

Determining the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique: Case studies of Praia Bilene and Macanetta

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Campus of the North-West University

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DECLARATION

I, Berni Valentin (10071172) do hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Magister Artuim in Tourism at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University. Registered as “Determining the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique: Case studies of Praia Bilene and Macanetta” this dissertation is being submitted as my own work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at any other University and I acknowledge that it is a document that forms part of the University’s property.

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Date: June 2014

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“Overcoming poverty is not a task of charity; it is an act of justice. Like Slavery and Apartheid, poverty is not natural. It is man-made and it can be overcome and eradicated by the actions of human beings. Sometimes it falls on a generation to be great. YOU can be that great generation. Let your greatness blossom.” Nelson Mandela.

Quotes from Nelson Mandela, 1918-2013 <http://www.cfact.org/2013/12/06/quotes-from-nelson-mandela-1918-2013/>

“Be the change you want to see in the world” Mahatma Ghandi

Mahatma Gandhi Quotable Quote <http://www.goodreads.com/quotes/24499-be-the-change-that-you-wish-to-see-in-the>

ABSTRACT

Understanding the role that tourism play in poverty alleviation globally has been a research focus of many studies in different countries. For an extended period the trickle down method of wealth distribution, where it was believed that riches find its way down the value chain to the poor in terms of taxes spent on welfare, infrastructure, grants etc., was globally accepted. In recent years though, focus on tourism as tool for increasing economic growth and poverty alleviation has been placed at the centre. It is true that in many cases tourism made a difference in the lives of the poor but it is also true that in many instances this is not the case. This dissertation analysed the perceived contribution made by tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique in general, and Praia de Bilene and Macanetta peninsula in particular. These are pre-eminently tourist destinations and ideally suited for a study of this nature.

The primary goal of this dissertation was to determine the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique by assessing Praia Bilene and Macanetta peninsula. The first objective was to describe and understand the link between tourism and poverty. It was found that the traditional definition of poverty no longer applies to most situations. That it is better to view poverty as a lack of access instead of money, access to natural resources, bureaucratic processes, capital markets and entrepreneurship. The review analysed different research methods, looking in depth at the livelihood analysis, ST-EP and MPI. The three pathways namely direct, indirect and induced levels on how tourism affects the poor were also explored. The most challenging area has to be the quantifying of tourism impacts on communities and local livelihoods. Concluding that the measurement of tourism impacts on poverty alleviation is an intricate debate and not easily accomplished.

The second objective was to analyse the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique. With 48% of sub-Sahara living in poverty, the picture in Mozambique is even drearier, with 54% living under the poverty line and 81% living under the \$2 poverty line in the country (OPHI, 2013:1), confirming that it is one of the world's

poorest countries. Mozambique's profile was analysed on its poverty status, tourism development, growth and the tourism impacts on the local communities of Bilene and Macanetta. It was found that several tourism opportunities are scooped up by foreigners and that this causes a major leakage of resources from regions where poverty alleviation by tourism is attempted. At a 7% GDP growth rate Mozambique is making very good progress, but due to being so poor and behind it is not reducing the poverty fast enough.

The third objective was to determine the perceptions of two Mozambique communities on tourism impacts and the impact of tourism on their poverty status by incorporating the multi-dimensional poverty index. A perception analysis was done by means of a structured questionnaire presented to random residents from all walks of life at the two specific locations mentioned. The correlation between MPI and perceptions of the impacts of tourism shown that resident's perceptions of tourism do not influence their deprivation scores negative or positive. It was however determined in an open question that an overwhelming 4 out of 5 people felt that tourism did contribute to poverty alleviation. The perceptions and reality therefore differ.

The last objective was to draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in selected Mozambican communities. Conclusions were drawn as to the effectiveness of tourism as a strategic method in the onslaught against poverty in the selected communities. Amongst these conclusions was the fact that poverty seems to be an increasingly complex phenomenon. Due to the difficulty in defining poverty, a wide variety of research methods need to be used to assess the situation. No single approach to impact valuation of tourism on poverty can present all the answers.

Concluding in this analysis into poverty and tourism's relationship it was determined that not only did the factual data show that tourism did not alleviate poverty at these locations but that the population, in stark contrast to empirical proof, determined in their own mind that they perceived a definite improvement due to tourism. Thus residents do

not necessarily receive personal benefits from tourism but they are positive towards the tourism industry. This should be utilised by creating opportunities for higher levels of participation in the industry as well as generating more tangible, positive affects for the local population in Mozambique.

Key words: Tourism impacts, poverty alleviation, MPI, Mozambique

OPSOMMING

Om die rol van toerisme in die verligting van wêreldwye armoede te verstaan, was die navorsingsfokus van talle studies in verskillende lande. Vir 'n lang tyd is daar globaal aanvaar dat rykdomverspreiding deur die sisteem sal vloei en daar is geglo dat rykdom deur die waardeketting afwentel om ook die armes te bereik ten opsigte van belasting wat aan infrastruktuur asook maatskaplike hulptoelaes. Die afgelope paar jaar is die fokus egter direk op toerisme as die middel tot ekonomiese vooruitgang en groei en 'n manier om armoede te verlig. Alhoewel dit waar is dat toerisme in sekere omstandighede bygedra het tot die verligting van armoede, is dit nie in alle gevalle waar nie. Dit is hierdie verhandeling se doel om die bydrae van toerisme tot armoede-verligting te analiseer. In die betrokke gevallestudie word gekyk na Mosambiek oor die algemeen, met spesifieke fokus op Praia do Bilene en die Macanetta-skiereiland wat by uitstek toeristebestemmings is, wat dit ideaal vir die aard van die studie maak.

Deur die assessering van Praia de Bilene en Macanetta-skiereiland is die primêre doel die bepaling van die bydrae van toerisme tot armoede-verligting. Die eerste doelwit was om die skakel tussen toerisme en armoede te omskryf en te verstaan. In die meeste situasies is bevind dat die tradisionele definisie van armoede nie meer van pas is nie. Daar is bevind dat armoede eerder nou 'n gebrek aan toegang is eerder as 'n gebrek aan inkomste. Hierdie sluit in toegang tot natuurlike hulpbronne, burokratiese prosesse, kapitaal-markte en ondernemerskap. Die studie het verskillende navorsingsmetodes geanaliseer maar veral gefokus op bestaansanalise, ST-EP en MPI. Daar was ook drie verskillende maniere waarop toerisme die armes beïnvloed en dié is ondersoek as direkte, indirekte en aansporings-effek (induced). Die uitdagendste area was hoe om die meetbare impak van toerisme op die gemeenskappe en hulle bestaanswyse te bepaal. Dit het dit net weereens uitgelig dat die meting van toerisme se impak op armoedeverligting 'n gekompliseerde onderwerp is met verskeie implikasies, nie maklik haalbaar nie.

Die sekondêre doel was om die huidige status van die toerismebedryf in Mosambiek te bepaal. Terwyl 48% van sub-Sahara se mense in armoede lewe, is dit erger in Mosambiek, met 54% wat onder die broodlyn lewe en altesame 81% wat onder \$2 per dag het om op te oorleef (OPHI, 2013:1), bevestiging dat Mosambiek een van die armste lande ter wêreld is. Mosambiek se profiel is opgestel deur die stand van armoede, toerisme-ontwikkeling, groei en die impak

wat toerisme op plaaslike gemeenskappe naamlik, Bilene en Macanetta het, te analiseer. Daar is bevind dat toerismegeleenthede deur landsvreemdes opgeraap word en dat dit 'n uitvloeï van hulpbronne teweegbring in areas waar dit juis beoog word om armoede deur toerisme te verlig. Met 'n 7% BBP groeisyfer is Mosambiek besig om vinnig vooruit te gaan maar die feit dat hulle so ver agter was en die mense so arm is, maak dit 'n stadige proses.

Die derde doel was om te bepaal hoe die twee gemeenskappe van Bilene en Macanetta die impak van toerisme op die stand van armoede waarneem deur middel van die gebruik van die multi-dimensionele armoede-indeks. 'n Waarnemingsanalise is gedoen deur middel van 'n gestruktureerde vraelys wat aan verskeie mense van alle vlakke van die samelewing in die twee gemeenskappe gegee is om te voltooi. Die vergelyking tussen die MPI en die waarnemingsanalise toon dat die plaaslike bevolking se ervaring van toerisme nie hulle ontnemingstelling ("deprivation score") sodanig beïnvloed nie, hetsy positief of negatief. Aan die ander kant voel vier uit vyf respondente in 'n oop vraag dat toerisme wel 'n positiewe bydrae tot die verligting van armoede lewer. Die persoonlike waarneming en die realiteit verskil dus in 'n duidelike mate van mekaar.

Die laaste doel van hierdie verhandeling was om gevolgtrekkings te maak en dan aanbevelings te doen rakende die bydrae wat toerisme tot armoedeverligting in die geselekteerde gemeenskappe in Mosambiek lewer. Gevolgtrekkings is gemaak ten opsigte van die doeltreffendheid van toerisme as 'n strategiese middel in die aanslag op armoede in die bepaalde gemeenskappe. Omdat armoede so kompleks is en die omvang van armoede moeilik is om te definieer, moet 'n groot verskeidenheid navorsingsmetodes gebruik word om die situasie te bestudeer. Geen metode kan alleenstaande gebruik word om 'n antwoord te probeer vind vir die verligting van armoede deur toerisme nie.

In die analise van die verhouding tussen armoede en toerisme, is die gevolgtrekking bereik dat alhoewel feitlike data bewys dat toerisme nie armoede in Bilene of Macanetta verlig het nie, het die gemeenskap wel 'n verbetering in hulle omstandighede as gevolg van Toerisme ervaar. Dit is dus duidelik dat die inwoners positief voel teenoor die toerismebedryf, alhoewel hulle nie persoonlike wins daaruit verdien nie. Dié kennis moet gebruik word om hoër vlakke van deelname aan die toerismebedryf te bewerkstellig, asook om meer positiewe en tasbare impakte op die plaaslike bevolking van Mosambiek te maak.

Sleutelwoorde: Toerisme-impakte, armoede-verligting, MPI, Mosambiek

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACUDES	Cultural Association for Sustainable Development
ANE	National Roads Administration (Administração Nacional de Estradas)
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CBT	Community-based tourism
CESD	Centre on Ecotourism and Sustainable Development
CSD	Centre for Sustainable Development
CGE	Computable general equilibrium
CSP	Country strategic paper (Mozambique)
DANIDA	National Directorate for Environmental Impact Assessment
DEPTUR	Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism
DFID	Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DIPTUR	Provincial Directorate of Tourism
DNAC	National Directorate for Conservation Areas
DPCA	Provincial Directorate for Coordination of Environmental Affairs
EDM	State electricity company (Electricidade de Moçambique)
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ESIPP	EU-SADC Investment Promotion Programme
ETAO	Environmental Threats and Opportunities
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
FDI	Foreign Direct investment
FIAS	Foreign Investment Advisory Service
FIPAG	Fundo de Investimento e Património do Abastecimento
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTZ	German Development Corporation
GoM	Government of Mozambique
HCB	Cahora Bassa hydroelectricity
HDI	Human Development Index

HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPI	Human Poverty Index
ICLEI	International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives
ICM	Integrated Coastal Management
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INE	National Statistics Institute
INS	Instituto Nacional de Saúde
INSIDA	National Survey on Prevalence, Behavioural Risk and Information about HIV and AIDS in Mozambique.
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer Olkin
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MICOA	Ministry for the Coordination of Environmental Affairs
MITUR	Ministry of Tourism
MPF	Ministry of Planning and Finance
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
MZN	Metical (Mozambique currency)
Moz	Mozambique
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development
OPHI	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
I-O	Input-Output
PARP	Poverty Alleviation and Reduction Plan
PARPA II	Poverty Alleviation and Reduction Action Plan II
PARPA I	Poverty Alleviation and Reduction Action Plan I
PPI	Participatory Poverty Index
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PPPs	Public-private partnerships

PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
PROL	Local Government Reform Programme
RETOSA	Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa
RPHC	Rwanda Population and Housing Census.
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SAM	Social Accounting Matrices
SAT	South African Tourism
SL	Sustainable Livelihood
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis
SLFT	Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism
SMMEs	Small, Medium and Micro enterprises
SNV	Netherlands development organization
SPDTM	Strategic plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
ST~EP	Sustainable Tourism – Elimination of Poverty
T&T	Travel and Tourism
TFCA	Trans-Frontier Conservation Areas
TFCATDP	Trans-Frontier Conservation Areas and Tourism Development Project
THP	The Hunger Project
TSA	Tourism satellite accounts
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Science Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
USAID	United Nations Agency for International Development
VCA	Value Chain Analysis
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council
CEP-UEM	Centre for Populations Studies at Eduardo Mondlane University

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Around the globe, the notion that tourism can contribute significantly to poverty reduction strategies is creating great interest. According to the World Bank, more than 48.5% of people in Sub-Saharan Africa are living below the poverty line (World Bank, 2014:1). Strategies and organisations such as the Millennium Development Goals, World Tourism Organisation, Sustainable Tourism ~ Elimination of Poverty and Pro-Poor Tourism are all contributing to the solution of this phenomenon. In many countries, tourism is a major contributor to economic development (Sebele, 2010:137), which might contribute to the alleviation of poverty.

The economic gain and the impact of tourism are usually the main focus of those involved in the tourism industry (Timothy & Nyaupane, 2009:7). The drive is to make money from resources but the local communities do not always benefit from these tourism developments. Even though tourism developments take place, it is not always clear whether the wealth created by tourism reaches the local community.

Mozambique was one of the world's poorest countries in 1997 with almost 70% of its population living in absolute poverty. However, government strategies and approaches (Absolute Poverty Alleviation and Reduction Action Plan, PARPA I) were developed to reduce poverty and, in 2002/3, poverty levels were reduced to 54.1% (PARPA II, 2006:11). Although a high level of poverty reduction was achieved, the situation is still critical with more than 10 million Mozambicans living in absolute poverty (PARPA II, 2006:57). Absolute poverty is classified by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) as living on less than one (US) dollar a day (Denman & Denman, 2004:5). Although Mozambique is considered a tourism paradise it seems that local communities do not benefit from this developing industry (Ricardo, 2004:4-5).

The purpose of this chapter is to contextualise the study by firstly providing the background to the study and formulating the problem statement. Hereafter the objectives and research methodology are discussed. Attention is also given to the definition of concepts and the chapter classification.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

The previous Secretary-General of the UNWTO, Francesco Frangialli, said “A new and more demanding economic scenario has emerged in recent times. While factoring this into the international tourism agenda, we must not lose sight of the unaffected challenges of climate change response and the **fight against poverty**” (UNWTO’s Roadmap to Recovery, 2009:1).

Poverty is a worldwide phenomenon and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) has been adopted by many countries and organisations in the fight against poverty (UNWTO, 2010:3). Eradicating poverty has therefore become a priority worldwide. Tourism has proven to be a powerful tool in alleviating poverty (Scheyvens, 2007:231; Spenceley, 2008:300). It is an economic engine, especially for the world’s least developed countries (LDCs), providing them with opportunities for job creation and development (Denman & Denman, 2004:3; Scheyvens, 2007:232; Timothy & Nyaupane, 2009:169; Tosun, 2000:626). Most of the tourism development in Mozambique is owned by foreigners who create an economic leakage and fewer direct benefits to the local communities. Fighting poverty is a major challenge especially for countries in transition such as Mozambique in which tourism can and is making a significant contribution (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:1; Sebele, 2010:137).

Mozambique is, however, still classified as one of the LDCs by the United Nations (UNCTAD, 2010:2, USAID, 2002:7) and is considered as one of the poorest countries in the world (PARPA II, 2006:17). Simler and Nhate (2005:1) state that half of the population is living below the poverty line. Subsistence living, with rural agriculture as its main source of sustenance, is the way of life for more than 80% of the approximately

20 million people in Mozambique (USAID/Mozambique, 2002:7). The struggle against poverty has become a major challenge for the Mozambican government who developed an action plan for the reduction of absolute poverty in the country (PARPA I, 2001 & PARPA II, 2006). The main tourism objective of PARPA II (2006:135) is to diversify the rich tourism potential in order to develop and position Mozambique as a world-class tourist destination. Two secondary objectives were established: firstly to improve the marketing and partnership through various actions and, secondly, to improve the provision of products and services to increase the number of jobs, hotel beds, earnings and small and medium enterprises. The Mozambique Government, after realising the importance of tourism as an economic and job creation factor, established a Ministry for Tourism (MITUR) in 2000 and developed a strategic plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique (SPDTM, 2004-2013). Due to the vast beauty of the country and its long pristine coastline tourism developments are exploding and therefore the focus is on government policies and actions plans.

