a destination should develop desirable destination attributes to increase tourism demand.

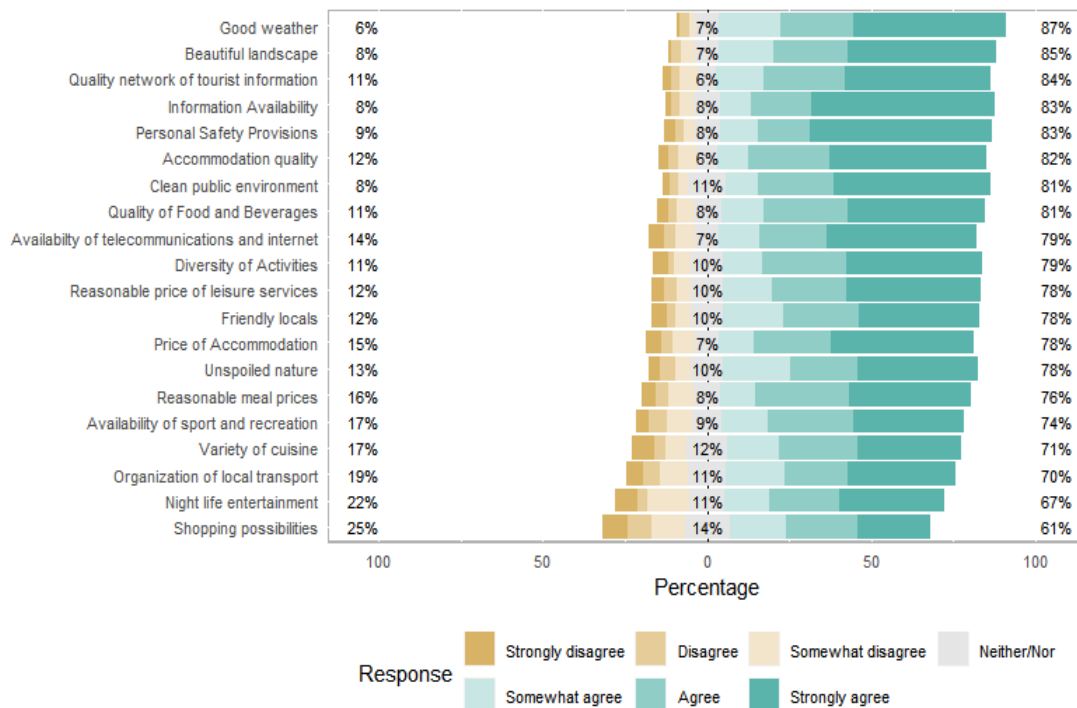


Figure 6.26: Destination Evaluation Characteristics

6.3.8 Main conclusions from the quantitative analyses

- It emerged that desire for relaxation, fun and sports and recreation were the main reasons for travel. Suppliers of tourism products should tailor-make similar products for the anticipated domestic tourism market.
- Marketing and infrastructure development were critical to the success of Chitomborwizi East Ward as a destination, but it is currently non-existing.
- More than 80% of the respondents agreed that good weather, beautiful scenery, a quality network of tourist information, information availability, personal safety provisions, accommodation quality, a clean public environment and quality of food and beverages influenced destination choice.
- Chitomborwizi East Ward has the potential to attract tourists provided there are a diversity of activities that could be pursued.
- No significant differences were recorded between the means of expenditure and demographic variables.
- Gender was the only determinant of tourism demand among all demographic variables.
- It was evident that residents have travelled and want to travel but three many considerations remain finances, time, and distance. This will have to be considered in the development of the pro-poor framework.

6.4 Chapter Summary

It was the purpose of this chapter to present, analyse and discuss findings from the questionnaires distributed to Gunhill residents and interviews conducted with small-scale farmers and key informants. Pro-poor tourism resource analysis was conducted in Chitomborwizi East to determine its tourism potential. In the process the perceptions of key informants and farmers towards tourism development were explored. The chapter also discussed the potential of domestic tourism by presenting, interpreting, and analysing questionnaires collected from Gunhill residents.

Findings indicated that Chitomborwizi East Ward boasted agro-tourism resourcing such as farming activities, agricultural shows, and field days. The agro-tourism potential of Chitomborwizi East was however compromised by poor financing of farming activities. To make use of all other

assets, availability of finance was key. Farmers did not have money to buy inputs, mechanise their farms and acquire the technical know-how to improve agricultural productivity. Reliance on rainfed agriculture, shortage of tobacco-curing resources, migration of young people, shortage of draught power and climatic variability were among other factors that militated against increased agricultural productivity in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Apart from agro-tourism resources, Biri Dam, cuisine, archaeological attractions, small game, mineral springs, and sports tourism were attractions that could complement agro-tourism attractions. Water and sanitation, power, road, rail, and telecommunications infrastructure needed to be upgraded by the government to adequately support tourism development. The farmers, on the other hand, must seek to invest in the necessary tourism amenities once the relevant infrastructure was developed. Above all, human capital assets must be developed in Chitomborwizi East Ward to service the tourism trade.

Findings indicated that Chitomborwizi East Ward residents embraced the idea of tourism development though they had limited awareness of what tourism entailed. They suggested that tourism development should be undertaken individually because they had never been socialised to work in cooperatives, with the collapse of fishing cooperatives cited as evidence to back the claim. Consequently, the tourism development model proposed should deviate from a cooperative approach. Where an attempt was made to take advantage of community tourism development, the communities should be trained to work together. An effective leadership trusted by the community could then usher the community into Community Based Tourism. A totally new, autonomous structure would be in a better position to govern the proposed pro-poor tourism development.

Findings indicated low domestic tourism demand in Chitomborwizi East. This could be attributed to the fact that there was no domestic tourism policy and residents were unaware of what tourism entailed or what benefits could grow out of it. Availability of resource supply and effective tourism demand could contribute to socio-economic development and consequently help to alleviate poverty.

CHAPTER

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The importance and value of research should never be underestimated. Research plays a critical role in providing solutions to problems. The researcher conducted research in Chitomborwizi East Ward which is a farming area in Makonde District in Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe to help contribute to poverty alleviation. The main income generating activity in the Ward is small-scale agriculture. Most of the small-scale commercial farms in the Ward receive low rainfall of (450-650mm). High input costs, limited access to bank loans and reduction of government subsidies for farmers have led to the reduction of agricultural yields. Poor agricultural productivity has led to a high incidence of poverty in the Ward.

Therefore, confronted with an agricultural sector that offers little prospects for development, tourism was targeted by the researcher as an option that could offer better prospects for livelihood improvement given the potential for agro-tourism, water-based tourism activities and cultural and heritage resources that the area is endowed with and its potential to stimulate economic activities in multiple sectors. The rural people can exploit tourism value chains to establish businesses in sub sectors such as transportation, accommodation and food and beverages, marketing gardening, agro-forestry, and handicrafts, among others. Therefore, the aim of the research was to assist in diversification of rural livelihoods by harnessing tourism opportunities that could contribute to poverty alleviation by developing a pro-poor framework for the case of Chitomborwizi East Ward. It is the purpose of this chapter to provide conclusions and recommendations based on the findings from the study.