The Minister of Tourism, Minister Fernando Sumbana Junior (2009:11), indicated that Mozambique's tourism industry earned \$190 million in 2008 - double the revenue collected in 2004. This indicates that tourism is growing in Mozambique. However, 54.1% of the population are still living below the absolute poverty line and the situation is therefore still critical. Tourism alone cannot alleviate poverty but can contribute significantly. The practice of speaking about "the poor" often translates to the local residents or 'community' (Ashley *et al.*, 2001:11). Therefore the growth of tourism and the poverty status of local communities do not match, which raises questions about the sustainable development of tourism in Mozambique.

For tourism to be sustainable, the local residents or local community of the specific area must be involved and take into account the economic, environmental and social impacts of tourism (Tosun, 2006:493; Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008:126; Gromsen, 1997:39; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006:1276). Economic impact is translated into employment, money generated by tourism and their multipliers and leakages (Mbaiwa, 2003:451; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013a:145). Social impact refers to the influence of tourism

on culture, the social exchange process, attitudes and behaviour of the community and tourists (ICLEI, 1999:4; Timothy & Nyaupane, 2009:33, Fletcher *et al.*, 2013c:219). On the other hand, the environmental impacts of tourism focus on the natural resources and the degrading or use thereof (Sanjay, 2000:12; Macleod, 2004:215; Fletcher, 2013b:177). Residents' perceptions of their perceived value or benefit from tourism influence their views of the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism. Thus, perceptions of the impacts of tourism are influenced by aspects such as the economic benefits perceived, the use of resources, influenced by their sentiments and their ecocentric attitude (Murphy & Murphy, 2004:266). The level of involvement in the industry can also make a difference in perceptions and various studies have shown that, by involving communities, positive attitudes became more visible than negative attitudes (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006:1275; Diedrich, 2007:986; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:131).

These perceptions can influence both attitudes towards tourists and the number of visitors to Mozambique. On the other hand, poverty can be reduced through tourism but it is important to firstly determine the residents' perceptions concerning tourism.

Various measurements have been developed to determine the poverty status of a specific area or country of which the most important will be discussed below. Denman and Denman (2004:17) proposed seven tourism development mechanisms (**STEP-initiative**) that can be used to analyse residents' perceptions of tourism. These development mechanisms are related to aspects such as tourism enterprises utilising poor labour, the supply chain to tourism businesses being populated by poor labourers and wage earners and the one-on-one interaction of indigent vendors selling to the tourists directly whether it be consumables or personal services. It is through these mechanisms that UNWTO assesses the contributions of tourism to poverty reduction (Denman & Denman, 2004:17). **Regression analysis** allows a huge amount of data to be analysed, determining the relationship between dependent variable (or endogenous) (for example: tourism growth or individual income) and independent variables (explanatory) (for example: individual income may depend on their level of education - years of schooling or intelligence) in analysing the impact of tourism on macro-economic

level (Mitchell & Ashely 2010:111; Deller, 2010:200). **Tourism satellite accounts (TSA)** also applied and endorsed by the UNTWO, determine the economic influence of tourism in a specified accounting framework and thereby measures the impact of tourism on the economy (Mitchell & Ashely, 2010:114).

The **Input-Output (I-O) model** is based on data from the national accounts, providing a clear picture of the inter-sector linkages in the economy with quantitative description. Calculating the effects of visitors' spending with the I-O analysis allow the effective contribution of tourism to the aggregated macro economy (Mitchell & Ashely 2010:110; Winters *et al.*, 2013:181). **Social accounting matrices (SAM)** are the most complete static depictions of the economy, combining economic and social concerns, linking the inter-sector focus of I-O analysis with distribution factors like sectors, house type, commodities and primary factors (Mitchell & Ashely, 2010:112). **Computable general equilibrium (CGE)** captures the dynamic effects of an economic model, although highly complex, indicating the circular flow of services and goods in an economy, to predict change to the economy of a country (Mitchell & Ashely, 2010:113). CGE assists in assessing the tourism-poverty link and has the potential to enhance the value of tourism in poverty alleviation due to the link and insight it can give on the tourism sector and public investments (Winters *et al.*, 2013:184). The I-O, SAM and CGE follow the basic approach referred to as general equilibrium models in the wider economy (Fletcher, 2013a:163).

Livelihoods analysis involves participatory rural appraisal, taking into account financial capital, social, natural, human and physical capital, attaining the negative or positive impacts of tourism, looking past cash income (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:16; Mitchell & Ashely 2010:116-117). An advantage of the livelihood analysis, so as to incorporate the dynamic and non-financial impacts, is that it assesses it in terms of priorities to the poor (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:126). **Sustainable livelihood analysis** focuses on an all-inclusive interpretation, thoughtful of the multifaceted nature of tourism and interconnected developmental concerns pertaining to poverty (Ashley *et al.*, 2000:6; Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, 2004:26). This approach is more people-centered

(Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:2) and based on five key aspects: Natural, Physical, Social, Human, and Financial livelihood assets (DFID, 1999:2). Transforming structures and processes, vulnerability context, including shocks, trends and seasonality, outcomes are a way of assessing livelihood sustainability (Shen, Hughey & Simmons 2008:20-21; Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:2). **Local economic mapping and pro-poor value chain analysis** is used very successfully by researchers in accessing the impacts on the poor, tracing the flow of tourist expenditure at a destination, to identify the benefits and the flow to the beneficiaries in the local economy (Mitchell & Ashely, 2010:121). Another method of measuring poverty status is the **value chain analysis (VCA)** by assessing competitiveness constraints in the tourism sector. This is done through a series of transactions between the inputs, production, distribution, sales and death or recycling process of the product by analysing all the transaction points. This analysis is effective in identifying bottlenecks (Mitchell & Ashely 2010:124) and to increase participation opportunities for the poor (Winters *et al.*, 2013:190; Vignati & Laumans, 2010:12).

Multidimensional poverty index (MPI) remains one of the most popular measurements of poverty. The MPI concentrates on the lack of achievement of the poor regarding the attainment of minimum criteria of livelihood understood to embrace services such as clean water access, decent sanitation, health services and educational opportunities being accessible as well as proximity and entry to trade. A household's degree of indigence is measured using ten signs of prosperity divided into three universal arenas, living conditions, health and education. Of the ten signs of prosperity eight can be traced back to the MDGs (Alkire & Foster, 2010:8). Each dimension is equally weighted with each indicator inside each dimension also equally weighted to attempt measurement of the deprivation (OPHI, 2011:1).

Following Sen's conceptual work there was an increase in the degree of interest displayed in literature to the development of a wider, less monetary based, approach to the measurement of poverty (Kakwani & Silber, 2008:xviii). Although the multidimensional nature of poverty is now indisputable and is used in assessing all tools

for the measurement of poverty, agreement on the manner in which the various dimensions ought be collated and investigated is still under review thus no standardised measuring instrument is available to assess this phenomena. Providing much needed info on poverty, the MPI can be unpacked to see *how* they are poor (Alkire & Foster 2010:2; Alkire & Santos, 2013:16). Not just stating whether a person is poor but information on literacy, malnourishment, child mortality, children not attending school, etc. giving a clearer picture of the poor. Measuring the impact of tourism projects on poverty has two noteworthy challenges from an impact-evaluation viewpoint. The first problem is associated with attribution, who benefits, with tourism projects situated specifically and with forethought to unique characteristics and environment it makes it difficult to find common ground and universal specific indicators. The second problem to address is the wider, indirect or secondary effects of tourism projects. Capturing secondary effects is fundamental because they may be greater than direct effects (Winters, Corral & Mora, 2013:196). To address these gaps, enhanced data collection on tourism and tourism receipts and enhanced assessment and modelling of secondary effects need to be addressed (Winters *et al.*, 2013:196).

As tourism grows, the impacts of the industry become more profound (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:175), be it positive or negative. It is thus important to assess tourism impacts in relation to the triple bottom line of sustainability with reference to the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism based on the perceptions of residents and link that with the poverty status of a country, community or area. Information regarding residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism and ways that tourism can alleviate poverty enables the future development of this industry. Incorporating the perceptions of residents can create a more sustainable tourism industry which may alleviate poverty on a higher level. The following table indicates that various studies have been done regarding poverty alleviation and tourism as well as the impacts of tourism.

Table 1.1: Previous studies on tourism impacts and poverty alleviation

PREVIOUS STUDIES	
POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND TOURISM	IMPACTS OF TOURISM
Winters, Corral & Mora (2013); Muchapondwa & Stage (2013); Vignati & Laumans (2010); Wierenga (2009); Gartner (2008); Cunguara (2008); Croes & Vanegas (2008); Zhoa & Ritchie (2007); Mitchell & Ashley (2007); Tosun (2006); Choi & Sirakaya (2006); Donaldson (2005); Mayise (2005); Salençon (2004); Ricardo (2004); Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds (2004); Lo (2003); Bennett, Roe & Ashley (1999)	Belotti (2013); Saayman, Rossouw & Krugell (2012); Hummel, Gujadhur & Ritsma (2013); Steinicke & Neuburger (2012); Mitchell (2012); Ijeomah & George & Korstanje (2012); Lejárraga & Walkenhorst (2010); Nhantumbo (2009); Hall & Lew (2009); Atkinson (2008); Jones (2007); Acudes (2007); Diedrich (2007); Mbaiwa (2003); Spenceley & Seif (2003); Mason (2003); Soto (2001); Andereck & Vogt (2000); Tosun (2000)

It is clear from Table 1.1 that various studies have been done on poverty alleviation and tourism impacts and that tourism made a difference in some cases and not in others. Gartner (2008) as well as Croes and Vanegas (2008), found that tourism can have profound effects on poverty alleviation. Most of the studies on poverty alleviation focus on the direct measurements and very little is known of the perception of residents regarding tourism and poverty alleviation through tourism. Very little is known of those influenced by the tourism industry but not necessarily directly involved therein. Scheyvens (2002, 2007), Mbaiwa (2003), Hall and Lew (2009), Tosun (2000), Zhoa and Ritchie (2007) emphasise community participation as an essential objective in tourism if it seeks to address issues of poverty. Due to the diverse nature of poverty and tourism it is clear that it is still a much debated issue and it becomes more important for a destination such as Mozambique to determine if tourism contributes to alleviation of poverty in this country based on the opinions of residents. Jones (2007) conducted an

economic impact study of tourism in Bilene in 2007 (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:3) but the importance of both Marracuene and Bilene (rural coastal communities) as tourism hubs should not be underestimated but researched.

The influence of tourism development on residents' current poverty status and their perceptions of the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism are not known. Moreover, the influence of residents' perceptions of tourism and involvement in the tourism industry on their deprivation levels are not known and one of the most important contributions of this study. Broadening the focus regarding tourism in relation to the reduction of poverty is imperative as it emphasises the multidimensional nature of poverty and highlights the importance of investigating the wide-ranging impact that tourism may have on the livelihoods of the poor. This research will attempt to address some of the problems associated with tourism impacts by incorporating the assessment of economic, social, and environmental factors in relation to the Multidimensional Poverty Index.

This research could benefit the local planners in tourism development and also encourage government to assess current action plans dealing with the lives of Mozambicans. It could direct action plans towards a more sustainable tourism industry in Mozambique and improves the benefits residents receive. Guidelines could be developed for the Government to incorporate the community in tourism development and planning, thereby creating wealth for the local communities. The question therefore remains: what are the perceptions of the community regarding the impacts of tourism on poverty alleviation?

1.3 GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following section addresses the primary and secondary objectives of the study.

1.3.1 Primary objective

The objective of this study is to determine the perception of tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique by assessing Praia do Bilene and Macanetta.

1.3.2 Secondary objectives

The secondary objectives of this study are:

- To describe and understand the link between tourism and poverty.
- To analyse the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique.
- To determine the perceptions of two Mozambique communities on tourism impacts and the impact of tourism on their poverty status by incorporating the Multi-dimensional Poverty Index.
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in selected Mozambican communities.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A two-pronged approach was followed - a literature analysis and a quantitative study.

1.4.1 Literature study

The first phase of this study involved a comparative literature review which was conducted to understand the multi-dimensional nature of poverty, its link to tourism and poverty alleviation and the tourism industry in Mozambique by analysing measurement tools and impacts of tourism. More specific information was sought on poverty reduction or alleviation and the use of MPI as a poverty measure. It also included reviewing previous research and literature on tourism, impacts, poverty, poverty indicators, poverty measurement tools, critics, policies and government documents, strategies. A wide range of documents was vital to understand and contextualise this topic (Veal, 2006:121). The literature study was conducted based on specific keywords including

tourism impact, MPI, poverty indicators, sustainable tourism, triple bottom line, poverty alleviation, pro-poor tourism, community participation and perceptions.

Resources from the Ferdinand Postma Library at North-West University, various books, theses, journals, reports and research articles was sourced and included both national and international sources. Primary data was collected from self-completion questionnaires in Portuguese and used for the statistical analyses. A variety of sources were consulted, including books, accredited journal articles, theses, dissertations, maps, government documents, reports and policies. The Internet also played an important role in gathering the necessary information and included scientific databases such as Ebscohost, ScienceDirect, Google Scholar and SACat.

1.4.2 Empirical study

Surveys were done at the two relevant case destinations: Bilene and Marracuene.

1.4.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

Applied research is grounded in an extensive assortment of approaches, including exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, causal, comparative, evaluative and predictive research (Jennings, 2001:15). Explorative research informed by qualitative methodology can draw mostly from secondary sources. The case study approach also holds advantages due to the location of each off the two areas, the tourism sectors as the dominant sector of business. This was achieved by means of a questionnaire to show statistical evidence of a relationship between measurable variables (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:265). The research was done from a positivism paradigm (set of beliefs) using primarily quantitative methods. These methods can include questionnaires, case studies, observation, documentary analysis and quasi-experiments (Jennings, 2001:36) but for the purpose of this study questionnaires were chosen. This allowed for a more concise measurement of both poverty and the impacts of tourism. The case study approach also holds advantages such as data being collected by using several sources, a more representative sample and complete picture, comparisons are possible and

studies can be repeated. It is however more resource intensive and could possibly lack depth, reducing the research to a numerical representation (Jennings, 2001:256).

1.4.2.2 Development of questionnaire

The questionnaire focuses on determining poverty levels and measuring the impacts of tourism according to the perceptions of the residents. It is therefore divided into four sections: **Section 1** focuses on demographic information with reference to the relevant community, gender, age, language, marital status, education and occupation. **Section 2** includes household information such as employment, nature of employment, sector, number of jobs and income changes, financial management (debt, bank accounts, GoM grants & pension), number of people in household contributing to the household, responsible person for making financial decisions, length of stay in the area, property and ownership, utilisation of the property, number of children and adults living in household, unemployment, living conditions and access to resources, fuel for cooking, assets owned, tourism awareness and participation in the industry. This was measured by means of closed and open ended questions. The purpose of this section is to gather information on the population in question.

Section 3 used a Likert-scale to measure the impacts of tourism on respondents according to their perception. These questions relate to the economic, environmental and social impacts of tourism on the community and resulted in 34 impact statements. The five-point Likert-scale ranges between strongly disagree to strongly agree. **Section 4** focuses on questions related to quality of life and with open ended questions and closed questions related to poverty status. This was set up according to the Multidimensional Poverty Index.

The MPI centres on the inability of indigent people to attain even the modicum of a decent livelihood and thus uses three universal facets of wellbeing, health, the conditions of living and education to define the degree of deprivation. These are again supported by eight sub-indicators taken from the MDGs (Alkire & Foster, 2010:8). To attempt measurement of the deprivation all dimensions carry equal weight as does the

individual sub-indicators (OPHI, 2011:1). *Standard of living* is contextualised in access to resources such as clean drinking water, distance of the water from the household, electricity or types of fuel used for cooking, housing materials, flooring and ownership and sanitation facilities. *Education* entails the number years schooling attended, access to education amenities, distance, skills training and qualifications. *Health* is the third dimension containing nutrition information and child mortality (OPHI, 2011:1-2). Alkire and Santos (2013:19) consider the MPI measure to provide an in-depth look at households considered by the international community to not be meeting accepted standards over a wide array of indicators, by linking MDGs and MPI.

Even though multifaceted poverty is currently undisputed as a measurement tool; agreement on how the multiplicity of facets ought be collated and examined is still under discussion. By means of the weight of the value assigned to each facet, the degree of deprivation to which a household is subject is considered the weighted sum of its indigence. With a score higher than a particular threshold, based on one third (0.33), a household may be considered poor according to the MPI.

Formula for MPI

$$MPI = H \times A$$

Where *H* is the number of people who are identified as poor in the multi-faceted respect and *A* (intensity) is the number, percentage wise, of deprivation facets to which the average indigent person is exposed to (OPHI, 2010:2). As in previously used mono-dimensional poverty measurements, ***H*** (the headcount) is easy and obvious; it easily lends itself to identification through an income headcount or by means of other deprivation incidences. ***A*** (intensity) relates to the synchronised size of all the deprivations suffered together. (OPHI, 2010:2-3)

This Index was chosen for the purpose of this study as it is flexible and can be adapted (as done by Feeny & McDonald, 2013:5-8) to be a purposeful measure and signify standardized decisions defining the meaning of being poor altering the decisions on

dimensions cut offs and weights (Alkire & Foster, 2011:291). The MPI was tailored to embrace information pertinent to the definition of poverty in the case of Mozambique and included the questions below.

The following questions were included in the survey:

QUESTION	VARIABLES	CODING FOR MPI
Household size	Adults and children	Total number of children and adults
EDUCATION		
Level of education completed	No Schooling Primary school, Secondary school, Further education, Degree	1 0
Did any of the children in your household not attend school in the past year	Yes No	1 0
HEALTH		
How many meals does your family eat in a day	1 Meal More than one meal	1 0
Did any child in the family die in the past year	Yes No	1 0
LIVING CONDITIONS		
Do you have access to electricity	Yes No	0 1
Do you have access to clear drinking water	Yes No	0 1
Do you have access to adequate sanitation	Yes No	0 1
Your current house is made of:	Straw; Reeds, Wood, Other Brick; Metal roofing	1 0
The household uses 'dirty' cooking fuel	Wood; Charcoal Gas; Electricity; Paraffin; Solar power	1 0
Appliances	Household do not own a bicycle, motorcycle, radio, refrigerator, telephone Household owns not car but one of the above	1 0

Thus the changes made to the measuring instrument for the purpose of this study and significance of the situation in Mozambique included the following:

- It was impossible to collate the average dimensions for an adult's height and weight for this study. Considering that regular access to fresh, nutritionally rich food is the core value of the nutritional dimension, it was decided to use a proxy to determine the existence of any malnourished adults in the household. This proxy is

represented by the questions regarding food security pertaining to the different households i.e. “How many meals does your family eat in a day?” If one meal was indicated it was added in the lack of malnutrition data as an indicator.

- Sanitation, was adapted to having indoor toilet facilities,
- Cooking fuel was modified to the use of wood and charcoal,
- Education was modified to incorporate children not going to school.
- Instead of flooring the questionnaire included questions on roofing.

An example of adopting the MPI method but formulating various modifications is the specific circumstance of Rwanda and the limitations of their Census data regarding the measurement of MPI. Dimensions and their weights were not changed but adjustments were made at the indicator level, where five indicators were adapted (RPHC, 2012:8-9).

The questionnaire was translated into Portuguese as most of the community members speak Portuguese and it is used as official language in education and government. To ensure that the content remains the same, the questionnaire was translated into Portuguese and then back into English by two independent persons. This added to the validity of the study.

The questions relating to the impacts of tourism have been tested in various research projects (Slabbert, Viviers & Erasmus, 2013; Viviers & Slabbert, 2013; Viviers, & Slabbert, 2012) and were deemed reliable. The complete questionnaire was also completed before distribution by three Portuguese-speaking people in Nelspruit to support the validity of the questionnaire. It was also reviewed by two academic researchers in an attempt to ensure factual validity.

1.4.2.3 Sample population

Two coastal communities in Mozambique were identified as case studies, Marracuene (including the coastal area Macanetta peninsula) and Bilene (including the coastal area Praia do Bilene (See map next page).

The location of these particular case studies is very remote and, due to the Inkomazi River, access is very limited. A ferry boat at Marracuene in the south and a one-lane metal bridge with controlled access at the north at Manhica, are the only entry points. Bilene, a holiday destination in the south, is 30 km from the main road and surrounded by lakes. Most of the developments that have taken place here are tourism orientated with lodges, accommodation facilities and property development as the main developments in these areas. External influences such as other industries and development in these two case studies are very limited, which gives a great opportunity to investigate the tourism impacts on these communities, especially if the communities have benefited from the tourism development.



Map 1: Location of case studies

Source: www.wheretostay.co.za

As indicated in the district profile, Bilene has 165 104 inhabitants, including Praia do Bilene with 6 500, (Republic of Mozambique, 2005:7) and Marracuene and Macanetta at

60 471 (Republic of Mozambique, 2005:9). Population size influences the sample size (Jennings, 2001:146). Implications of sampling for data analysis have two key concerns which need to be considered, sample size and representativeness of samples by following the principals of random sampling (Veal, 2006:295). Sample size might be asserted by applying Krejcie and Morgan's formula (1970:607-610) that stated that as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate, remaining at more or less 380 cases. According to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:607-610) 400 respondents will be adequate in measuring the variables. This was also supported by Leedy and Omrod (2005:207) who indicated that because the population size is quite large, a sample size of 400 should be adequate. A target of 450 questionnaires was thus set to ensure an adequate representation of the relevant communities. After completion of the process, 503 questionnaires were completed in the two areas.

1.4.2.4 Sampling method

In both case studies a stratified random sampling procedure was followed. The advantage of stratified random sampling is that the identified strata are guaranteeing an equal representation (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:202). The survey population for this study was selected from the local population living in the two identified areas, Bilene and Marracuene in Mozambique. For this study, the starting point was randomly selected on the basis of convenience due to the remoteness of the area and the accessibility after which every fourth house was visited.

Portuguese-speaking fieldworkers were trained to understand the purpose of the study and completion of the questionnaires. Fieldworkers had to assist respondents where necessary without interfering with the completion of the questionnaire. The survey was conducted by means of a self-administered questionnaire among the local population of the two relevant case studies. The respondents were briefed about the purpose of research. Even though the questionnaire was translated into Portuguese, the language was still a barrier as well as the level of education of the residents. It was also

logistically difficult to reach the communities and thus 4x4 vehicles, interpreters, local leaders and other role players assisted in easing the process of data collection.

1.4.2.5 Data analysis

The data was captured on Excel, analysed by the Statistical Services of North West University on SPSS (Version 21) and interpreted by the researcher. Various methods were used to analyse the data.

Firstly, ***frequency tables*** and figures were drawn to establish demographic profile, containing information obtained from the questionnaire on demographic information, household information, tourism impacts and quality of living. Frequencies enable basic interpretation of the data by changing frequency number into percentages, this allows for identification of errors in the data and missing values (Veal, 2006:325). Six SPSS analysis procedures are taken into account, frequencies, multiple response, recoding, means are calculated, crosstabs showing the relationship between two or more variables and weights assigned, making it possible to produce graphs (Veal, 2006:325). Nominal, ordinal and scale data are types of data used in levels of measurement, linking the greater the range to the higher level of measurement (Veal, 2006:339). Descriptive analysis was carried out.

Secondly, ***exploratory research*** followed with factor analyses, ANOVA and T-Test's, accessing the correlation of certain factors and demographic information against each other. A factor analysis was used to reduce the data that will be used in the correlation analyses. Correlation analyses interpret the variables or characteristics and the extent to which they are related. Thus, if one variable increases, another will either increase or decrease in somewhat predictable fashion (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:180). Correlation measures the degree or strength of this relationship between the two variables, which is characterised by a correlation coefficient (Howell, 2008:171). One-way analysis of variance or factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine more than two means at a time or sets of means grouped by a factor or one classifying variable (Veal, 2006:348; Howell, 2008:412,440). T-test is used in comparing two means to see

whether they are significantly different when compared (Veal, 2006:344; Howell, 2008:329). T-tests can take on positive or negative values which relate to the two “tails” to its distribution, comparing two variables’ means to the whole sample (paired sample test) or the means of one variable for two sub-groups (group or independent samples) (Veal, 2006:345). Correlations were determined to different variables such as employment status, gender, language, and marital status, ownership of property or business, direct selling to tourists, acquiring a foreign language, participation and safety in relevant community areas.

Lastly the Multi Poverty Index was used to establish multiple **deprivations** in the 3 dimensions, calculating the headcount ratio, intensity of poverty and the contribution of deprivation. The 10 indicators in the 3 dimensions were adjusted in the questions of the study for the communities in Mozambique. The degree to which poverty is experienced can be determined by an examination of how prolific the deprivations in education, health and living standards are that these people experience concurrently. Correlation was drawn on the relationship between tourism variables and poverty levels, as well as the relationship between tourism impacts and poverty levels.

A literature study was done with quantitative data collected with questionnaire surveys completed in the relevant two case studies in Mozambique. Knowledge of certain concepts is vital in the process of research.

1.5 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.5.1 Tourism impact

Jafari (2000:296) states in the Encyclopedia of Tourism, that the impacts of tourism are the change that occurs as a consequence of the industry. Medlik (2003:166) implies that tourism impact can, in general terms, be the effect that tourists and tourism development have on a community or area. The impact of tourism mostly refers to environmental, social and cultural, and economic impacts.

Economic impact, as defined by Keyser (2009:308) is: “the sum of direct, indirect and induced effects within a region. Social and cultural impacts are interconnected. **Social** impact reflects the change in norms and values of a society, which is more evident in the short term. With **culture**, impacts are more long-term changes in rituals, art forms, society structures and so forth (Keyser, 2009:380). **Environmental** impact occurs when tourism activity causes positive or negative changes in the environment (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:161).

1.5.2 Community

Community is define by Jafari (2009:93) as: “A community is a combination of social units and systems that afford people daily access to those broad areas of activity which are necessary in day-to-day living”. Community: “the people living in one particular area, or people who are considered as a unit because of their common interests, social group or nationality” (Cambridge dictionary online, 2010). Scheyvens (2002:15) tells us that the term ‘communities’ should not be taken for granted, due to the problems in defining the community because of diversity and scale.

1.5.3 Perceptions

Perceptions are the way things are perceived in one’s own world, seen from your eyes and influenced by your environment and upbringing. The Cambridge dictionary online (2010) defines perception as “a belief or opinion, often held by many people, and based on how things seem”

1.5.4 Poverty

There are various definitions of poverty from the United Nations through the years as it developed. Poverty is defined as “the total absence of opportunities, accompanied by high levels of undernourishment, hunger, illiteracy, lack of education, physical and

mental ailments, emotional and social instability, unhappiness, sorrow and hopelessness for the future". Poverty is also characterised by a chronic shortage of economic, social and political participation, relegating individuals to exclusion as social beings, preventing access to the benefits of economic and social development and thereby limiting their cultural development" by the UN's World Summit on Social Development, in the 'Copenhagen Declaration' 1995.

"Poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environment; and social discrimination and exclusion, it is also characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life" (United Nations, 1995, para.19).

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to; not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation (UN Statement, June 1998 – signed by the heads of all UN agencies).

The UN defines "Poverty as a human condition characterised by sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights". An underlying theme is that the poor experiences powerlessness meaning to provide, change or influence their circumstances or their standard of living (UN, 2001: paragraph 8).

The World Bank's definition of poverty has grown from a lack of, to a poverty line of US\$1 to US\$1.25 per day for extreme poverty and US\$2 per day for poverty (World Bank 2005:1) including more facets. Poverty is an income level below some minimum level required to meet basic needs, typically called the "poverty line" it varies from place to place, country to country, society to society and time to time. What is necessary to satisfy basic needs and at what appropriate level of development, societal norms and values could it be reached. What is the content of these needs? Poverty is: hunger, lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to see a doctor, not having access to school and not knowing how to read, not having a job, fear for the future, living one day at a time, losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water, its powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom.

Okech and Mwagona (2007:1), however, indicate that "poverty is more than a lack of income – it is a multidimensional and complex phenomenon with an intricate relationship to issues such as disease, illiteracy, infant mortality, environmental degradation and many other aspects".

1.5.5 Poverty alleviation

The World Bank's global poverty measures since the 1990s have mainly been based on an international poverty line of about US\$1 per day. "Poverty alleviation (or reduction) describes strategies to eradicate poverty. It seeks to reduce the level of poverty in a community, or amongst a group of people or countries" (Wiserearth, 2010). PARPA II defines poverty as: "the impossibility, owing to inability and/or lack of opportunity, for individuals, families, and communities to have access to the minimum basic conditions, according to the society's standard"

1.6 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1 discusses the purpose of the study in themes such as introduction, methodology and goals of the study. Information included is questionnaire development,

data collection and analysis. Background information on the two relevant case studies and the location in Mozambique is also provided.

Chapter 2 focuses on defining poverty in terms of the study and poverty alleviation in relation to its link to tourism. Challenges measuring poverty, a global picture of poverty, primary causes of poverty, linking poverty and tourism, the poverty agenda – centre stage and indicators used in measuring poverty alleviation. Discussion of the effects tourism has on the poor, direct, secondary (indirect), dynamic effects in the economy and growth trajectories. Consideration was given to the millennium goals and new trends such as Pro-Poor tourism, a poverty reduction strategy, approaches to pro-poor tourism, implementation of pro-poor tourism strategies, poverty indicators, overview of a variety of methods for assessing the impacts of tourism on poverty, livelihood analysis, sustainable tourism – elimination of poverty and the multidimensional poverty index.

Chapter 3 analyses the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique, the history of tourism in Mozambique, tourism development in Mozambique as part of the African continent, tourism policies, laws and strategies in Mozambique. Poverty in Mozambique with special reference to Multidimensional Poverty Index findings, growth and barriers in Mozambique tourism, infrastructure, Mozambique tourism's link to South Africa, impacts of tourism containing, economic, social/cultural and environmental impact of tourism.

Chapter 4 will incorporate the survey itself and discuss the data, showcasing the results and explanations of the relevant findings. Empirical results were collected on descriptive data containing the *Demographic profile* of respondents, participating communities, gender and age of respondents, home language and marital status, level of education, occupation. *Socio-economic information* includes employment, finances, length of stay, property, home ownership, number of people living in the household. *Living conditions*, contain tourism awareness and involvement and poverty indicators.

Exploratory research of this section is to assess the results of the *factor analysis* pertaining to the impacts of tourism on these communities and investigate the effect of selected variables on the identified factors, containing data on tourism impacts, aspects influencing tourism impacts, comparison by employment, comparison by gender, language, marital status, owning property (home-ownership or business enterprise), selling directly to tourists or acquiring a foreign language, participation in community discussions on tourism and their perception on safety in communities.

Multi poverty index was used with Spearman rank order *correlations* to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, namely the relationship between the deprivation scores and the tourism impact factors. MPI could be used to obtain the Headcount ratio, Intensity of poverty and the contribution of deprivation.

Chapter 5 will provide conclusions and offer recommendations on the proposed goal and objective of this study.

1.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter is to contextualise the study by firstly providing the background to the study and formulating the problem statement. Hereafter the aims and objectives and research methodology are discussed. Attention is also given to the definition of concepts and the chapter classification.