An overview of objectives is provided below:

- ***Analyse Tourism Development Theories***

The objective reviewed theory on development models commencing from the classical, political economy, developmental economics, modernisation, neo liberal, alternative development, post development and Millenium Development perspectives. The objective brought out the link between tourism development and generic development theories. The fit between tourism and the

different development paradigms influenced tourism's ability to contribute to poverty alleviation and poverty reduction. This objective was achieved in chapter three of the study.

- ***Analysis Pro-Poor Tourism Theories***

With the ongoing debate about pro-poor theories, it was necessary to explore the relevance and significance of existing pro-poor tourism theories in championing tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. A review of these theories was necessary to provide a basis for developing the pro-poor tourism framework and to give insight to the application of the theories. This objective was achieved in chapter four of the study.

- ***Conduct a Resource Analysis for Pro-Poor Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Zimbabwe***

The objective was achieved by conducting interviews with small scale farmers and key informants from various institutions that are responsible for tourism development. The objective recognised the need for certain resource pre-requisites that are critical for tourism development to occur. Attractions, amenities, physical and market access, and ancillary services in Chitomborwizi East Ward were assessed to determine their sufficiency for tourism development purposes. The objective evaluated livelihood assets, policies, institutions, and processes that shape rural tourism Chitomborwizi East Ward. The objective was satisfied through interviews with the local community, local leadership and government department officers who play multiple roles in pro-poor tourism development. The objective was achieved in chapter 6 of the study and contributed significantly to the development of the framework.

- ***Determine the potential of Domestic Demand for Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward***

A survey was conducted with residents of Gunhill, a suburb in nearby Chinhoyi Town which is 20km from the rural area. Possible tourism demand coupled with the availability of necessary tourism resources makes rural tourism development feasible. The results yielded significant insights to be considered in the pro-poor framework.

- ***The Perceptions of Key Stakeholders regarding the Development of Tourism in Chitomborwizi Ward***

Stakeholders' perceptions are key to tourism development. The objective sought to determine through interviews, the perception of the community, its leadership, government departments and parastatals officers' view on tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Tourism is multisectoral in nature and therefore to get a balanced view interviews were conducted with representatives from the local community, Makonde Rural District Council, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate, Ministry of Home Affairs and Cultural Heritage and Ministry of Women Affairs, Community and Small to medium enterprises.

7.2 Conclusions of the Study

The section focuses on the conclusions of each of the objectives that were stated above.

7.2.1 *Conclusions Related to the Analyses of The Tourism Development Theories (Objective 1)*

Development models were conceived from a classical, political economy, developmental economics, modernisation, neo liberal, alternative development, post development and Millenium Development goals perspectives. It emerged that modernisation, dependency, neo-liberalisation, alternative and sustainability theories and concepts have been exploited fully in tourism development. Modernisation was critiqued for its association with mass tourism's negative social-cultural, environmental, and economic impacts. The latter form of development is frequently subjected to interrogation in Zimbabwe. Due to the unwanted impacts, dependency theorists challenged modernisation because underdevelopment in the Third World was associated with exploitative metropolitan centres that siphoned resources from the developing peripheries of the world. Foreign domination of ownership of tourism businesses causing income leakages have always been a major concern for destinations such as Zimbabwe. Thus, modernisation did not achieve the expected level or outcomes of development. Neo-liberalisation emerged and advocated for promotion of privatisation and roll back of state to an enabler in economic development. Unfortunately, this approach increased inequality and poverty in developing countries because it increased capital accumulation and led to a collapse of domestic production. The neo-liberal approaches were enforced through SAPs which were tied to conditional aid and a decline in macro-economic conditions. Confronted with a failed neo-liberal approach, alternative development

became the buzzword to champion to new forms of development that would regress capital accumulation.

These represented small scale indigenous owned developments that command environmental stewardship. Alternative development then mutated into sustainable development which set to define development as a process that satisfies economic, environmental, and socio-cultural considerations. However, the euphoria associated with sustainability faded away because the concept lacks a universal definition which often results in disparities in its conceptualisation and application. Unfortunately, sustainable tourism development was co-opted into mainstream development thinking because it continues to be a concept embedded in economic growth led models of development.

Having reached a development impasse in 2000, post development approaches have rekindled optimism to achieve development in Third World countries through ecocentric communal led development routes. These alternatives to development models are challenged for assuming that developing countries want to remain in their traditional states. In recognising community diversity, preference for modernity is a desire by a section of the developing world. Therefore, alternative to development is sought in Chitomborwizi East Ward to avoid mainstream tourism development models that often sideline local communities. A conclusion was reached that development should be endogenous to the rural community as in the given case study because externally driven projects have failed to materialise in Chitomborwizi East. This contributed to the need to develop a framework to fit the case study which might also be relevant to other destinations with similar circumstances.

7.2.2 Conclusions Related to the Analysis of Pro-Poor Tourism Theories (Objective 2)

It emerged that tourism plays a significant role in poverty alleviation for disadvantaged rural communities. Pro-poor tourism arose out of the failure of mainstream development theories to achieve poverty alleviation, especially in countries such as Zimbabwe. Community Based Tourism and Ecotourism are tourism typologies advanced to satisfy poverty alleviation objectives. Inopportunely, a closer assessment of these community initiatives reveals that they exist to satisfy conservation goals with poverty alleviation playing a subsidiary role- which is probably the biggest

critique against this. Pro-poor tourism private sector partnerships with communities are created to make the tourism ventures commercially viable. Unfortunately, the poor fail to seize the opportunities because they lack the skills and financial resources to invest in productive capabilities. Forms of tourism that are sympathetic to the poor must be developed otherwise pro-poor tourism remains a secondary objective in tourism development.

Despite the attempts that have been made to trace the tourism dollar and its impact on the poor using value chain analysis, value chains are normally blamed for being descriptive and failing to capture how businesses and institutional arrangements impact on the poor's participation and outcomes in tourism development (Staritz and Reis, 2013). The poor fail to access value chains for many reasons. Tourism and hospitality investors are unaware of the existence of sources of local raw materials and as a result they may source inputs outside the local community. Small producers may fail to access markets as well as financial resources to produce goods of the right quality and quantity for tourism service providers (Yunis, 2003). Additionally, the poor lack the capability to do a thorough market analysis and therefore often produce products and services that fail to meet acceptable standards. In this instance the poor fail to tap into existing tourism value chains. For the poor to access value chains, they need to produce tourism products and services desirable to consumers and are of the right quality and standard (Webber and Labaste, 2010). Lastly the small-scale operators' output may not meet the large volumes of commodities required by large tourism and hospitality businesses (Yunis, 2003). Capacity building is therefore required to make sure local tourism players in Chitomborwizi East Ward produce tourism products of the right quality. Apart from the above production constraints, income leakages reduce the impact of tourism on rural communities which should be managed.