This was achieved by analysing the worldwide prevalence of poverty and the priority that has been assigned by most countries to its eradication. It was clearly established that it is universally agreed that tourism is an economic engine second to none regarding the use of natural resources for the alleviation of poverty. However, it is also made abundantly clear that tourism alone cannot overcome the problem of poverty. Many factors that impinge on the efficacy of tourism as a poverty alleviator are highlighted including leakage, corruption and ownership of natural resources.

The problem statement therefore comes down to determining how best tourism activities can be used to maximise the alleviation of poverty under the local population. The fact that tourism income doubled in four years in Mozambique from 2004 to 2008 but that the local poverty levels did not fall by the same significant percentage during that time indicates the inefficient employment of factors such as ownership of natural resources, labour, capital and entrepreneurship.

The main objective of this study is to use two prominent tourism destinations in Mozambique to determine if and how tourism contributed to the communal wellbeing and whether poverty was alleviated to any degree. Secondary objectives such as assessing the current state of tourism and determining the link between tourism and poverty was also analysed.

A dual approach was used to obtain a bird's eye view of the problem. This consisted of a literature as well as a quantitative study. An in-depth literature study was done by using comparative literature from a wide range of sources focusing on key words that made the multi-dimensional nature of poverty known. This chapter also focused on the ties between tourism and poverty reduction by analysing a wide variety of measurement tools and methods of which the multi-dimensional poverty index (MPI), the value chain analysis (VCA), the STEP- initiative and the sustainable livelihood analysis are all paramount in importance. An empirical study was also done by doing surveys at the designated destinations in Mozambique – Bilene, Marracuene and Macanetta peninsula. The surveys were done by presenting questionnaires to local people at these destinations. This assisted in obtaining an area-specific measurement of both poverty as well as the impact of tourism on the livelihoods of the local population.

Lastly, concepts were defined so as to give a precise description of the various important ideas used thereby allowing for a unilateral understanding of the thesis by all readers alike and the chapter classification allows for the quick and easy referral to broad concepts regarding placement in the document.

CHAPTER 2

ANALYSING THE DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty is not merely a consequence of lack of income. Access to natural resources or the effective exploitation thereof, such as fish stocks, beautiful beaches, sun, sand and wildlife can be just as significant to poverty levels as a cash income (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:61). For many of the world's poor, tourism remains the Holy Grail to break away from the daily grind. Not knowing how to manage tourists or how to convert tourism into benefits or income for the entire local community is one of the biggest challenges facing tourism destinations. A case in point being the Inhambane province in Mozambique, which is the second major tourist destination after Maputo Province in positions of the number of tourism enterprises and tourism activities yet, is still one of the poorest provinces, with a poverty level of 80.7% (IAF, 2003; ACUDES, 2007:1).

Worldwide, countries are combating poverty. Globally, 2.7 billion people struggle to survive on less than US\$2 per day and one billion are in severe poverty living on less than US\$1 a day (United Nations, 2014:1). The World Bank indicates a 48.5% poverty headcount ratio at US\$1.25 per day in 2010 in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2014:1). The global threat of poverty has massive impacts on countries, touching the lives of individuals, communities and countries, shaping the way they make decisions, how they survive and addressing this global threat.

The goal of this chapter is to describe and understand the link between tourism and poverty. Poverty as an intricate concept is discussed as well as the important role tourism can play in alleviating poverty. Indicators of tourism impacts are discussed and how they affect the community and its poverty status. Measuring poverty and its complexity will also be investigated in this chapter by focusing on the livelihood analysis, the STEP program (Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty) and Multidimensional Poverty Index as measurement tools. Other aspects that are included in this chapter

are pro-poor tourism, its approaches and implementation strategies, and effects of tourism. Firstly poverty will be defined too create an understanding of its multiple facets and its complexity.

2.2 DEFINING POVERTY

With different currencies, values and standards in the world, the measurement and understanding of poverty is a complex and dynamic one. Consumption and income thresholds are no longer seen as the only measurements and definitions of poverty analysis (Castro, 2002:1).

People are in poverty, regardless of their income, when they are not able to eat, access health care or attend school. Poverty as described by the UN's World Summit on Social Development, in the 'Copenhagen Declaration' as "...a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic needs including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information" (UN, 1995, paragraph 19 of annex II).

The UN (2001: paragraph 8) endorsed, through the Committee for Economic, Social and Cultural rights on 4 May 2001, the following definition: "Poverty as a human condition is characterised by sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights". An underlying theme is that the poor experience powerlessness to provide for, change or influence their circumstances or their standard of living.

The poor can also be defined according to the predominant socio-economic characteristics of the location. Characteristics entail extensive unemployment or low per capita income (related with either the international poverty line or the national average), or extreme remoteness of that specific area or location (Ashley, *et al.*, 2001:11).

The World Bank (2005:1) went a step further and defines poverty set at an income of US\$2 a day or less and the extreme poverty threshold is set at US\$1.25 a day or less. The Dollar a day money poverty line was created by the World Bank in 1985 providing an internationally comparable framework specifically for developing countries to measure and monitor poverty. The adjustment by the World Bank in 2005 from US\$1 a day to US\$1.25 was motivated by the increase in inflation and consumer prices.

Not to be perceived as poor in the world, an individual needs to require the minimum level of consumption at around US\$1.25 a day at the 2005 purchasing power parity and have extra to cover certain social needs (Ravallion, 2010:26).

Transversely, the world national poverty lines fluctuate extremely. Per capita, the 15 poorest countries encompass an average poverty line of US\$1.25 per person per day, whereas the averages for the 15 wealthiest countries are at US\$25 per day (Ravallion, 2010:24). In the poorest half of the countries, consumption is mostly used as the welfare indicator. This determination of the poverty line is therefore one of the reasons for a variation in the definition of poverty. Although poverty lines differ across the developing world, about half of the population of the developing world in 2005 was poor by this definition and approximately half of these survived with under US\$1.25 a day (Ravallion, 2010:26).

Due to this inconsistency in the way poverty are defined, inconsistent data collection and the lack of standardised measurement tools worldwide, the debate on poverty, poverty lines, standards and measurement continues (UN, 2004:6).

Okech and Mwagana (2007:1) however indicate that “poverty is more than a lack of income – it is a multidimensional and complex phenomenon with an intricate relationship to issues such as disease, illiteracy, infant mortality, environmental degradation and many other aspects”. Poverty is thus not only seen as economic or material deprivations but as the ‘violation of economic, political, social and civil rights’ (Barber,

2008:1). In 2010 Sharpley and Naidoo (2010:47) described poverty in simpler terms as a level of income where people cannot satisfy their basic needs.

It is clear that the concept of poverty is complex and multidimensional and could not be reduced to a particular dimension of human life (UN, 2001:2). No single indicator can capture all the indices of poverty because it has multiple facets (PARPA II, 2006:8). Poverty has spatial, demographic, and asset holding dimensions (Cunguara, 2008:1).

Poverty is much broader than inadequate income and human development. It embraces access to safe water, lack of health, acceptable housing, knowledge, participation, voice, creative life, freedom, dignity, self-esteem, representation, personal security, respect of others and deprivation of a longer life span (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007:121; Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010:148).

For the purpose of this study, poverty can be defined as a condition characterised by the severe deprivation of basic needs/rights of a human being on all levels, not just in monetary terms. It is, however, clear that poverty is a global phenomenon and that each country or region has certain social, cultural, economic and environmental criteria that influence the perceptions and vulnerability of the poor and how poverty is experienced and perceived by the poor.

2.3 CHALLENGES MEASURING POVERTY

Research and measurement of poverty are still mostly done by using the World Bank's poverty line. The intrinsic worth and main problem with the poverty line as meaningful criteria is its representation of poverty. According to Reddy (2009:5) there is evidence that the actual extent of poverty is underestimated by the use of the World Bank poverty line. This fuels the debate on the value and relevance of its use in today's society.

In the debate on poverty, certain fault lines can be identified. Early measurements were done at household or individual level. Young (2009:1) confirms that in 24 of the 45 sub-

Saharan Africa countries there has not been a benchmark study of prices. Data to support existing estimates of living standards are non-existent or minimal. Fundamental problems of measurement produce undefined amounts of official statistics in developing countries. This leads to gross inaccuracies in calculation of consumption levels. Several researchers have criticised and challenged the World Bank statistics and methodology in reaching these statistics (Reddy & Pogge, 2005:38; Ravallion, Chen & Sangraula, 2008:12). Confirming this is the impact of the first national survey of the informal sector that was done in Mozambique in 2004. It led to a doubling of the GDP estimation of nominal private consumption expenditures (Young, 2009:2).

Narayan, Rajendran, Sai & Gopalan, (2009:61) conclude that the ability to help oneself, is more important than to reduce people to needs and/or the lack of certain things or money. Reducing poor people to just their requirements is robbing them of their dreams, skills, ambitions and aspirations. Thus, to be able to participate to influence one's future is more important than the financial indicator that the world chooses to use.

Research into chronic poverty and poverty traps has exposed that the reaction to and the ability to handle shocks or unexpected events are vital in the poverty struggle. Inherited poverty with a frequent lack of assets and education, with socio-economic or natural shocks or hazards to a household, are vital determinants of "persistent hunger and poverty" (Ahmed, Hill, Smith, Wiesmann & Frankenberger, 2007:80). Confirming this, Lima, Eusèbio and Partidário (2011:47) and FAO (2010:2) refer to the vulnerability of the poor to risks such as natural disasters, ill health and economic shocks, which influence their need for safety and security, linking with Maslow's hierarchy on primary needs.

Thus the measurement remains a challenge and can be considered from various aspects and indicators. In the next section, the broader picture of poverty worldwide will be addressed.

2.4 A GLOBAL PICTURE OF POVERTY

The world population is at 6.8 billion people, with 925 million not having enough to eat. That accumulates to more than the population of Europe, USA and Canada combined. With more than 98% of undernourished people living in developing countries (Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), 2010:1). Sub-Saharan Africa remains the highest proportion of undernourished people by 30%, 239 million (FAO, 2010:2). John May from the World Bank forecasts that Africa's population could double by 2036, this will be catastrophic (World Bank, 2008:1).

As seen previously, measuring poverty remains a multifaceted and debatable subject. Sub-Saharan Africa, where poverty rates are higher than average, is a reality (World Bank 2014:1). Causes and contributing factors of welfare are more unpredictable and information sources distinctively weaker (Arndt, Hussain, Jones, Nhate, Tarp & Thurlow, 2011:5). Contrary to this, Sala-i-Martin and Pinkovsky (2010:33) and Young (2010:58-59) argue that poverty rates in Africa are falling rapidly.

However, according to the UNDP fact sheet (2013:1) 1.2 billion people are living below the international poverty line of US\$1.25 a day or less. This is close to 500 million people which are more than the previous estimate done by using the purchasing power parity (PPP) exchange rate. The MPI consists of three indicators, the deprivation that relates to survival (Death), the dimension of knowledge (Literacy) and lastly the aspect of decent standards of living (OHPI, 2013:1).

The PPP was generated by the International Comparison Program project undertaken in a joint effort by the World Bank and the United Nations Statistics Division. A combined national measure of health, education and income for 169 countries was released on 4 November 2010 by the Human Development report of 2010. This places Mozambique amongst the bottom 10 countries in the world.

The UN classifies nations on their low GDP per capita, high economic vulnerability and weak human assets as LDCs (Least Developed Countries), 34 out of 49 LDCs are located in Africa (MDG Report, 2010:26-27). Eliminating poverty has been of limited success, and according to Saraogi (2004:4) there has been a growth in the number of people and LDCs, from 25 countries in 1971 to 49 in 2002. This has pushed the poverty alleviation context to a crucial level.

A quarter of the world's poor live in Sub-Saharan Africa and three quarters of them work and live in rural areas. Statistics show that 60% of these are women and that 50% of pregnant women in developing countries lack proper antenatal care (MDG Report, 2010:26-27), 24 000 children under the age of five years die every day due to poverty conditions (UNICEF State of the Nation World's Children, 2010:5), 2.5 billion people still lack access to proper sanitation facilities; 101 million children don't attend primary school (UNICEF, 2010:7). Greg Mills makes a profound statement in his book "Why Africa is poor and what Africans can do about it." He iterates that the number one reason for the poverty in Africa is the decisions made by African leaders (Mills, 2010:1). In this opinion he is supported by Moeletsi Mbeki, the brother of Thabo Mbeki, ex-president of South Africa. Mr Mbeki stated that African leaders "sustain and reproduce themselves by perpetuating the neo-colonial state and its attendant socio-economic system of exploitation" (Mbeki, 2009:196). This provocative statement is heavily underscored by examples such as the 1% of Nigerian population that accrues 80% of the oil wealth in that country. From the 48 sub-Saharan countries, 35 were net food importers by the end of the 2000s while East Asia, with far less arable land, tripled its food production and South America's doubled since 1970 (Mills, 2010:2).

The Rio Declaration in 1992 by the UN, challenged all people to work together in the important task of eradicating poverty as a prerequisite for sustainable development. With action plans, economic reform, donations, writing off of debt of LDCs by the World Bank the world is committed to try and address this threat.

2.5 PRIMARY CAUSES OF POVERTY

Poverty is complex and difficult to define due to the complexity of the human life, all the variables, impacts and causes of poverty. Poverty is not just caused by lack of income, but environmental impacts (like climate change & disasters), political decisions and socio-economic factors.

Primary causes of poverty as identified by the World Development Report 2000/2001:

- **Lack of income or assets** to require the basic needs, like food, shelter, clothing or acceptable levels of educations and health. Lack of assets could be described as a lack of housing/land, basic infrastructure, good health, and skills needed for employment, access to credit, or lack of savings and social networks and contacts that could be useful when needed. Government ownership of land and industries in Mozambique is a well-established practice. The 1997 Land Law of Mozambique vests the ultimate ownership of land in the government using customary African law to give control to local authorities. Despite the protection to human rights this law provides, it has the main and most debilitating consequence in that the land cannot be sold or used as collateral. The ability to collateralise land value through property mortgages and individual ownership can serve as a leverage facility out of poverty for people with limited resources of any other kind (Mills, 2010:13). Credit can be used to improve education, buy better seeds to increase food production, diversify farming, add infrastructure i.e. build a shop and improve health by replacing a straw roof with a tin one.
- The sense of being **powerless**, unheard in the society, unfair treatment, lack of protection against exploitation, low wage structures, violence and inhuman treatment. In Mozambique people were displaced due to the war, returning and coping with new arrivals and losing land issues. The poverty of powerlessness prevented them from keeping or re-acquiring their traditional stake in property (Clover, 2007:260). Exploitation of cheap property sales to tourism developers as result of their poverty is a reality, which leaves the people even poorer (Clover, 2007:261). Mozambique is vulnerable due to foreign aid and development by

outsiders who decide for the people, contributing to the sense of powerless (Kiambo, 2005:146; World Bank, 2012:1).

- **Lack of defence** against adverse shocks and the incapability to cope with them. The poor are more vulnerable to natural disasters, manmade hazards and health risks (PARPA II, 2006:21). The poor seldom have the capability to cope and recover from these shocks economically, physically, socially and emotionally. Africa as a continent is more vulnerable to disasters than most. Conflicts, colonialism, foods HIV and political unrest were some shocks impacting on the local Mozambican citizen (Clover, 2007:261). The risks of mortality and economic destruction are more pronounced specifically because of conditions such as poverty, eroded or non-existent infrastructure, poor health conditions, inaccessibility of support services, weak governments and conflict conditions. Poverty can be seen as not only a consequence of, but contributing to, natural disasters (World Bank, 2008:2). Mozambique upheld macroeconomic stability even in exogenous shocks, such as the rapid increase in world oil prices and exchange rates with sensible macroeconomic policies (Clement & Peiris 2008:15).

Analysts are increasingly examining the nature of tangible and intangible assets to understand what the poor have rather than what they lack. Research is focusing more on why and how people move into and out of poverty, raising new questions about capabilities, vulnerability and social capital (Castro, 2002:1).

For poverty to be reduced, people have to be empowered, which is a profound concept, but not so easily accomplished.

2.6 LINKING POVERTY AND TOURISM

An overview of international tourism in 2012 by the UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation) indicates that international tourist arrivals in 2011 reached 980 million and tourism revenue generated US\$ 1.2 trillion worldwide (UNWTO, 2012:1).

Tourism as an instrument that generates foreign exchange earnings has been a significant revenue source for economic growth, increased employment, income and tax revenues in developing countries (Muhanna, 2007:38).

Tourism has been identified as a mechanism to eradicate poverty in developing countries; effectively, relatively quickly and in a cost efficient way. As a vehicle to reduce poverty it is often based on the potential impact of growth (Durbarray 2004:390; World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 2002:3). Most national governments in developing countries have policy proclamations declaring tourism as a strategy in the reduction of poverty. Roughly 80% use tourism in their African Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Gerosa, 2003:42).

Different types of linkage between tourism and the poor are displayed in the following figure.

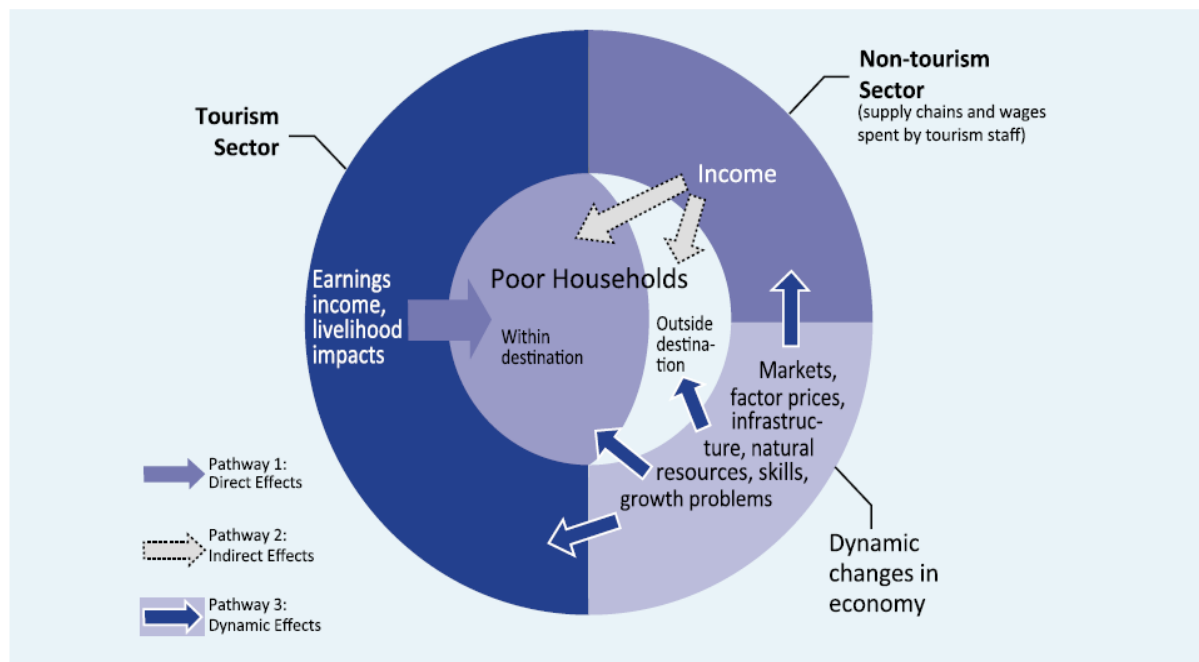


Figure 2.1: Different types of linkage between tourism and the poor

Source: Adapted from Mitchell & Ashley (2007)

Linking tourism development, poverty reduction and economic growth is not new in the literature (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:5; Tohamy & Swinscoe, 2000:21). However, the prominence and the focus that is placed on tourism by governments, academics, NGOs, practitioners, international agencies, particularly the United Nations (UN) and World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (Croes & Vanegas, 2008:94) is relatively new. It is pointless to define in what way tourism affects 'the poor' and 'poverty reduction' if there is not an understanding of who the poor are and what poverty reduction means (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:12).

The assumptions that tourism development will, in the long run, benefit the poor through the "trickle-down" effect (Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, 2004:3). There is no uncertainty that tourism does provide employment to those in lower social and economic classes but indicates that especially in LDC's tourism benefits and enriches the elites and corporate businesses (Nelson, 2011:362). These local elites and global corporates mainly produce low status and low paying employment (ILO, 2011:15; Nelson, 2011:363). An increased cost of living for the local populations and damage to environmental resources, social, cultural traditions and lifestyles could be amplified by poor tourism planning and management (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:2). It must be recognised that economic growth may not always result in the inevitable reduction of poverty. Poverty reduction can only be attained by an explicit and intensive effort to raise the welfare or well-being of the poor.

Tourism is already the main income source for more than one third of developing countries. In 46 of the world's 49 least developed countries (LDCs) tourism is the main source of foreign exchange (ILO, 2011:6). Further, in more than 50 of the world's poorest countries, tourism ranks first, second or third in their main economic sectors (Bolwell & Weinz, 2008:6; Scheyvens, 2007:231).

Poverty is the world's greatest challenge and worldwide there are programmes, policies and drives to eradicate this phenomenon (UN, 2000:5, Okech & Mwagana, 2007:1). According to Muhanna (2007:42) of the 6 billion people in the world, 2,8 billion live on less than US\$2 a day and 1.2 billion live on less than US\$1 a day. Destitution persists with this global picture of poverty. Eighty percent of the world's poor live in 12 countries and tourism is growing or significant in 11 of them (Strategic Plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique 2004-2013 (SPCTM), 2004:15). The question is: Can tourism make a significant contribution to their economies? Reduction policies, strategies and poverty reduction programmes need to be planned at an international level to really address this threat to humankind. Spenceley and Meyer (2012:299) state that tourism has the potential to make available a mechanism to re-distribute wealth from the wealthy to the poor.

The first global lead in addressing some of the issues, was taken in August 2002 in Johannesburg with the World Summit on Sustainable Development by the WTO. The UNWTO concept "Sustainable Tourism as an effective tool for Eliminating Poverty" (ST~EP) led the way with the UN millennium goals to put programmes in place to reduce poverty. The ST~EP approach was specifically developed for the poor to directly benefit from the tourism cake.

Pervasiveness of the link between tourism and poverty has prompted an increasing number of agencies to design policies to use tourism as a tool to eliminate poverty (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012:297). These include institutions like the WTO, the Asian Development Bank, the World Bank and the UN technical agencies such as UNCEP, WCED, and UNCTAD.

Ashley, Goodwin and Boyd (2000:6) found that by establishing and enforcing responsible practices in global consumer and business conduct, with global trade codes of conduct could contribute towards the potential of tourism and the role it can play in

poverty reduction. Fair Trade empowers communities to play an active part in their own development. The system is constructed upon the producers' skills, participation, re-establishing the producer's dignity, offering a protected market to regulate producers and supporting them in establishing capacities and skills needed for entering the main stream export markets (Bowen, 2000:24–25). Krause moves away from the tangible economic impacts of tourism and presents the question of the manner in which justifiable tourism income is shared in communities (Krause, 2005:53).

Tourism development advantages are used and perceived, especially by developing countries, as a tool for rural poverty reduction (Shen *et al.*, 2008:28). New and innovative concepts and ways are continually evolving in which tourism can assist communities (Beeton, 2006:209).

Endorsing tourism as an attractive business segment with a significant potential for promoting pro-poor growth, holds five fundamental advantages. Roe & Urquhart (2001:1-2) initially designate: diversity in the tourism industry, particularly the informal sector, creates an increased and wider possibility for participation. Secondly: connecting economic sectors due to tourists coming to the destination and indirect contact with the community or tourist establishment or attraction. Possible opportunities, interaction between the host community and tourist could be generated. Thirdly: the poor possess assets like natural and cultural capital, the environmental or inherent resources (wildlife, scenery, culture) available on which tourism is dependent. Fourthly: tourism is labour intensive and, finally, a larger share of tourism benefits go to women in comparison to other modern sectors (Roe & Urquhart, 2001:1-2, Ashley; Roe & Goodwin, 2001:12).

Considerations and investigation into certain characteristics of tourism that enhance poverty alleviation should be considered (Atkins, 2008:17). Some of these

characteristics are advantageous and others are not. The advantages as itemised in tourism and poverty alleviation by WTO, 2002, is:

- Tourism is consumed at the point of production. This increases opportunities for individuals and micro-enterprises to sell directly to consumer.
- The restriction of access to global markets is not applicable for tourism, as is the case with many traditional sectors in developing countries.
- Tourism depends, not only on human, financial, production capital, but relies also on natural and cultural capital, mostly owned by the poor.
- Tourism is labour-intensive providing the poor, who have large labour reserves, with opportunities.
- Diversity in tourism is a major drive and source for resources, providing wider participation possibilities.
- Women benefit in terms of possibilities to find employment through tourism.
- Tourism directly answers to poverty reduction goals:
 - o Unlocks opportunities for formal and informal employment and economic pro-poor growth.
 - o Locally-owned businesses benefit through profits and income.
 - o Increasing access to infrastructure and access for the poor to the infrastructure.
 - o Provides an opportunity to increase participation of the local communities in decision making on their assets.
 - o Reduces vulnerability by providing diverse income opportunities.
 - o Encourages environmental protection as human and natural environment are bases of tourism development.

Figure 2.2 illustrates numerous ways that 'tourism can contribute to the development challenge involved in poverty reduction' (Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership, 2004:2).

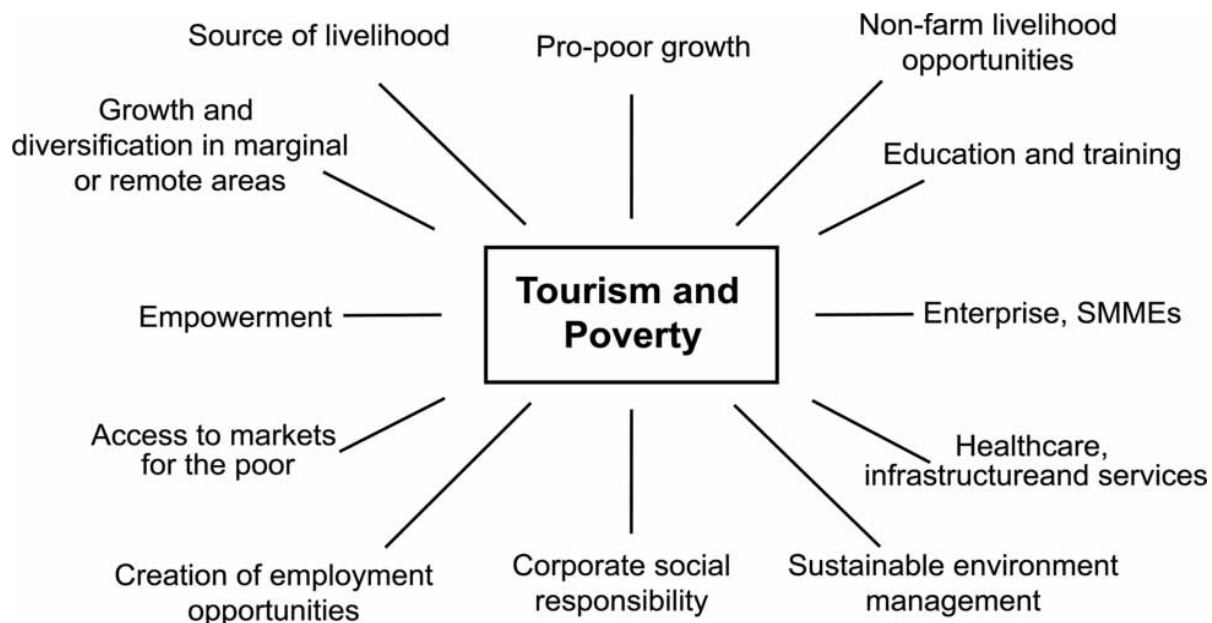


Figure 2.2: Tourism and poverty reduction.

Source: Modified after Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership (2004:2)

However, with all advantages come disadvantages. It is important to understand these disadvantages in creating local level strategies for pro-poor tourism development, mainly due to the negative impacts of tourism which are sometimes based on factors causing poverty. Some disadvantages are:

- Tourism can create high levels of foreign ownership which can lead to high levels of economic leakage and minimise local economic benefits. However, it must be recognised that this is no different from many other industrial sectors (Roe, Ashley, Page & Meyer, 2004:13).
- Tourism can inflict high levels of non-economic costs on the poor, e.g. loss of access to resources, like the ocean, land, increased prices (Beeton, 2006:202; Spenceley & Batey, 2011:4).
- Tourism is exposed to economic, social and political changes at the destination.

Tourism has three great attractions for poverty practitioners. Firstly, it is an important fragment of the economy in poor countries. Secondly, the prospect for long-term growth appears relatively strong and, thirdly, under certain conditions tourism may benefit the poor noticeably. There are numerous strategies that can boost these benefits to the poor such as: (Ashley *et al.*, 2001:1).

- Putting poverty matters on the tourism agenda.
- Enhancing economic opportunities and impacts that address the barriers to economic involvement that poor people face and incorporating the broader fears of the poor into decision making.
- Using a multi-level approach taken at three different levels i.e. destination level, national policy level and international level.
- Working through partnerships including business.
- Incorporating PPT approaches into mainstream tourism and not relegating them to niche markets like eco- or community tourism only.
- Reforming decision-making systems allowing local livelihood priorities to influence tourism development.

Goodwin (2006a:12) observes that the need to measure interventions and reports of tourism impacts on poverty is crucial. Focus has been on the strategies that can help to expand impact on the poor and not measuring the impact. Thus, the absence of quantification of impacts is certainly accepted as a flaw in the pro-poor tourism literature. Nevertheless, it is clear that tourism can act as a mechanism to reduce poverty but that its full potential to address this problem has not been investigated.

2.7 THE POVERTY AGENDA – CENTRE STAGE

The international agenda for the twenty-first century was set by 191 member states of the UN with a set of eight goals. These millennium goals brought poverty to the

forefront with an overall target “to halve the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day by 2015”.

Table 2.1: Millennium goals

Unit Nations Millennium goals (MDGs)	
1.	Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2.	Achieve universal primary education
3.	Promote gender equality and empower women
4.	Reduce child mortality
5.	Improve maternal health
6.	Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7.	Ensure environmental sustainability
8.	Develop a global partnership for development

Source: UNWTO, 2007.1)

This was a call on developing countries to adopt poverty reduction policies, on donor countries to support this with resources and trade opportunities and on all to place these objectives at the heart of all decision making. The World Tourism Organisation claims that increasing tourism will help the “war on poverty” and endorsed the MDGs (UNWTO, 2007:1).

National governments in developing countries in Africa include a reference to encouraging tourism in 80% of African Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Gerosa, 2003:42) since mechanism for poverty reduction is a by-product because the main focus is on tourism as driver for economic growth.

Gerosa (2003:8) indicates that certain unresolved issues still obstruct the path towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals:

- Although in decline, a painfully penalising debt burden.

- Production and management systems' performance gap.
- Political insecurity and social turmoil and conflicts.
- HIV/AIDS pandemic and its effects.
- Population affliction by means of insufficient levels of education, high fertility rates and poor status of health.
- Exacerbation of inequality by means of gender and ethnic groupings.
- Declining terms of trade and weakening of international prices for primary commodities exported.
- Bad resource management and lack of technological progress as well as the infrequent growth in productivity causing an insufficient growth of per capita income.

The increasing role of tourism in alleviating poverty is recognised by numerous organisations. The UN Commission on Sustainable Development in 1999 urged government "to maximise the potential of tourism for eradicating poverty by developing appropriate strategies in co-operation with all major groups, indigenous and local communities" (UN, 1999:1).

With the UN declaring 2002 as International Year of Ecotourism and the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, special reference was made to tourism and the role it can play in sustainable development in order to benefit deprived and local communities. Ways in which tourism can support sustainable development were underlined in the Quebec Declaration on Ecotourism.

This challenge was the motivation for the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) to prioritise the needs of the world's poorest nations, especially in Africa. Aggregate universal recognition of tourism as a potential vehicle to alleviate poverty was emphasised by the endorsed introduction of the "Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty" (ST-EP) initiative by the WTO and UNCTAD during the WSSD in Johannesburg, South Africa (WTO/UNCTAD, 2002:2). In the WTO approach, three

initiatives formed the central link of their strategic framework to link its actions on poverty, fair trade and sustainability.