7.2.3 Conclusions Related to Resource Analysis for Pro-Poor Tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward in Zimbabwe (Objective 3)

Based on the in-depth interviews with the local community, local Ward Leadership and government departments who play multiple roles in pro-poor tourism development the following conclusions can be made.

Firstly, from a resource point of view, it was clear that Chitomborwizi East boasts of resources currently focused on farming activities, agricultural shows, and field days. The agricultural focus is very strong in the community and the were not interested in tourism unless their needs in terms of farming have been addressed. The agricultural potential of Chitomborwizi East is compromised by poor financing of farming activities. To make use of all other assets, availability of finance is key. Farmers do not have money to buy inputs, mechanise their farms and acquire the technical know-how to improve agricultural productivity. Reliance on rainfed agriculture, shortage of tobacco curing resources, shortage of draught power and climatic variability are among other factors that militate against increased agricultural productivity in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

The potential of creating a framework to alleviate poverty was also clear since several resources and possible attractions were mentioned. Clearly, the community members are now focused on farming activities, but this is also due to the absence of tourism. Resources such as farming activities, Biri Dam, cuisine, archaeological attractions, small game, mineral springs, traditional practices and dancing and cultural tourism are attractions that can be developed. The existence of resources gives hope that with a tailor-made framework and teamwork tourism can contribute to the alleviation of poverty in this area.

7.2.4 Conclusions on the potential for domestic demand to support tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward (Objective 4)

It is without doubt that tourism demand energises the whole tourism system and without demand the industry does not exist. It was thus necessary to determine whether a local demand exist and to satisfy this objective, a survey was conducted with residents of Gunhill a suburb in nearby Chinhoyi Town which is 20km from the rural area. If tourism demand exists coupled with the availability of necessary resources, then continuing with tourism development in the area is feasible.

Since the respondents have travelled before it was clear that an opportunity exists to attract the nearby residents to Chitomborwizi East. It was also evident that these residents have not necessarily travelled to this area and in many cases, they do not know about Chitomborwizi East.

One should recognise the fact that domestic tourists are under financial strain due to political and economic circumstances. They might have travelled and want to travel but money, time and not wanting to travel long distances inhibit them from travelling. In addition, there is generally a non-holidaying culture amongst the residents because of the belief that recreation is a waste of money. This, however, creates an opportunity for this area as one might focus in the beginning on the excursionist market taking into account pricing and adding value to the experience.

A clear preference for domestic travel was noted and a need to rest and relax and to have fun. Given the resources available it is possible to provide for these needs at an affordable rate. Demographic variables did not influence tourism demand, purpose of travel or tourist expenditure. If one can provide in their basic travel needs it will suffice.

Good weather and beautiful landscapes were top of the list of destination characteristics. These are offered by this area but clearly marketing is a challenge since people do not know about Chitomborwizi East. It is also true that the current non-existence of tourism opportunities will not attract people.

7.2.5 Conclusions Related to Key Stakeholders' Perception on the Development of Tourism in Chitomborwizi Ward (Objective 5)

The objective sought to determine through interviews, the perception of the community, its leadership, government departments and parastatals on tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward. It must be acknowledged that tourism is multisectoral in nature and therefore to get a balanced view interviews were conducted with representatives from Makonde Rural District Council, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate, Ministry of home affairs and cultural heritage and Ministry of Women Affairs, Community and Small to Medium Enterprises.

Findings indicated that Chitomborwizi East Ward residents embraced the idea of tourism development though they have limited awareness of what constitutes tourism.

The migration of young people is considered a challenge as the community loose younger people that can drive the tourism industry and are willing to open a new business that is not necessarily related to farming. The young people move to cities and even other countries but do not return home to work or stay. There is very limited knowledge left in the Ward to assist in the development of the tourism industry.

The lack of infrastructure such as electricity, absence of health facilities, poor roads and communication networks overshadow the potential of the tourism industry. In many cases the residents did not know what tourism means and can therefore not share enthusiasm about possibilities. The understanding of what tourists might expect is absent which is understandable as many of the residents have not travelled before.

The lack of trust between all stakeholders were alarming and the fact that residents do not know how to work in groups towards a common goal. To a large extent every resident is working for him/herself and their families.

It was evident that the community is focused on short-term outcomes and the long-term process linked to the development of an industry will have to be taken into consideration. At first, a lot of the effort will have to be ploughed back to develop the industry further.

7.3 Contributions of the study

This research made significant contributions to literature, and practical contributions can be used to improve the community's current livelihood by focusing on the gradual development of the tourism industry.

7.3.1 Literature Contributions

- The study contributed to the current level of knowledge on tourism and poverty alleviation in non-wildlife zones. Most rural tourism research in Africa has therefore been skewed towards wildlife management policies, institutions, sustainable utilisation, and poverty alleviation. The current research brings insights into how tourism development can occur in a rural non-wildlife

area and still contribute to poverty alleviation. The idea is to challenge the status quo that rural tourism is next to non-existent in non-wildlife zones.

- The fact that Chitomborwizi East Ward is still poverty stricken after numerous strategies, challenge the feasibility of existing models, theories, and frameworks. The framework developed in this research takes the unique situation of this Ward with its stakeholders into account. Still, it goes one step further by analysing the potential market as part of the framework. This is forward-thinking as the tourism product can be developed by linking the resources with the domestic tourist's current needs. To date, no research has been conducted on pro-poor tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward, and this is the first research of its kind and even more so in a destination currently in distress.
- The research study adds to the body of knowledge by integrating different industries and focus on an integrated pro-poor strategy – agriculture and tourism.
- Rural tourism research has concentrated on international safari visitors, and no deliberate approaches have been made to study domestic tourism demand for rural tourism in Zimbabwe. This is critical as the domestic market should be the backbone of the industry. In the case of Zimbabwe, there is a non-travel culture that should be changed. Information about this market strongly shows an excursionist market which should be the starting point of the domestic tourism strategy.
- There is limited application of the SLA framework on rural tourism development globally. The Sustainable livelihoods analysis has been predominantly used in agriculture and less in tourism studies at a global and national level. A fit between the new and existing livelihood strategies needs to be established if livelihoods are to retain their sustainability.
- The relevance of following a case study approach when dealing with poverty and poverty alleviation research is evident from this research. Models and frameworks that were successful in one area or destination might not work in the next. The attitudes of stakeholders, the current livelihood strategies, the government's input, the economic status of the area etc., are all aspects considered to be unique in different regions and destinations. The case study area is unique with its own socio-cultural, economic, and environmental characteristics. The findings from the area under study contributes to another dimension of understanding tourism and poverty alleviation in a rural setting with unique characteristics.

- It is recognised that this framework can be applied to similar areas in Zimbabwe where the internal and external factors match that of the current case study.