- The Global Code of Ethics for Tourism
- An approach to world trade agreements
- The Sustainable Tourism – Elimination of Poverty (ST~EP) initiative.

Including poverty, the global sustainable development issues are recognised by the private sector and influence their agenda and are progressively, additionally being reflected in the tourism industry. Corporate social responsibility, fair trade and the global reporting initiative are just some of the private sector's responses to this dilemma.

The development of Sub-Saharan Africa is not on a trajectory to attain the MDG for poverty reduction (Ravallion, Chen & Sangraula, 2008:24, Chen & Ravallion, 2008:25). If Government and Donors do not commit over the next five years the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) will not be achieved in Mozambique (African Economic Outlook, 2012:2).

2.8 THE EFFECTS OF TOURISM ON THE POOR

To be converted into an effective poverty reduction tool, (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:26) and provide a mechanism to redistribute wealth from the rich to the poor (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012:299) a paradigm shift is needed regarding the practice of tourism, the nature of the policies, practices and the plans that are used in tourism to guarantee that the poor benefit from tourism development.

In the developing world, governments need to balance growth with other factors and priorities as well as foreign investments. This may comprise widespread sharing of benefits of development and local control over the nature of development. This would require difficult trade-offs (Scheyvens & Russell, 2012:432). GDP contributions by companies that deal directly with tourists and their needs are only one factor in the

equation that is tourism spending in any given country. The equation also includes indirect and induced spending or contributions (WTTC, 2012:2).

The likely impacts of tourism on local communities and especially the creation of livelihoods has been intensively researched (Scoones, 1998:9; Castro, 2002:2; Cooke & Mahon & McConney, 2007:46; Shen, 2009:253-257; Wuleka, 2009:34-37; Simpson, 2009:189-191; Tao & Wall, 2009:90-97; Mosha, 2011:60-64; ILO, 2011:10-15; Hussian & Barthwal & Badola & Rahman & Rastogi & Tuboi & Bhardwaj, 2012:68; Snyman, 2012:395). Telfer (2002:121) indicates that, “tourism has the potential to generate growth and development but it can also enhance inequalities if only the local elite benefit”.

In Figure 2.3 the direct, indirect and induced contributions of the World Tourism and Travel are summarised.



Figure 2.3: WTTC Summary of Tourism and Travel contribution

Source: WTTC (2013: 2)

Touching the lives of the poor could be divided into direct, indirect and dynamic effects on the poor and their lives (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:22). This could be through the involvement of small, medium and microenterprises (SMMEs), improved infrastructure, telecommunications or contact with the outside world and training (Atkins, 2008:448).

2.8.1 Direct effects of tourism on the poor

Direct financial benefits from tourism occur when poor people receive money as a result of involvement in the tourism sector. These benefits could be separated into labour income and non-labour income. Labour earnings are wages received from formal employment or incomes from informal sector activities. Tourism is a promising growth sector for Mozambique that can expand employment and stimulate other sectors (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:1).

Table 2.2: Direct benefits associated with tourism as an economic sector include:

- **Income** – a variety of services and goods is needed to satisfy the need and want of tourist as consumer.
- **Employment** – tourism is a labour intensive sector that incorporates all levels of skills, providing a multiplying effect.
- **Conservation** – enhance protection of environment, resource and cultural.
- **Investment** – possibilities to generate investments and development.
- **Infrastructure** – provide infrastructure that could be used by all.
- **Prestige** – creating a must visit on consumer list.
- **Creation of small businesses** – tourism is interconnected directly and indirectly to a diversity of economic sectors.
- **Less desirable impacts** can also be a consequence from tourism development. These consist of:
 - **Social impacts** – transforming standards of living consequential from migration of workers and culturally from amplification of crime rates and even prostitution, etc.
 - **Environmental impacts** – reckless project development, as well as an invasion of tourists within a sensitive environment, could demolish the natural resource foundation that sustains tourism.
 - **Leakages** – the incidence of outbound monetary flows, consequential from the import of goods and services, foreign ownership of tourism establishments, international endorsement and advertising, commissions to foreign sales agents and travel agencies, wages of foreign employees, repatriation of profits etc., signify a loss of contribution to the economy by means of an outflow of money from the country.
 - **Over-reliance** – tourism is unpredictable and responds rapidly to negative effects, such as natural disasters, political strife, terrorist attacks etc.

Source: Tourism Policy and Implementation Strategy (SPDTM) (2004:12)

Income for communities such as royalties or equity, leases or benefits through philanthropy in the tourism sector are classified as non-labour income (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:22). SNV and DPTUR see mainstream tourism as the starting point for development to benefit the local population with direct income and access to basic services (ACUDES, 2007:2). Direct contributions refer to hotels, travel information services and all forms of passenger transport that cater to tourists. This will include peripheral activities such as restaurants, spas, leisure and sport activities that deal directly with tourists. Direct contributions to the GDP are changes regarding production that are instantly affected by changes in tourism spending (WTTC, 2012:2). A fine example is an increase in sales in the accommodation sector due to the influx of tourists for a popular festival.

A range of direct livelihood impacts also occur without a financial transaction from tourism on poor people. For example, tourism beach development may obstruct local fishermen from accessing the sea which is their main livelihood (Goodwin, 2006:7). Poor people may learn skills when participating in tourism that can boost their livelihoods in other ways, like acquiring a new skill or knowledge (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:23).

Tourism can have various effects on communities, especially poor communities. Generating jobs for young people, bringing 'new' money into town, and sustaining present services, improving infrastructure, increase local pride, promoting conservation and preservation and increasing the number of recreational opportunities in the town (Beeton, 2006:224).

The emphasis from a destination's perspective will be on the economic effects of tourism. Three focus areas are as follows; firstly an enormous amount of literature concentrating on anthropological, social and environmental impacts of tourism already exists (Hummel, Gujadhur & Ritsma, 2013; Saayman, Rossouw & Krugell, 2012; Steinicke & Neuburger, 2012; Blake, Lejarraga & Walkenhort, 2010; Arbache, Sinclair &

Teles, 2009; Ashley & Mitchell, 2009; Fayissa, Nsiah & Tadasse, 2007; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006; Krause, 2005; Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, 2004; Spenceley & Seif, 2003; Mbaiwa, 2002; Ashley, 2000; Gormsen, 1997). Secondly, economic literature exploring the link between tourism and poverty is dispersed among an assortment of approaches and uses diverse research methods and scales of analysis (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012; Scheyvens & Russel, 2012; ILP, 2011; Mithell & Asheley, 2010; Scheyvens, 2010; Redman, 2009; Chok, Macbeth & Warren, 2007; Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, 2004). The last focus is the economic consequences of tourism on the poor and is the most serious challenge facing development (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:2).

In the economy, tourism can be viewed as satisfying multiple roles. Tourism generates income which can positively impact on the GDP of a country (Keyser, 2009:306). In calculation, tourism plays a role in the redeployment of economic resources, assisting to diversify economies. It often has a consequence on the growth of new tourism businesses which are established in an area and which shows the accumulation effect.

In the case of Mozambique, a baseline study carried out on the Inhambane area shows a major demand for sun, sand and a supply of seafood, contributing 19% of the total value of food & beverage sales (ACUDES, 2007:16). Seafood sales are customarily directly to the tourist establishments or the tourist themselves (ACUDES, 2007:17). This illustrates perfectly the direct impact of tourism on the poor as most fishermen catch at a subsistence level only and not as a sustainable commercial venture. The two objectives highlighted are the aggregate economic contribution and potential of the sector that was grounded on a new social accounting matrix (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2007:10) and a case study on the local economic impacts of tourism on Praia de Bilene, a tourist resort located in the south of the country (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2007:17-18). The Inhambane baseline study disclosed that tourism operators indicated that only through direct employment can the local economy be impacted. Nevertheless approximately 80% of the permanently employed are still working for minimum wages (ACUDES, 2007:32).

About 50% of women that are employed and earning an income makes a direct contribution to the well-being of households (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:36). Tourism could contribute to micro-entrepreneurship through the informal and formal economies. Traditional skills amongst women are encouraged which provide them a sense of empowerment and aptitude to participate in decision making (Scheyvens, 2000:236).

Tourism wages, labour markets and working environments differ immensely by region. Tourism creates a highly vulnerable and exploited workforce (Weru, 2007:21) and direct benefits are severely restricted as a consequence of various reasons (Sarmiento, 2007:41).

Tourism is justifiably pro-poor due to being more labour intensive than other sectors and through using mostly semi-skilled and unskilled labour (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:39).

2.8.2 Secondary (indirect) effects of tourism on the poor

Direct impacts of tourism have many secondary effects (indirect and induced effects). It is striking to note that most of them are not economic but rather social. Keyser (2009:27) reflects on these impacts and derives the hypothesis that environmental and social sustainability is vital for the success of any tourism destination.

Indirect contributions are determined by three factors. These are capital investments done on specific tourist assets i.e. visitor centres, tourist accommodation, restaurants, transport equipment etc., government spend in support of tourism including visitor information, marketing, administrative and other public services and, lastly, the supply-chain contributions represented by the various tourism businesses that make up the travel sector. It includes all their purchases of domestic goods and services to produce their individual products (WTTC, 2012:2). Indirect benefits are conceptualised as supply chain linkages such as retail, street vendors and food sales to restaurants. Changes in tourism spending impacting on the non-tourism economy is an indirect effect e.g. direct tourism receipts re-funnelled as investments or expenditure in the domestic market.

If employees from the tourism industry spend their remuneration locally, it is perceived as 'induced' effects and is creating supplementary income for the poor (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:23). Indirect contributions can also be explained by way of the effect that changes in production of the tourism industry will have on business linked to tourism. This might be explained by regarding the impact a decrease in hotel nights might have on the sales of the in-house restaurant, the rearward impact of a decrease on spending on supplies from the butcher, the baker and the fruit and vegetable merchant (WTTC, 2012:2).

Mitchell and Ashley stated (2010:23) that "livelihood effects that are indirectly caused by the impact of tourist activity on the non-tourism economy can be significant" A result of ecotourism operations indicate that household income, number of people and the social welfare impacts analysis are moving rural communities towards participation in the economic market (Snyman, 2012:395). General non-economic factors contain aspects like community participation in decision making, tourism planning and development, training, skills and learning (Liu, Qu, Huang, Sun & Zhao, 2011:3-4).

Specific non-economic benefits indicated by Spenceley and Batey (2011:4) in the economic case for tourism in Mozambique.

- Distributing tourism benefits to adjoining communities i.e. clean water, electricity.
- Human resource development – on the job training.
- Health services – resort clinics and communication to access health services.
- Physical capital – access to roads and infrastructure first provided for tourism but accessible to local population.
- Donations for community welfare – community centres, schools and churches.
- Social capital – community services that mobilise the local population.
- Improvements to natural capital – by tourism businesses specialising in eco-tourism or conservation done to attract and extend the local tourist market.

- Influence in policy-making through community involvement.
- Access to markets and new income opportunities.
- Enhanced traditional values.
- Newly accessible information.
- Empowerment increases local optimism, pride and participation.
- Support for traditional cultural elements – singing, dancing and festivals.
- Support for the environment and conservation thereof.
- Physical security – provided for tourists but also spiralling down to the local populace.

Government taxation on the tourism industry also provides for the investment in infrastructure such as schools, clinics, roads and security (Spenceley, 2010:4). Supporting businesses may make their own investments due to an expanding local economy because of tourism i.e. supermarkets increasing floor space or a bank opening a local branch.

Secondary or indirect effects of tourism are more complex and entail a wider stakeholder base which results in more complex calculations of impacts and benefits.

2.8.3 Dynamic effects

The last pathway is the dynamic or induced effects in the economy and growth trajectories. These dynamic effects are less tangible than pathways 1 and 2, direct and indirect effects. The impact of tourism and the structure of the wider economy influences tourism development which has important impacts on the markets and public goods, and this has broader opportunities faced by the poor (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:24).

Induced contributions are defined as the domestic spending by those employed in the tourism industry either directly, like waiters, travel agents, hotel personnel, or indirectly such as personnel at the wholesaler supplying the hotel and restaurant.

This spending may stretch from food, accommodation, insurance and leisure activities, to transport and schooling. The possibilities are exhaustive. These induced effects are the changes made to economic activity by people spending wages and salaries that are directly or indirectly supported by tourism activities (WTTC, 2012:2). Important as they may be, they may either strengthen or weaken the positive impacts of tourism on the poor people well beyond the borders of the tourist destinations.

Tourism may improve human resources by enabling women's incorporation into the economic systems, technical transformation, infrastructure and economic diversification that will be responsible for a positive spill over for the poor in other benefits in other sectors (Lejarraga & Walkenhorst, 2006:248).

Certain dynamic effects, like changes in the exchange rate, will upset the whole economy. It could have a negative effect on many poor households who might never see a tourist (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:24).

There are a number of networks through which the tourism industry can affect the rest of the economy in the long term. Human resource development, relationships amongst sectors, infrastructure, social and public goods, the private sector development and paths of long-term development (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:87).

Benefits to the rural poor can be spread from the tourism sector growth with the assistance of enhanced infrastructure (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:88). Tourism can enhance human resource development with the focus and investment in training households. Impacts that are concentrated might be observed in terms of the manner in which tourism affects the local economic development.

2.9 PRO-POOR TOURISM: A POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGY?

The main goal of the development aid agenda since the start of the new millennium has been to alleviate poverty. Since tourism walks hand in hand with this agenda, pro-poor tourism was developed as a tool for the tourism industry to assist in poverty reduction.

Ashely and Roe (2007:80) concluded that: "Pro-poor tourism evolved and is defined as tourism that generates a net benefit for the poor". Different interventions could be valuable ways to instigate pro-poor tourism. Pro-poor Tourism's focal point is generating benefits for the local communities, for instance addressing negative social and environmental impacts and expanding business and employment opportunities (Ashely & Roe, 2002:62).

Tourism benefits could be direct, indirect or induced, containing economic, social, environmental or cultural impacts. If the poor benefit, it is seen as pro-poor, which leaves the question, "How much do they benefit?" The pro-poor tourism definition does not indicate a measure, so it does not give a clear impact on the livelihood of the poor. Pro-poor growth is defined as "one that enables the poor to actively participate in and significantly benefit from economic activity" (Kakwani & Pernia, 2001:3).

"Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) is not a specific product or sector of tourism, but an approach. PPT strategies aim to unlock opportunities for the poor – whether for economic gain, other livelihood benefits or participation in decision making" (Ashley *et al.*, 2001:2; Goodwin, 2000:13).

The main goal of PPT is poverty reduction, thus differentiating PPT from other forms of concepts of tourism (Ashley *et al.*, 2001:2). Tourism can only be pro-poor if it provides, firstly, economic gain through job creation or business opportunities. Secondly, if livelihood benefits like access to markets, proper water, roads, education and health are unlocked, and thirdly, participation of the poor in decision making affecting their livelihood (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:3).

Economic gain and livelihood benefits are considered the fruits of a trickle-down philosophy where the economic benefits reach down through the layers of service providers and eventually reach even the most menial worker through wages or the building of new access roads, reticulation systems, schools and health facilities. By its very definition it intimates that the poor will receive the last dregs of the economic cup thus it will be agreed that this approach is not ideal and not delivering to the poor as needed (Goodwin, 2008:870; Scheyvens, 2007:239) failing (Schilcher, 2007:172).

The participation of the poor in the decision making affecting their livelihood however increases the probability of a more direct injection of economic welfare and thus is called the bottom-up approach, alluding to the first to receive benefits (Agrusa, Coats & Donlon, 2003:122; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007:136).

Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001:1-2) highlighted: “but tourism, as an unstoppable phenomenon, is one of the largest and constantly growing industries and has had a certain impact on the economies and livelihoods in the developing world. It can bring growth to the poor because, amongst other things, it is a labour intensive industry and the poor often live amongst natural resources which offer a high tourism potential”. Therefore, the extreme prominence of continued research needs to be accentuated, to determine whether Pro-poor Tourism (PPT) is, in fact, a worthwhile solution and comprises possible success potential as a development aid tool and poverty reduction method. Tourism has the prospect of being the centre to a genre of ‘pro-poor growth’.

Enhancing the many positive impacts and reducing the cost it has on the poor is the principal aim and major challenge of pro-poor strategies. Tourism has often been seen a panacea in the South African context - a “new gold” after export earnings surpassed that of gold export (Rogerson, 2006:46). The potential is there waiting to be unlocked so that the poor receive a real benefit, which is the dream. Pro-poor tourism is rather an approach for tourism development that may be relevant to all forms of tourism.

Tourism can bring instant economic benefits to the poor but is not always in the long stretch a solution to poverty reduction. It is suggested that tourism can contribute to poverty alleviation if government policy, laws, a pledge of all stakeholders and the continuing health of the tourism sector, are all in place to make pro-poor ingenuities successful in tourism. Poverty alleviation schemes should be implemented and devised by the destinations themselves.

Pro-poor potential has great advantages in this diverse industry and it increases the opportunity for wide participation, include participation of the informal sectors (Roe & Urquhart, 2001:1; Ashley & Roe, 2002:77). Emphasis on 'the poor' often interprets in practice to an emphasis on indigenous people or the 'community'. Pro poor tourism is still contested and misunderstood. Reservations linger over the potential of tourism to create long time sustainable benefits to the poor (Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010:159).

2.9.1 Approaches to pro-poor tourism

Pro-poor is an approach for doing business, it involves numerous stakeholders or interested parties, functions, plans, strategies and actions on micro and macro level to be focused on not just letting breadcrumbs fall to the poor but to involve, benefit and eradicate poverty for the poor.

The trickle-down effect of doing business has not shown the desired effects that the poor really benefit (Scheyvens, 2007:239) so the new approach of bottom-up is being promoted. The bottom-up approach permits the local people to be actively involved in the planning process of tourism initiatives and the decision-making process. This approach puts the individual's and community's needs first (Agrusa, Coats & Donlon, 2003:122). The intention is to expand tourism while also getting increased participation and "*tilting the benefits to the poor*" (Ashley *et al.*, 2001:11).

The poor can benefit from tourism via:	Areas of government intervention to consider:	
Direct participation:	Direct	Indirect
Employment in tourism businesses	Promoting employment opportunities, conditions, and hospitality skills of the poor	Influencing private sector behaviour
Supplying goods and services to hotels, restaurants, other businesses	Helping poor suppliers (ptic farmers) enter the supply chain	Facilitating destination-level linkages
Providing goods and services directly to tourists: • Informal sector • Small enterprise • Community enterprise	Enabling poor entrepreneurs to operate tourism businesses including: • MSEs, informal sector • Community tourism • artisans/craft	Developing tourism products and segments well-served by the poor
Operating a business through a joint venture with an investor	Creating incentives for private sector – community partnerships	
Other economic gains:		
Receipt of fees, expenditure of government revenue	Sharing revenues and taxes with local people	
Receipt of tourist donations		Facilitating destination-level linkages
Non-financial gains/costs		
Development of local infrastructure and services	Maximising benefits to local people from tourism infrastructure and services	Facilitating destination-level linkages
Natural resource use/degradation/enhancement	Managing trade-offs between residents and tourists over resources	Influencing private sector behaviour
Cultural change	Managing cultural disruption	
Empowerment via participation in decision-making	Enabling participation by the poor in policy-making	

Figure 2.4: Benefits to the poor and areas of government intervention

Source: SNV (2007:13)

To completely measure the pro-poor growth, and the potential of tourism, it is compulsory for countries to go past the economic benefits and the socio-cultural impacts of the tourism industry. It needs to pay attention to people's livelihoods, the distribution, and the impact on tourism policy construction. A pro-poor growth strategy in which economic growth is joined with inequality reductions is essential for poverty reduction (Kakwani & Pernia, 2001:3; Gerosa, 2003:2). The great potential of tourism is clearly evident for the purposes of poverty reduction. Creating robust backward linkages to the economy tourism can be pro-poor (Mitchell *et al.*, 2007:15).

It is considered by some that Pro-Poor Tourism has a negative connotation. Because of this confusion, many have developed different terms when speaking about poverty alleviation in tourism (Beeton, 2006:205). The UNWTO has a more acceptable term; “Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty” (ST~EP). Regardless of the terminology, the aim in reducing/alleviating poverty is the same (Beeton, 2006:205).

PPT moved beyond the “trickle-down” theory to an approach planned to expose opportunities for the poor (Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, 2004:3). Moving beyond the “trickle-down” pro-poor tourism is often referred to as interventions unlocking opportunities for the poor. The fundamental emphasis is to unlock opportunities for the poor through the emphasis on poverty alleviation and mutually the PPT and ST~EP are addressing the theme (Shen, Hughey & Simmons, 2008:22).

The most distinguishing feature of pro-poor tourism is that it sets poor people and poverty at the core (Roe & Urquhart, 2001:5).

2.9.2 Implementation of pro-poor tourism strategies

The main focus of strategies for PP emphasises three fundamental areas: increased economic benefits, positive non-economic impacts, and policy/process reform. Overlapping of strategies often can be identified in each of the three distinct areas. Ashley *et al.*, (2001:11) summarises the strategies used in a few case studies in Southern Africa.

I. Strategies to enhance economic advantages

- i. Developing business prospects for the disadvantaged: informal micro businesses are often the greatest chance of economic upliftment for the poor.
- ii. Developing labour prospects for the disadvantaged: although employment as unskilled labour is shunned by global standards due to its limitations of scope and earning capacity, it is popular with the poor.

iii. Increasing communal benefits: tourism can be a new source of communal income stretching much further than the benefits garnered by the direct earners only.

II. Strategies to enhance non-economic effects

i. Enhancing skills and knowledge: the lack of formal education and/or training impedes impoverished people's chances of profiting by the prospects presented by tourism.

ii. Minimising the environmental effect of tourism on the disadvantaged: tourism can cause displacement of people from their ancestral land, have a detrimental impact on natural resources or even depopulate a region.

iii. Directing attention to the social and cultural effects of tourism: tourism impacts on the local community and the poor by imposing foreign standards and manners on the locals e.g. Photography, skimpy clothing, over tipping and sex tourism. Health care may be impacted by imported diseases and morals may deteriorate due to fraternising with tourists spending frivolously.

III. Strategies pertaining to reforming policies and processes

i. Constructing a mutually beneficial policy and planning framework: many government frameworks need to be adapted to accommodate both the foreign exchange generating capacity of tourism as well as the poverty alleviating potential.

ii. Increasing participation: the poor need to be included in the decision-making process to ensure addressing their particular needs.

iii. Private sector involvement in pro-poor investments: the private sector has many advantages it can bestow on indigenously owned enterprises e.g. Development of skills, commercial acumen and networking opportunities

2.10 POVERTY INDICATORS

Although there are many alternative measures of poverty, the World Bank uses three basic ones more commonly than others (World Bank, 2011:1). These are measured against a poverty line which is a cut-off point between those that are poor and those that are not considered poor. Both the poverty measures and the poverty line can be monetary or non-monetary measures although the use of income and consumption are more prevalent. The World Bank (2011:1) measures of poverty consist of:

- **Incidence of poverty** (headcount index) – this measures the share of the population that lives beneath the poverty line either through income or consumption.
- **Depth of poverty** (poverty gap) – This is used to measure how far from the poverty line the individual households are.
- **Poverty severity** (squared poverty gap) – This accounts not only for the distance from the poverty line but also for the level of inequality amongst the poor by giving more weight to those further away from the poverty line.

The required magnitude of linkages and leakages is subject to country-specific conditions. Governments ought to target additional intensive linkages among the overall economy and specific the tourism sector. Countries that are globally competitive producers of the services and goods obtained by the tourism economy could reduce the leakages and increase the welfare (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2008:421).

Simon Maxwell, the director of the Overseas Development Institute (ODI, 1999:1) highlights certain challenges regarding the poverty debate. One being that the meaning of poverty is different to each institution. The debate on measurement of deprivations and poverty and the tendency to simplify the indicators, is a highly influential factor. The standardisation and quantification of targets and measuring instruments could distort the real picture. Arguments that international agencies want a universal tool to measure

poverty, over-simplification like the US\$1.25 per day poverty line can risk a skewed reflection. Secondly, poverty in each country is diverse and complex and anybody attempting to measure poverty needs to collect a wide range of data from conventional and participatory sources. Thirdly, the uses of different indicators have a different and corresponding nature to planning and identification of poverty. Fourthly, planning for poverty reduction is to achieve an exchange between the local complexity and measurability, which require a standard. Lastly, the causes of poverty need to be understood, why it occurs, so that not just symptoms are considered (ODI, 1999:1). Poverty, hunger and food prices are intimately linked. Hunger is often baptised the most severe and critical indicator of poverty. “Not every poor person is hungry, but most hungry people are poor” (The Hunger Project (THP), 2012:1).

It has long been felt that it is necessary to expand the definition of poverty onto a more multi-dimensional plane by considering more non-monetary inputs. The multi-dimensional poverty index (MPI) was published in 2010 for the first time by the United Nations development program. It included deprivations that cannot be monetised to overlap with the monetary indicators thereby giving a more in-depth look at the amount of deprivation normally suffered by poor people.

Multidimensional poverty indicators are divided into three major dimensions - education, health and living standards (OPHI, 2011:3). These are sub-divided into:

- **Health** – nutrition and child mortality
- **Education** – children enrolled and years of schooling
- **Living standards** – assets, type of floors, electricity, water, sanitation facilities and cooking fuel.

Table 2.3: Multidimensional Poverty Index

Inside the MPI: 3 dimensions and 10 indicators	
Education (each indicator is weighted equally at 1/6)	
Years of Schooling:	deprived if no household member has completed five years of schooling
School Attendance:	deprived if any school-aged child is not attending school in years 1 to 8
Health (each indicator is weighted equally at 1/6)	
Child Mortality:	deprived if any child has died in the family
Nutrition:	deprived if any adult or child for whom there is nutritional information is malnourished
Living standards (each indicator is weighted equally at 1/18)	
Electricity:	deprived if the household has no electricity
Drinking Water:	deprived if the household lacks access to clean drinking water or clean water is more than a 30-minute walk from home roundtrip.
Sanitation:	deprived if they do not have adequate sanitation or their toilet is shared
Flooring:	deprived if the household has a dirt, sand or dung floor
Cooking Fuel:	deprived if the household cooks with wood, charcoal or dung
Assets:	deprived if the household does not own more than one of: radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike, or refrigerator and does not own a car or tractor
Who is poor? A person is identified as multidimensionally poor if he or she is deprived in one third or more of the dimensions.	

Source OPHI (2011: 3)

Xiaoyun & Remenyi (2008:602) using a participatory poverty index (PPI) found there to be three main types of poverty subdivided into eight indicators:

1. Livelihood poverty

- Cash receipts per person per year
- Grain production per person per year
- Quality of housing (roof and exterior walls) % brick

2. Infrastructure poverty

- Days without access to all-weather roads
- Days with interrupted electricity supply
- Access to good quality drinking water, hours spent to collect it.

3. Human resource poverty

- Days lost to illness, females > 12 years
- Eligible children in school %

Engaging poor locals in the process of mapping poverty by getting their input in the relative weighting and quantifying of each indicator allows researchers to assemble an overall view of poverty as experienced by the people themselves. This process enables the researcher to construct a participatory poverty index (PPI) allowing the comparison of poverty between villages as well as larger communities (Xiaoyun & Remenyi, 2008:602).

The data provided by each poverty indicator gives a view of what needs to change in reality for the poor to feel less so. Providing us with a picture of a person's or community's poverty status, the question of how to assess or measure it remains.

2.11 VARIETY OF METHODS FOR ASSESSING THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM ON POVERTY

Quantifying the impacts of tourism has been the most problematic area in tourism initiatives and the impact it has on the local livelihood and communities (Simpson, 2009:187). More applicable research is required, according to Zhao and Ritchie (2007:119) since the data is fragmented, inadequate in scope and lacks a reliable methodological advance.

The current income and expenditure on consumption are the most extensively used measure of economic welfare. Both these are derived from the sample surveys of households. Efforts to truly measure the effects of tourism on the poor concentrated on the micro level, such as a business, lodge and resort or associated enterprises in a single community. Examples of such studies include Halstead (2003), Murphy and Halstead (2003), Clauzel (2005), McNab (2005) and Hainsworth (2006). Development agencies, governments and non-governmental organisations (NGO) begin with the

assumption that tourism can improve the income and livelihoods of the poor (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012:297). The approaches fluctuate but are usually a mixture of sustainable livelihoods analysis (SLA) that includes micro-economic analysis of enterprise operations like profits, revenues, wages, and non-financial impacts on how people live (Ashley, 2000:4). These studies emphasise the manner in which the share of direct benefits to the poor can be enhanced, there is little or no contemplation of the broader development of tourism or other kinds of economic impacts (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:15). Methods vary but include non-financial impacts on how people live and revenues, wages profits etc. (micro-economic analysis of enterprise operations).

Frequently tourism is measured by looking at the direct, indirect or induced spending by means of a multiplier effect to estimate the tourism expenditures. International arrivals, bed occupancy, length of stay, value of tourism spending and tourism expenditures are seen as tourism growth (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:2). None of these measures make available the scale of the impact on the poor. The assumptions have remained that tourism development will eventually benefit the poor through the “trickle-down” effect. Tourism provides employment to those in lower social and economic classes, but evidence indicates that, especially LDCs, tourism benefits and enriches the local elites, big corporate international businesses, which produce low status and low paying employment. Increased cost of living for the local populations and damage to environmental resources, social, cultural traditions and lifestyles could be amplified by poor tourism planning and management (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:2). It must be recognised that economic growth may not always result in the inevitable reduction of poverty but it can only be reached with an explicit and intensive determination to raise the welfare or well-being of the poor.

Trying to measure the benefits of tourism to the poor, it is necessary to move past the different poverty lines, the language of multipliers or the “trickle-down theory, to identify precise benefits to the poor and the quantity of these benefits. This would rely on reporting on specific impacts and benefits. A good example here would be the cultural bomas in the Ngorogoro crater. The majority of indigenous Masai people depend on

livestock farming for their livelihoods. A boma leader indicated that the earnings received from the bomas have empowered the locals to buy livestock, pay for tuition and school uniforms for their children (Masha, 2011:52).

To complicate it even more, some benefits are not specifically financial or are difficult to translate into financial terms. The Community Development Department and the Masai Pastoral Council take responsibility for all issues related to the indigenous Masai's livelihoods. Amongst these issues are community food security, environmental education and schooling. Although benefits will accrue to the Masai they are very difficult to quantify (Masha, 2011:23). The use of auditable quantitative methods is required to assure the banks and development agencies of the tangible impact that tourism is making on poverty reduction.

Estimating the impact of changes in the tourist demand on the economy, researchers have joined the visitors' disbursements with input-output analysis (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:110). Input-output tables are based on nationally accrued accounts data and provide a quantifiable measure of description of the linkages between different sectors of the economy. It juxtaposes the number of additional units of output needed from each sector of the economy to satisfy the requirements of one extra unit of demand in a certain sector, i.e. the tourism sector. These tables have been used to calculate the impact of an escalation of the final demand in tourism on all the economically active sectors and therefore on the economy in its entirety. The effects of changes in tourist demand on the economy can be forecast using the input-output analysis in conjunction with visitor spending. An estimate can therefore be made of the contribution of both direct and indirect tourism to macro-economic accumulators such as output, incomes, jobs and sales. Estimates of multipliers can also be made based on the above. While estimating the size and breadth of linkages to non-tourist sectors of the economy can be helpful, it is more important for the policymakers to know how to increase the demand for tourism so as to create more and stronger linkages and spread their beneficial effects farther afield.

Tourism initiatives and how they impact on the livelihood and welfare of the poor need to be understood. Reporting of negative and positive impacts needs to be assessed and identified. Positive examples like job creation due to a tourism enterprise where only a few benefit going hand in hand with negative examples such as the whole community losing access to the beach for fishing or land for grazing their cattle (Clover, 2007:261-2).