7.3.2 Practical Contributions

- From a practical point of view, the framework highlights the appropriateness of a tailor-made framework as the community will take ownership thereof, the integration of different industries as well as the biggest challenge in applying the framework namely the establishment of trust.
- The research highlighted community members' powerlessness by not being able to buy land and take out loans against the land – this is a major setback for farmers.
- In Chitomborwizi East Ward, where agricultural production is sinking, farmers are seeking alternative means of survival. The researcher proved that tourism development can increase opportunities for rural non-farm income and thus champion poverty alleviation in Chitomborwizi East.
- Most of the economically active young people in Chitomborwizi Ward have migrated to cities and towns and nearby countries searching for employment opportunities that guarantee them a monthly payment that offsets seasonal income from farming. Through the research, diversification of rural livelihoods through tourism can curb urban migration and emigration. As a result, labour that is available for agriculture and tourism will increase. This, in turn, boosts agricultural productivity and improves the livelihoods of the rural folks.
- This research developed a pro-poor framework focused on an integrated development of agriculture and tourism, which will be more effective at utilizing natural resources such as water, cultural and heritage resources, events, and agricultural products and processes. The exploitation of natural resources for commercial utilization comes as the panacea, where agricultural systems are synonymous with crop failures.
- Three of the significant practical contributions are the realization that residents do not understand what tourism is and what it can offer, requiring training and mentoring. Secondly, residents expect a lot from the government, and therefore a change in how the potential of their areas is viewed needs attention. Thirdly, the practicalities of short-term vs. long-term benefits of tourism development need to be taught and managed. The residents' expectations might be too high at first which can de-motivate them to continue with tourism.

7.4 Pro-poor framework

The following framework were developed from the empirical research.

7.4.1 The development of the framework

The framework was developed utilising the discussed theories and the empirical research conducted in Chitomborwizi East Ward. It was the study's focus to gather data from the stakeholders at play as they will influence the process of development. The lack of trust between the stakeholders is an important element to consider in the framework. For this research, it was decided to develop the framework on two levels where Level One's focus is to do groundwork with the community related to trust and expectations. The second level will focus on development and action plans, which will alleviate poverty to a certain extent. Tourism might not solve all challenges, but it can contribute to the improvement of residents' livelihood. It was also developed from a pragmatic view by focusing on the 'how.' Poverty has been a challenge for many years in this area and correcting this will not happen overnight.

Based on the findings of the research, this framework has been developed on the following conditions of implementation:

- That a rural area is identified with under-developed resources;
- That individuals cannot own land due to ownership residing with government;
- That financial institutions do not grant lending opportunities for individuals due to them not being able to provide security such as land;
- That the community is living under the poverty threshold.

7.4.2 Implementation of the pro-poor framework

A two-level pro-poor framework is proposed to develop tourism in the rural areas, including the area under study. Level one will ignite the process, and it might take some time to set the stage, after which it should be maintained. Level two guides the development and action plans set out. The levels can be implemented as follows:

Level one: Setting and Managing the stage

Step 1: Connect

Given the lack of trust applicable to Chitomborwizi East Ward it is important to determine effective ways to improve the situation otherwise, the development will not move forward. The first aspect of giving attention to is identifying a champion that can drive this process and lead the community in this regard. From this, an advisory committee should be established consisting of internal and external players in Agri-culture, Tourism, Education, Government, Partnerships, Health, Infrastructure, Community. This is of immense importance to allow cross fertilisation of ideas from different participants because tourism is a multifaceted industry that requires multiple stakeholder inputs. Agriculture experts are deemed relevant to help farmers with ideas on how agricultural productivity could be improved since agriculture is the main livelihood activity. Meetings and discussions are needed to raise awareness of the meaning of tourism, the identification of tourism opportunities, threats, and the financial implications of tourism investments.

Critical in this step is to manage all stakeholders' expectations in understanding that tourism will not solve all challenges in the first year and will not necessarily attract thousands of tourists at once. This step is one of the most important ones in this framework since, in many previous models, these critical elements have not been dealt with, and then there is no buy-in.

Step 2: Assess

One cannot develop without a complete overview of the community's current status and the availability of resources and the level of skill. Thus, in step two it is firstly important to do a Livelihood analysis as done in the empirical analyses, which should focus on the way people and currently earning a living and the challenges around that. It was clear from the case study that agriculture is the primary income earner, but this was also limited. Currently, agriculture does not alleviate poverty; it just sustains certain community members. As part of this assessment is the analysis of power and electricity, water and sanitation, road infrastructure, and information communication technology. In this case, the residents were frustrated that many promises have been made with limited action from government side.

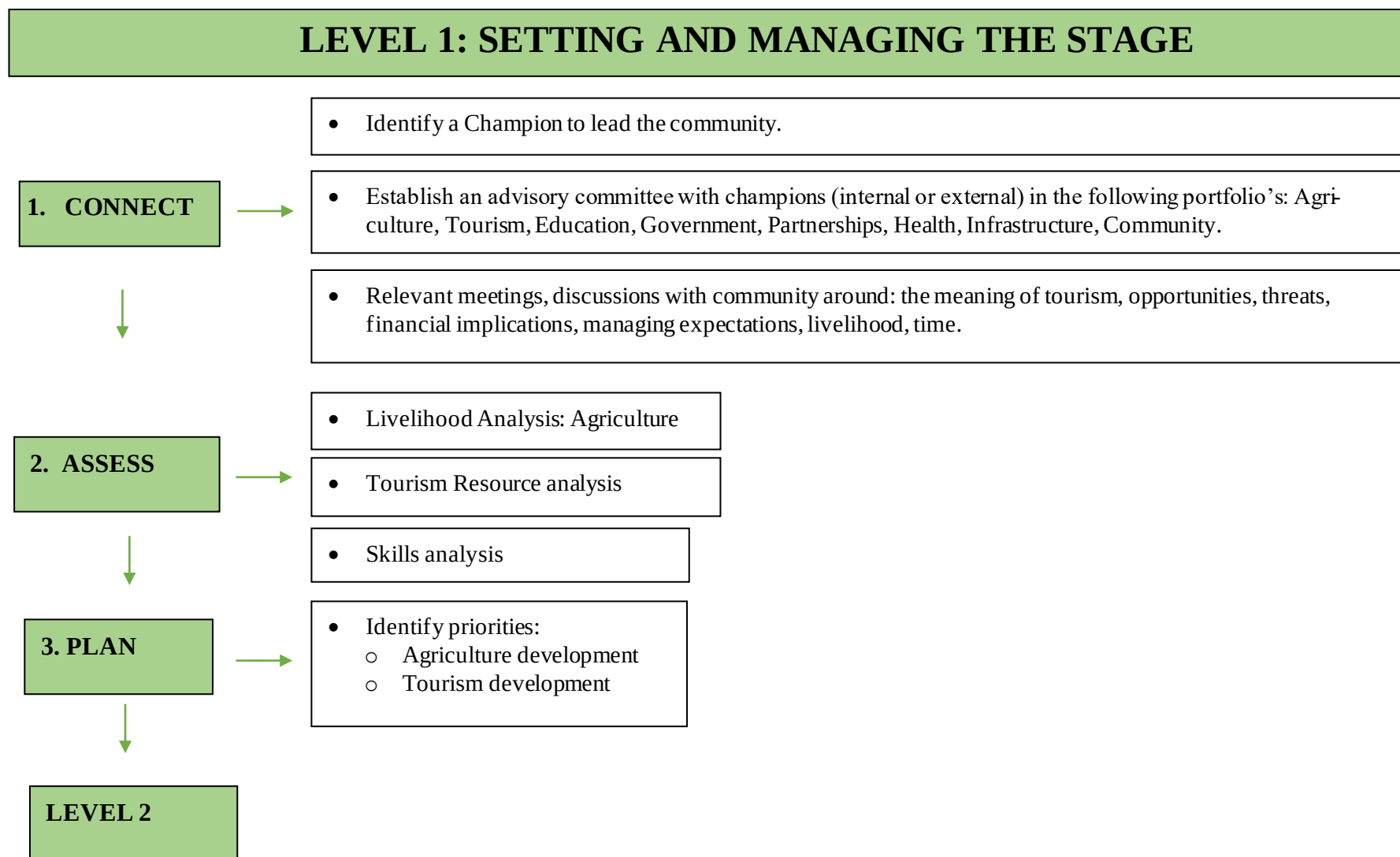


Figure 7.1: Zimbabwe pro-poor framework: Level 1

LEVEL 2: DEVELOPMENT AND ACTION

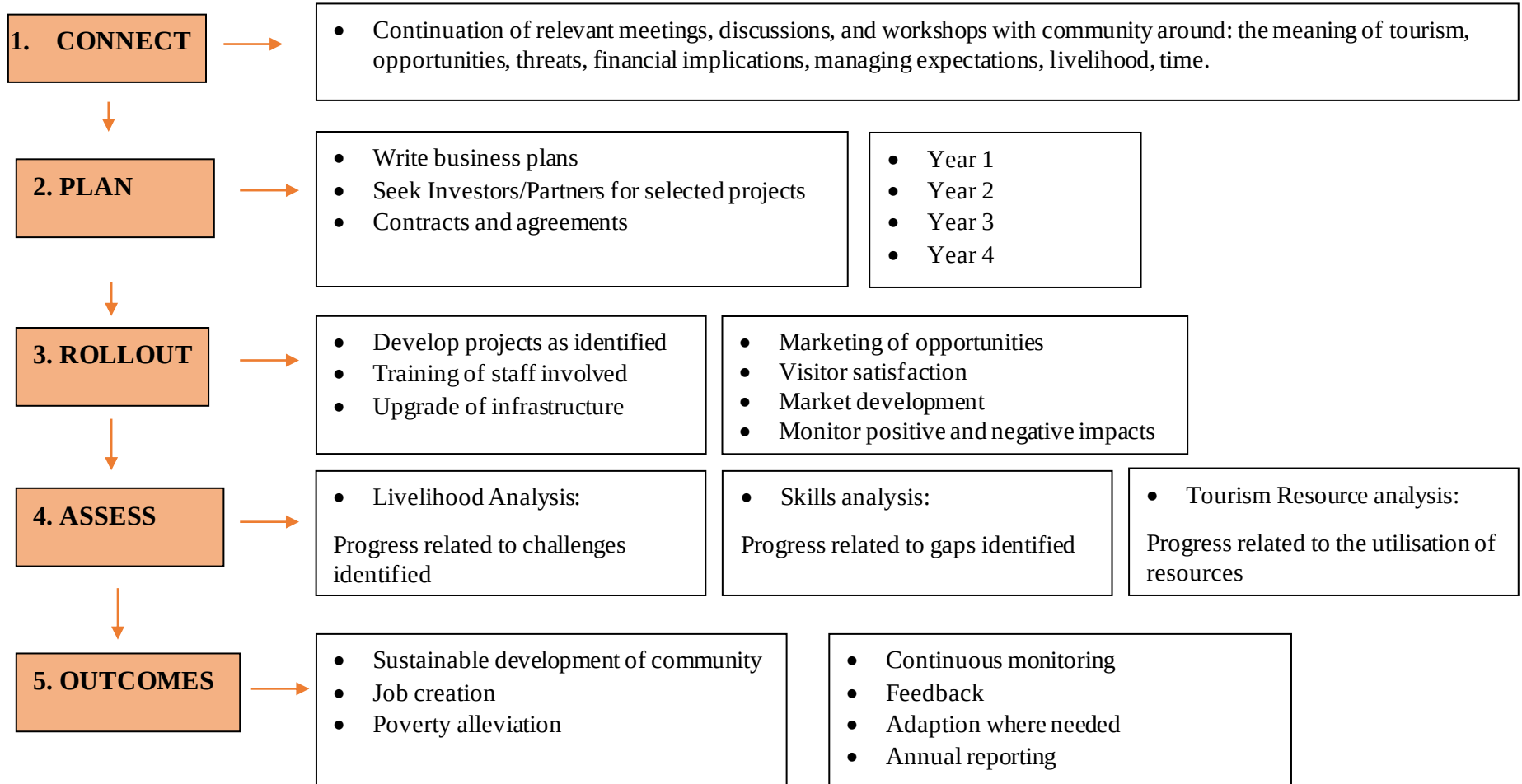


Figure 7.2: Zimbabwe pro-poor framework: Level 2

Secondly, a tourism resource analysis is essential as one needs to know what kind of opportunities might exist and how these can be developed. Many unexploited resources exist in this area identified in the research. The advisory committee will have to decide which are the most appropriate for short-term gains and which can be developed in time. The demand survey indicated the importance of rest, relaxation, and fun for the nearby residents. In the new framework, the development resources that can attract excursionists are advised with a long-term vision to develop products for domestic visitors from other provinces and international visitors.

Thirdly, the skills analysis needs to establish which type of skills people have in the community and which are lacking from both an agricultural and tourism point of view. This analysis will show which training courses to present in the community and which type of mentoring is needed for the community members. It was already established that residents need to do some tourism awareness programs and that attention should be given to what can be expected from tourism developments. The possibilities of integrating tourism and agricultural resources should be explored at this level.

Step 3: Plan

With all the information collected from the assessment, it is now time to identify the priorities related to agri-cultural, tourism, and agri-tourism. Given the current lack of agricultural means and the assessment, it was decided to implement a tourism development for day visitors. The income can be used to assist farmers in improving their agricultural produce. This will be managed by the Champion and the Advisory Board, for which certain guidelines and rules were set out in Step One. Once the contractual agreements are in place, the projects can be finalised for implementation.

Level two: Development and Action

Step 1: Connect

With the identification of projects and ideas, it is necessary to discuss this with the community and get their input, buy-in, and support. There will be a continuation of meetings and open discussions to maintain high levels of trust. It should be recognised that this is a combined effort.

Step 2: Plan

Once the committee and community are satisfied with the identified projects, the Champion and Advisory Board can commence writing business plans and present these to investors and partners. It is advised for this area to first develop a day visitors site for visitors from Chinoyi to have fun, rest and relax. This area should become their weekend visit where both families can be entertained. This will grant farmers the opportunity to sell their products, and this will establish at least a differentiated form of income that can also spark other projects. After this attention can be given to the further development of agri-tourism, accommodation, etc. The plan should cover at least development for four years which can then be adapted as needed. If the community can invest their own time and resources, it will give them ownership and limit leakages.

Step 3: Roll-out

As project and implementation staff can be trained and employed, infrastructure related to the projects can be upgraded, and the facilities, such as the day visitors' site, can be opened to the public. Intensive marketing will be done to attract domestic tourists to the destination. At this point, visitor satisfaction is of paramount importance to ensure repeat visits and attraction of new markets. To ensure destination sustainability, it becomes very critical to monitor the positive and negative impacts of tourism.

Step 4: Assess

In this assessment, it is essential to determine the progress made when reviewing the initial evaluation for Livelihood, Skills, and Tourism analysis. This should be done on an annual basis, and this information should be shared with the community to maintain their buy-in. This process will be repeated until all the objectives set for this framework have been finalised. Changes might occur, which will be discussed and determined during Connect.

Step 5: Outcomes

It is foreseen that the implementation of this framework will empower the community to manage tourism, agri-tourism, and related projects on their own. This will not happen overnight, but this

will lead to the sustainable development of the community with agriculture as their primary livelihood strategy and tourism secondary to that. The integration of the two industries will add value. Continuous monitoring, feedback, and changes might be needed, but overall, it will contribute to poverty alleviation.

7.5 Recommendations of the Study

Besides the implementation of the framework, the following recommendations are made:

7.5.1 Revamp the Education System in Rural Chitomborwizi East Ward

To develop tourism, community members should acquire the relevant qualifications. In cases where the community decides to forge ahead with tourism development while relying chiefly on exogenous labour, income leakages reduce pro-poor tourism benefits. The Ministry of education should discontinue the composite classes for learners in rural environments to access quality learning. Once this has been done, progression from basic to tertiary education may increase. A pool of qualified tourism and hospitality graduates may be available to run tourism ventures in Chitomborwizi East Ward.

7.5.2 Establish Contract Farming Relationships with Agro-Tourism Businesses

Bottlenecks that are stifling the agricultural potential of Chitomborwizi East need must be eliminated to make way for increased farm productivity. Once that has been achieved, the local people will have the chance to market their agricultural produce to tourists and the tourism industry. The Transitional Stabilisation Programme (2018) made known the government's intentions to improve farmers' access to markets. Contract farming offers farmers a ready market for their agricultural products without the hassles of finding markets.

7.5.3 Development of Horticulture Markets

Locally organized horticultural markets can be developed to attract tourists to Chitomborwizi East to purchase a wide range of horticultural produce without the need for farmers to transport their harvest to distant markets. It is important to resuscitate the local industry and promote industrial development to open opportunities for value-added processing activities.

Horticultural value-added processing could further attract tourists to the region and offer an incentive for earning income from the export of value-added vegetables. Value addition will create more income-earning opportunities that could propel agricultural tourism development to greater heights in Chitombirwizi East. Marketing constraints inherent in value-added activities must be addressed - particularly a lack of business intelligence, especially in marketing as the reason for the failure of community ventures.

7.5.4 *Farming as a Tourist Attraction*

Farming itself has the potential to turn Chitomborwizi East Ward into an agri-tourism destination. Agro tourists may visit Chitomborwizi East to learn about mixed farming methods. The agro tourists can stay in farm accommodation facilities and dine in restaurants that serve fresh farm produce. Moreover, farmer's markets could be developed that supply visitors with fresh farm produce at affordable prices. Farm museums are other potential attractions that can showcase the history of farming history in the area. The tourism industry presents opportunities for direct, indirect, and induced benefits and increased multiplier effects. This will contribute to poverty alleviation in Chitomborwizi East.

The development of farming in Chitomborwizi East could lead to the development of agricultural shows. These shows are a platform for the farmers to learn best farming practices. An improvement of farming standards raises the agricultural tourism profile of the destination. At these shows, farmers build market perceptions about their products and services. In addition, award-winning farmers attract free product publicity that may attract agro-tourists.

7.5.5 *Increased Securitisation of Chitomborwizi East*

Farmers called on the law enforcement authorities to contain the stock thefts that increase the vulnerability of their livelihoods. With increased stock thefts, it becomes difficult to increase agricultural productivity to the level where agro-tourists can be attracted.

Small game is increasingly being threatened by poaching. Small game that is found in farms is a potential agritourism product and source of game meat at farm restaurants. Farmers

need to securitise their farms to guard against intruders collaboratively. Inopportunately, with the level of individualism in Chitomborwizi East Ward, this may not succeed. As a result, the agro-tourism potential of the destination may be seriously compromised. Therefore, capacitating communities to work together through training in working in groups will go a long way in curbing the poaching problem.

Poaching of fish is also rampant at Biri Dam. Sport Fishing relies on abundant fish resources, and therefore responsible authorities should prioritise the elimination of poaching. Sportfishing has potential to attract fishing enthusiasts and diversify the pro-poor tourism product. This will contribute to the improvement of rural livelihood. The relevant authorities should ramp up efforts to curb the poaching of fish at Biri Dam to benefit the tourism industry.

7.5.6 Value Added Activities A Source of Tourist Attraction

Despite the existing human-wildlife conflict, the large population of crocodiles in Biri Dam offers vast opportunities for value-added activities such as the production of crocodile leather and meat products. Tourists can buy these products when they visit Chitomborwizi East. Such tourism activities diversify income streams, improve livelihoods, and contribute to poverty alleviation. Harrison (2015) stated that tourism should seek to diversify rather than replace existing livelihood activities. Notwithstanding the cloud of death that hangs around Biri Dam, water-based activities are also a potential tourism resource.

7.5.7 Collective Ownership of Accommodation Facilities

To address the shortage of accommodation, rural farmers in Chitomborwizi East can collectively set up fishing camps to service fishing enthusiasts with the assistance of a private operator. That way the community can benefit from the capital investment and expertise of the private partner. Well-organised water-based recreational enthusiasts might bring significant benefits to the Chitomborwizi East through diversification of livelihoods. These recreational enthusiasts may make use of fishing camps when they travel for sport fishing. Apart from Biri Dam, there are seventeen other dams scattered across several farms that can provide recreational fishing opportunities.

7.5.8 Development of Cultural Tourism

Cultural Villages can be developed in Chitomborwizi East to promote cultural tourism. These can contribute to the diversification of tourism products and preservation of the local culture that is fast declining due to the proliferation of religion. Cultural Villages such as Chesvingo Cultural Village, Venda Cultural Village, and Tengenenge, Ko Mpisi, and Kunengoma have been a success in achieving rural livelihoods diversification in Zimbabwe. An annual calendar of cultural events needs to be developed to ensure year-round financial benefits from seasonal cultural activities. Indigenous resources such as culture and heritage have the potential to contribute to rural tourism development. Traditional dance festivals could attract tourists to Chitomborwizi East. Additionally, Chitomborwizi East Ward can hold the flagship Gule Wamukule festival with the support of ZNTDA because of the large population of people of Malawi and Mozambican descent at the farms. These are very knowledgeable about the dance since it originates from their countries. This festival could offer another pathway for the local people to earn additional income from showcasing their culture. Livelihood diversification using natural capital to build a tourism industry contributes to the transformation of rural livelihoods. Unfortunately, in Makonde District and Chitomborwizi East Ward, in particular, traditional dancing is unpopular, and therefore strategies to promote such events should be crafted. Events can complement agricultural tourism in Chitomborwizi East.

A diversity of food tourism products can be developed. Cuisine tourism promotes sustainable tourism by increasing the local consumption of food and beverages. In return, tourist expenditure is retained in the local economy. Food tourism stimulates agricultural activities, augments destination attractiveness, creates jobs, and promotes food entrepreneurship.

7.5.9 Development of Archeological Tourism

Rock painting trails can be developed to cater to archaeological tourists. To establish these trails, inventorying archaeological attractions is of paramount importance. Agro-tourism, cultural and archeological resources present opportunities for livelihood diversification and poverty reduction.

Hotels and campsites may be established at heritage sites to open economic opportunities for local people (Kilonzo, 2017). Archeological tourists need accommodation, food and beverage services, souvenirs, and other amenities, all of which can be provided by farmers and residents who have archeological resources at their farms. Unfortunately, unlike wildlife attractions, rock sites have not been considered magnets of rural tourism development. Nevertheless, Participant 30 divulged that the rock paintings are fading because of dust and rainwater. The National museums and Monuments must move in to ensure the protection of this national treasure.

7.5.10 Health and Wellness Tourism

The presence of mineral springs provides opportunities for the development of wellness tourism in Chitomborwizi East Ward. Mineral springs value-added products such as mineral bath powders, geothermal mud packs, and mineral enriched crèmes and lotions could benefit farmers whose farms are endowed with mineral springs. The world is made up of health-conscious individuals, and therefore this product may attract a significant number of health and wellness tourists.

7.5.11 Revamp Infrastructure

The Road network in Chitomborwizi East needs to be upgraded to make it easier for tourists to access the destination. In addition, farmers also need to transport their inputs to the farms and harvest to the market using well-maintained road networks. At the moment, there is a gravel road that becomes non-navigable during the rainy season.

Well-developed ICT infrastructure makes communication amongst geographical regions quick and easier. Robust communication networks make it easy for tourists to access destination information relevant to sound travel decision-making. Furthermore, while on holiday tourists need to stay connected with the rest of the world and therefore communication infrastructure needs serious upgrade. Modes of communication must be varied to spread risks of overreliance on a single method.

Availability of water is a critical success factor in the development of agro-tourism ventures that can contribute to the improvement of rural livelihoods. Tourists need safe drinking water when they visit a destination. Water is an asset for socio-economic development and the achievement of developmental goals.

To address the problem of power shortage, solar energy is recommended as an alternative to hydro or thermal power. A mini solar grid can be built in Chitomborwizi East to supply electricity to homesteads that are not connected to the national power grid.

7.5.12 Raising Community Tourism Awareness

Community tourism awareness needs to be raised before any tourism development. Many farmers showed limited tourism awareness because agriculture is the dominant livelihood strategy in Chitomborwizi East. Raising tourism awareness is critical for communities to become agents of tourism development rather than silent partners. Community Awareness programmes need to be designed to foster an understanding of tourism and its benefits. Lack of tourism awareness in rural areas results from the exclusion of tourism and hospitality subjects in the primary education curriculum. Therefore, the new secondary education curriculum must incorporate leisure studies so that rural learners have a basic understanding of tourism and hospitality.

7.5.13 Effective Collaboration Between Bodies Responsible for Tourism Development

Collaboration between MOHTI and other public institutions should be sought to promote tourism jointly. ZTA, Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, and National Museums and Monuments failed to develop a unified approach to domestic tourism development because these quasi-state institutions operate in silos. The lack of effective and inter-ministerial policy coordination hampers the growth of the tourism sector. Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, Ministry of Sports, Arts and Recreation, Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Enterprise Development, Ministry of Transport and Infrastructural Development, Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology Development, Minister of Environment, Water and Climate, Minister of Tourism and Hospitality Industry and Ministry of Home Affairs and Culture play a key role in tourism development, but

their efforts are not coordinated at national provincial, district and ward level. Individual ministries develop tourism policies and plans without giving due regard to other ministries' input. Under these circumstances, bureaucratic processes often characterise the private-public sector relationships.

7.6 Recommendations for Further Study

- The researcher recommends that research be conducted on social capital's impact on pro-poor tourism development in Chitomborwizi East.
- The extent to which agricultural tourism influences domestic tourism development.
- Feasibility of developing value-added agricultural activities in the rural area.

7.7 Limitations of the Study

- It is acknowledged that this study is case study driven, which might limit the generalisation of the framework. However, in Zimbabwe the context is the same, and therefore the framework will assist communities in similar situations in this country.
- The limited knowledge of tourism was both a limitation and opportunity in this study. A limitation is that residents do not know what to expect from this industry and how it works. An opportunity is that tourism can be developed from level one with the input of residents, and they can own the product.
- The researcher also faced challenges in terms of accessing some of the farms due to poor road networks in the rural farming region. This explains why convenience sampling was opted for.
- Some of the respondents to the questionnaires either lost them or misplaced them. The researcher had to reprint and redistribute some of the questionnaires. This delayed data collection and ultimately data analysis.

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APPENDIX 1: Interview guide for the community members

1. What livelihood activities do you pursue in this area?
2. Are you aware of what tourism entails?
3. How can tourism contribute to development in your area?
4. As a member of the community what is your perception regarding community participation in tourism development?
5. What natural features is the Ward endowed with? (geographical, water (rivers, lakes), culture etc?)
6. Tell us how Biri Dam could be used for tourism purposes
7. What infrastructure is available for tourism development purposes in your area (Water, electricity, transport access, health facilities)?
8. What forms of accommodation are available in the area (distribution of accommodation, camping, farm holidays?)
9. What food and beverage facilities are available to service potential tourists? (Distribution and availability of quality restaurants)?
10. What kind of support do the local people need to cater for the tourist trade?
11. How does policy, structures and institutions affect tourism development in Chitomborwizi Ward?
12. What livelihood assets do you possess that could contribute to tourism development in your area? (Human, social, natural, physical, and financial)?
13. What livelihood outcomes could result from tourism development in your area?
14. Which stakeholders would you like to work with to develop tourism in your area?
15. Is there any plan to develop tourism in your area?
16. What challenges are you likely to face as you develop tourism?
17. Do you have any other comments regarding development of Chitomborwizi Ward as a Tourism Destination?

APPENDIX 2: Interview guide for the key informants

1. What livelihood activities are pursued in this area?
2. What factors affect the vulnerability of livelihood strategies pursued in Chitomborwizi East?
3. Are you aware of the tourism potential of Chitomborwizi East Ward?
4. What livelihood assets can contribute to tourism development in this area (human, social, natural, physical, and financial)?
5. Which institutions affect accessibility to assets meant for tourism development? (rules and customs, land tenure and markets in practice)
6. How do you think social relations will affect pro-poor tourism development? (Gender, class, age, ethnicity)
7. Explain how trends in the environment will likely influence tourism development (population, migration, macro policies and world economic trends)
8. Briefly describe shocks that could impact on tourism development in Chitomborwizi East Ward (drought, floods, etc)
Which stakeholders can work with the community to develop tourism in your area? (NGOs, local administration and state agencies)
9. How should the community be involved in tourism development?
10. How can tourism contribute to pro-poor development in your area?
11. Tell us how Biri Dam could be used for tourism purposes
12. What other attractions can complement water-based activities at Biri Dam in the area (history, tradition, monuments etc)
13. What infrastructure is available for tourism development purposes in the Ward (Water, electricity, transport access, health facilities)
14. What forms of accommodation are available in the area for tourism purposes? (distribution of accommodation, camping, farm holidays potential)
15. What food and beverage facilities are available to cater for potential tourists? (Distribution and availability of quality restaurants)
16. What kind of support do the local people need to service the tourist trade?
17. What challenges are locals likely to face as they develop tourism?

18. What livelihood outcomes could result from tourism development in the area?
Do you have any other comments regarding development of Chitomborwizi East
Ward as a Tourism Destination?

APPENDIX 3: Questionnaire for the potential domestic market.

Section A: Tourist's Demographics

1. Age

25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 65 and above ☐

2. Gender: Female ☐ Male ☐

3. Marital Status

Married ☐

Widowed ☐

Divorced ☐

Single ☐

4. How much is your monthly income in US\$?

<us\$ 500 ☐ 500 -999 ☐ 1000-1499 ☐ >1500 ☐

5. What is your level of education?

Primary ☐

Secondary ☐

Tertiary ☐

Other ☐

6. What is your position in the organization?

☐ Operational employee

☐ Supervisor

☐ Middle Level Manager

☐

Top level Manager

7. What is your nationality?.....

Section B: Travel Behaviour Characteristics

1. Have you ever travelled for tourism purposes?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If **yes** go to question 2 and skip question 5 and 6 and if **no** go to question 5 and 6

2. What was the objective of your travel?

☐ Rest and relaxation

☐ Culture

☐ Fun

☐ Sports and recreation

☐ Health

☐ Religious reasons

☐ Business

☐ Visiting Friends and relatives

Others: Please specify.....

3. Which type of destination did you visit?

Domestic ☐

Regional ☐

International ☐

Justify.....
.....
.....

4. Why have you not travelled for tourism purposes?

.....
.....
.....

5. Would you consider travelling for tourism purposes in future? If yes, elaborate.

.....
.....
.....

6. Have you ever been to Chitomborwizi East?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If **yes** continue with question 7 if **no** give reasons for your answer and complete

Section C

.....
.....
.....

7. How many times have you visited Chitomborwizi East in your lifetime ?

First time ☐ 2 times ☐ 3 times ☐ 4 times ☐

More than 5 times ☐

8. How did you know of Chitomborwizi East?

☐ Friends and Relatives

☐ Advertising (Television, print media, brochures, radios)

☐ Internet

☐ Travel agencies and tour wholesalers

☐ Travel guidebooks and internet

☐ Reports, news, editorial articles in newspapers

☐ Others.....

9. Where did you stay whilst visiting Chitomborwizi East?

.....
.....

10. How many nights did you spend in Chitomborwizi East?

< than a day

☐

1-2 days

☐

3-6 days

☐

7-10 days

☐

Over 10 days

☐

11. How many overnight trips would you take to Chitomborwizi East in a year?

One

☐

Two

☐

Three

☐

More than 4 trips

☐

12. With whom did you travel to Chitomborwizi East?

Travel alone

☐

Travel with friends and family

☐

Travel with friends alone

☐

Co-workers

☐

Business partners

☐

Spouse

☐

Others (specify).....

13.What mode of transport did you use to travel to Chitomborwizi East Ward?

.....1

14.What activities did you partake in whilst visiting Chitomborwizi East Ward?

.....

15. Any other places you visited apart from Biri dam while in Chitomborwizi East Ward?

.....
.....
.....

16. If future would you like to revisit Chitomborwizi East Ward ?

a) Yes ☐

Please give reasons for your answer

.....
.....

b) Perhaps ☐

Please give reasons for your answer

.....
.....

c) No ☐

Please give reasons for your answer

.....
.....

17. Would you recommend Chitomborwizi East ward to other people?

Yes ☐

Perhaps ☐

No ☐

Give reasons for your answer

.....
.....

18. How much are you willing to spend on average per person per trip to Chitomborwizi East in US\$?

.....
.....

19. We would like to tell us to what extent you agree with following statements (1 means you completely disagree and 7 you completely agree) (Please circle your response)

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My stay in the destination has been memorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staying in the destination is value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The visit to the destination was beyond my expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section C: Destination evaluation characteristics

- Below is a list of attributes that are critical for selection of a travel destination. Please choose only one and circle the number chosen for each element (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither/nor, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree) to indicate the level of importance of each attribute to you in destination selection

Element of the tourist destination	How important is the element?					
	Strongly disagree					Strongly Agree
	1		3	4	5	7
1. Availability of information	1		3	4	5	7
2. Quality of accommodation	1		3	4	5	7
3. Price of accommodation	1		3	4	5	7
4. Reasonable price of meals	1		3	4	5	7
5. Reasonable price of leisure services	1		3	4	5	7
6. Quality of Food and Beverages	1		3	4	5	7
7. Diversity of activities	1		3	4	5	7
8. Personal safety provisions	1		3	4	5	7
9. Beautiful landscape	1		3	4	5	7
10. Unspoiled nature	1		3	4	5	7
11. Friendliness of local people	1		3	4	5	7
12. Organization of local transport services	1		3	4	5	7
13. Possibilities for shopping	1		3	4	5	7
14. Night life and entertainment	1		3	4	5	7
15. Availability of sport and recreation facilities	1		3	4	5	7
16. Good weather for outdoor activities	1		3	4	5	7
17. Clean public environment	1		3	4	5	7
18. Quality network of tourist information	1		3	4	5	7
19. Variety of cuisine	1		3	4	5	7
20. Availability of telecommunications and internet	1		3	4	5	7

2. For Chitomborwizi East Ward to become a destination of choice what would you recommend be done?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you very much for participating in this survey

APPENDIX 4: PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

expertenglisheditorscc

CERTIFICATE

Expert English Editors CC 2007/147556/23
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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have edited the document for English style, language usage, logic and consistency; It is the responsibility of the author to accept or reject the suggested changes manually, and interact with the comments in order to finalise the text.
Please note that the Reference List is specifically excluded from this certification due to time constraints.

Author: Taitai Chipfuwa

Title: Development of a Pro-poor tourism framework for Zimbabwe

Degree: PhD (Tourism Management)

Institution: Department of Tourism
Faculty of Management Sciences
North West University

Sincerely
Dr Felicity Horne for Expert English Editors
B. A. (Wits); T.T.H.D (Wits); B.A. Hons (Unisa); M.A. (Unisa); D. Litt. et Phil. (Unisa)

Electronically signed
2021-03-26

Members: D Levey; J Levey. Reg. No: 2007/147556/23