The aggregate gap is used to combine the information on poverty indices and physical location of the poor. "distribution of the total poverty gap" is a measure that reveals how far people are below the poverty line and not only whether they are above or below the line. This is when there is a privation of resources for one's elementary consumption requirements (Simler & Nhate, 2005:1).

Poverty is not only about numerical measures of economic well-being or a lack of income but should also take into account the numerous social, cultural and political facets of poverty (Barber, 2008:1). Income alone cannot be used as an effective measure for poverty even though household income levels still remain the main source of measuring poverty (Chen & Ravillion, 2007:2). It has been disputed that uninformed poverty lines, used by the World Bank, do not provide or reflect an effective indicator of human requirements (Reddy & Pogge, 2005:23). Confirming this is the statistics given by using different measurement indicators and criteria, World Bank gives a figure of 48.5% poverty headcount ratio at US\$1.25 per day in 2010 in sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2014:1), while the MPI states that 64.5% of sub-Saharan Africa are living in multidimensional poverty, accessing that people are not always income poor if they live in MPI poverty (News 24, 2010:1).

It is extremely difficult to formulate a clear, reliable picture of the influence, impacts and benefits, directly and indirectly, on the poor and their communities. Administration in rural Africa is expensive, so the cost of ascertaining the number of poor where low population concentration and fragile administrative capacity is the order of the day is prohibitive (Simler & Nhate, 2005:ii).

To fully comprehend the link between tourism and poverty reduction, research needs to be carried out through a combination of quantitative and qualitative proportions. Studies have also extended further into a multi-disciplinary approach that mirrors the triple bottom line (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012:311).

2.11.1 Livelihood analysis

Questioning the contributions that tourism might make on the livelihood of the poor is a methodology called the livelihood analysis. An advantage of this methodology is that both the negative and the positive impact of a specific form of tourism on the livelihoods of the poor are analysed (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:15). It relates to the various household needs and how they affect the poor in their household strategies, much more than just economic statistics for direct cost and benefits. Intensification of the livelihood benefits is necessary to comprehend what people want and need and in which multi-various ways tourism influences or affects their livelihood. It acknowledges that not all household or individuals will experience similar negative and positive impacts due to their different household structure, needs, and subsistence activities, which cannot be easily converted into a cash value, to sustain themselves (Simpson, 2009:201). By what means the poor survive and make available for themselves goes beyond the economic, social or cultural securities or distributions.

Livelihood outcomes in a tourism livelihood system have a dual meaning, the one is to achieve sustainable livelihood objectives and the second one is to sustain tourism over the long term (Shen, 2009:252). To assess smaller scale, more rural and community based tourism activities, a livelihoods analysis approach is often used. The livelihoods analysis considers not only financial capital but also calculates other forms of capital (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:15).

It is important to appreciate the advantage of the livelihood analysis so as to capture the dynamic and non-financial impacts and to assess them in terms of priorities with regards to the poor themselves (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:126).

Livelihood strategies fluctuate between men and women. Optimising livelihood impacts for the poor has no single answer and will diverge and in most situations some will gain or lose more. Most individuals increase access to an array of assets which can be considered as any one of five types of 'capital' (Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:2).

Jamieson *et al.*, (2004:16) indicate five building blocks which can be considered as livelihood assets in a community:

- Financial capital – access to cash, savings or credit (Scoones, 1998:8).
- Human capital – skills base of a group or particular individuals (DFID, 1999:17).
- Natural and cultural capital – environmental or inherent resources available.
- Physical capital – buildings, machinery and equipment available.
- Social capital – strength of network and social cohesion of a group or community (DFID, 1999:19).

Discerning amongst the impacts of specific tourism initiatives is beneficial in these five classifications of the different capitals on the poor and their communities. It is extremely important to view the extent to which a community or the poor are vulnerable to external shocks and trends and seasonality. Possible examples of these external shocks are floods, drought, crime, increased or decreased numbers of tourists. Market trends, fashion and preferences could also impact on the livelihood assets of a community. Seasonality due to weather, seasons, harvesting, planting and tourism arrivals within a tourism industry could be severely influenced (Bolwell & Weinz, 2008:29; Truong, Hall & Garry, 2014:15).

Local communities or individuals will embrace different strategies to minimise the impact and vulnerability and to maximise the livelihood outcomes, like cash and subsistence income, amplified well-being, enhanced food security and sustainable usage of natural and cultural assets (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:16). Sustainable pro-poor tourism can be provided with a nurturing environment through a range of steps from decentralisation of power and the empowerment of local decision makers to better delivery of public

services supporting the private sector and the emergence of small scale local businesses (Sarmiento, 2007:53).

2.11.2 Sustainable livelihood framework for tourism

Chambers and Conway (1992:6) define sustainable livelihood as: “a livelihood comprises 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 can contribute net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term”.

They accentuate the importance of capabilities, with the important factor of distinguishing and recovering from potential stress and shocks which are vital in their viewing of sustainability. Thus not only the individuals’ or communities’ ability of existence and doing, but how they can absorb various shocks in life.

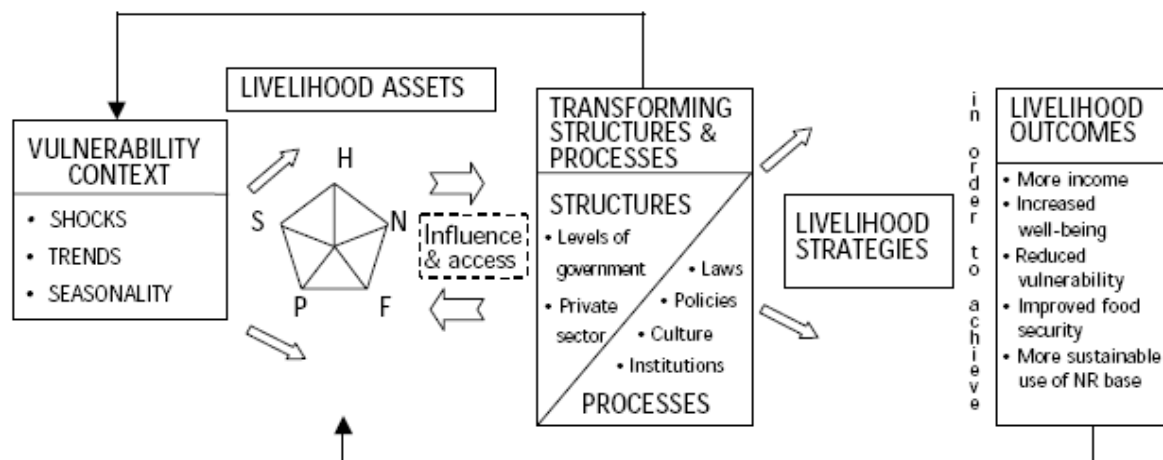


Figure 2.5: The DFID Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Source: DFID (1999:11)

The people-centred approach is strengthened by and based on five key aspects by the DFID framework discussed by Shen, Hughey & Simmons (2008:20-21).

(a) **Assets:** Assets are fundamental to the poor, and the livelihood assets are Natural, Physical, Social, Human, and Financial (DFID, 1999:2).

(b) **Transforming structures and processes:** Structures are hardware which comprises of public and private sectors, in the framework. Course consist of policy, laws, culture and institutions, and is more like software (DFID, 1999:4). Converting structures and processes perform significant parts in influencing livelihood assets and outcomes in the SL system.

(c) **Vulnerability context:** It comprises shocks, seasonality and trends, and is seen as a major aspect of livelihoods (DFID, 1999:6). Not all vulnerabilities are negative but it can harmfully affect the assets of the poor and their choice of livelihoods.

(d) **Outcomes:** Outcomes are a way of measuring livelihood sustainability and the scale of analysis is important. What accomplishments and objectives the livelihood strategies attain (Scoones, 1998:9).

(d) **Strategies:** Livelihood strategies are the actions employed to generate the resources of household survival. Several authors have reflected on different types of rural livelihood strategies. Scoones acknowledged three kinds of rural livelihood strategies, agricultural intensification or extensification, livelihood diversification, and migration (Scoones, 1998:9). Natural resource grounded activities and non-natural resource centred activities are the two categories that are recognised by Ellis (2000:321). Notwithstanding the effort of grouping the rural livelihoods under captions, the fact is that most emphasis is on primary industries, such as livestock, agriculture, forestry and timber harvest.

Sustainable livelihood analysis compromises a better understanding and holistic view and thinking of the complex nature of tourism and interrelated developmental issues against poverty (Ashley, Goodwin & Boyd, 2000:6; Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:26). The Sustainable Livelihoods approach fosters a more people-centred, pro-poor integrated coastal management (ICM) which enriches and complements the ICM, and can help to

conquer the breach amid sustainability rhetoric and the reality facing the poor coastal populations (Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:2).

Three gaps in which SLA and tourism have to be considered and viewed are:

- SLA should be view in the context of tourism
- The notion of sustainability, thus to reinforce the rural poor's proficiency and resilience in dealing with external shocks. Livelihood sustainability and tourism sustainability could be in direct conflict with each other. An example is the allocation of water rights for agriculture and preserving water for tourism as a tourist attraction.
- Concerning the community participation in tourism and SLA, participation has been hailed as a popular development tool, but traditionally community participation has meant power distribution.

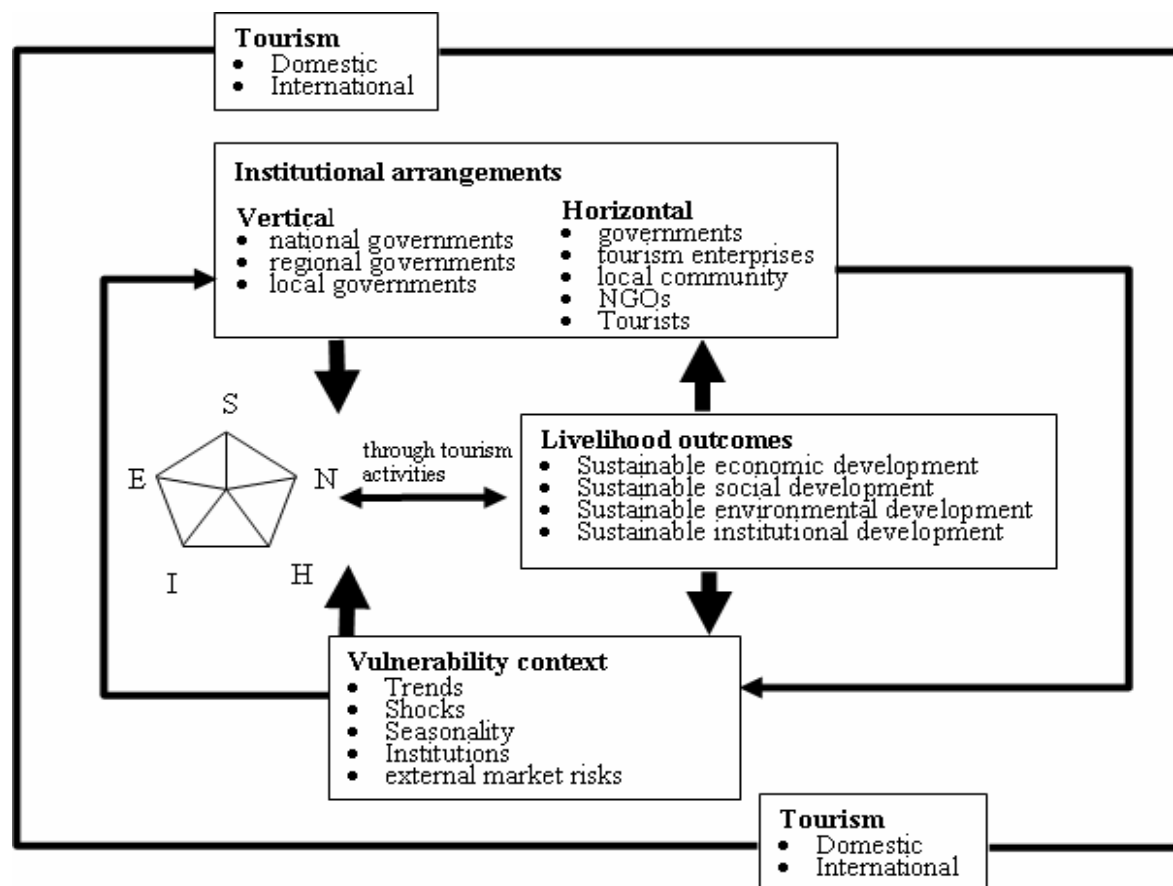


Figure 2.6: Sustainable Livelihood Framework for Tourism

Source: Shen *et al.* (2008:26)

SLFT, tourism livelihood assets consist of human, social, natural, economic and institutional capitals (Shen *et al.*, 2008:26). A sustainable tourism livelihoods approach aims to combine vital values of SL and tourism. A suggested 'Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism' (SLFT) has been established to emphasise the main characteristics of a tourism livelihoods system. In this framework it contains assets, activities associated with tourism consequences, institutional arrangements and exposure in perspective. Tourism is perceived as a perspective in which all factors in SLFT are implanted, influenced and fashioned.

SLFT indicators are tools used to monitor and evaluate a tourism livelihood system (Shen, 2009:256). These indicators have led to a set of benchmarks that can serve as reference for the application of the SLFT in other developing countries or regions. The principle of the SLFT needs to be kept in mind when developing SLFT indicators, namely *holistic, dynamic, people-centred* and *sustainable*. Both SLFT principles and indicators are important contributions to the practice and theory of development, especially when it involves 'tourism' (Shen, 2009:257).

The Sustainable Livelihoods approach supplements current ICM endeavours in three ways. The first is the retention of the essential sustainability agenda nevertheless changing the spotlight from sustaining coastal environment integrity to a people-centred approach. Secondly, the capabilities and the potential of poor people are focused on, rather than the barriers or constraints on development. Lastly, it stresses the essential role played by mediating institutions, governmental processes and social relations in promoting sustainable livelihoods. (Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:4).

This proves that the Sustainable Livelihoods approach can improve ICM efforts to address coastal poverty. It grants a valuable framework with a real-world and flexible foundation for analysing and constructing sustainable coastal livelihoods. (Glavovic & Boonzaier, 2007:4).

Nine key livelihood strategies were identified by Glavovic *et al.*, (2002) and have a significant contribution to the livelihoods of poor coastal communities:

Livelihood strategies employed by poor coastal communities (Glavovic *et al.*, 2002)

- Employment (formal and informal employment).
- Pensions and governments grants.
- Agricultural production (e.g. subsistence and for income – fishermen, medicinal plants, and other resource collectors).
- Goods produced (e.g. handcrafts, curios).
- Services rendered.
- Trading (e.g. informal dealing of goods, products and resources).
- Migration (e.g. areas of perceived greater opportunities, rural to urban).
- Investing in social relationship and networks.

In a tourism framework, individuals, governments, NGOs, enterprises and tourists intermingle and respectively a group's behaviour may have a direct or indirect effect on individual livelihoods. Shocks and coping with these trials and disasters are of an essence to the livelihood survival of the poor. Most tourism destinations face seasonality as one of the greatest challenges in the livelihood strategy. It influences the livelihood assets and outcomes dramatically (Shen *et al.*, 2008:27). Trends are more predictable and not always negative; a good example is the trend toward ecotourism.

Beeton (2006:219) stresses the prominence of developing links between communities and tourism, along with a need to inaugurate a common vision and partnerships with the communities, especially participation in the tourism planning and operations.

2.11.3 Sustainable Tourism ~ Elimination of Poverty (ST~EP)

At the World Summit on Sustainable Tourism in Johannesburg the 2002, UNWTO launched "Tourism and Poverty Alleviation". This re-examined tourism's function in

poverty reduction. If appropriately managed, tourism may perhaps be positioned as one of the few actual revenues to contribute to poverty alleviation. Implementing this focus, the UNWTO established the Sustainable Tourism – Elimination of Poverty (ST~EP) strategy to accomplish the objectives of reducing poverty in developing and least developed countries. In 2006 the UNWTO officially initiated the ST~EP-programme, with the goal of developing 5000 small projects by 2015 (Denman & Denman, 2004:13). The emphasis is to unlock opportunities that focus on poverty alleviation (Shen, *et al.*, 2008:22).

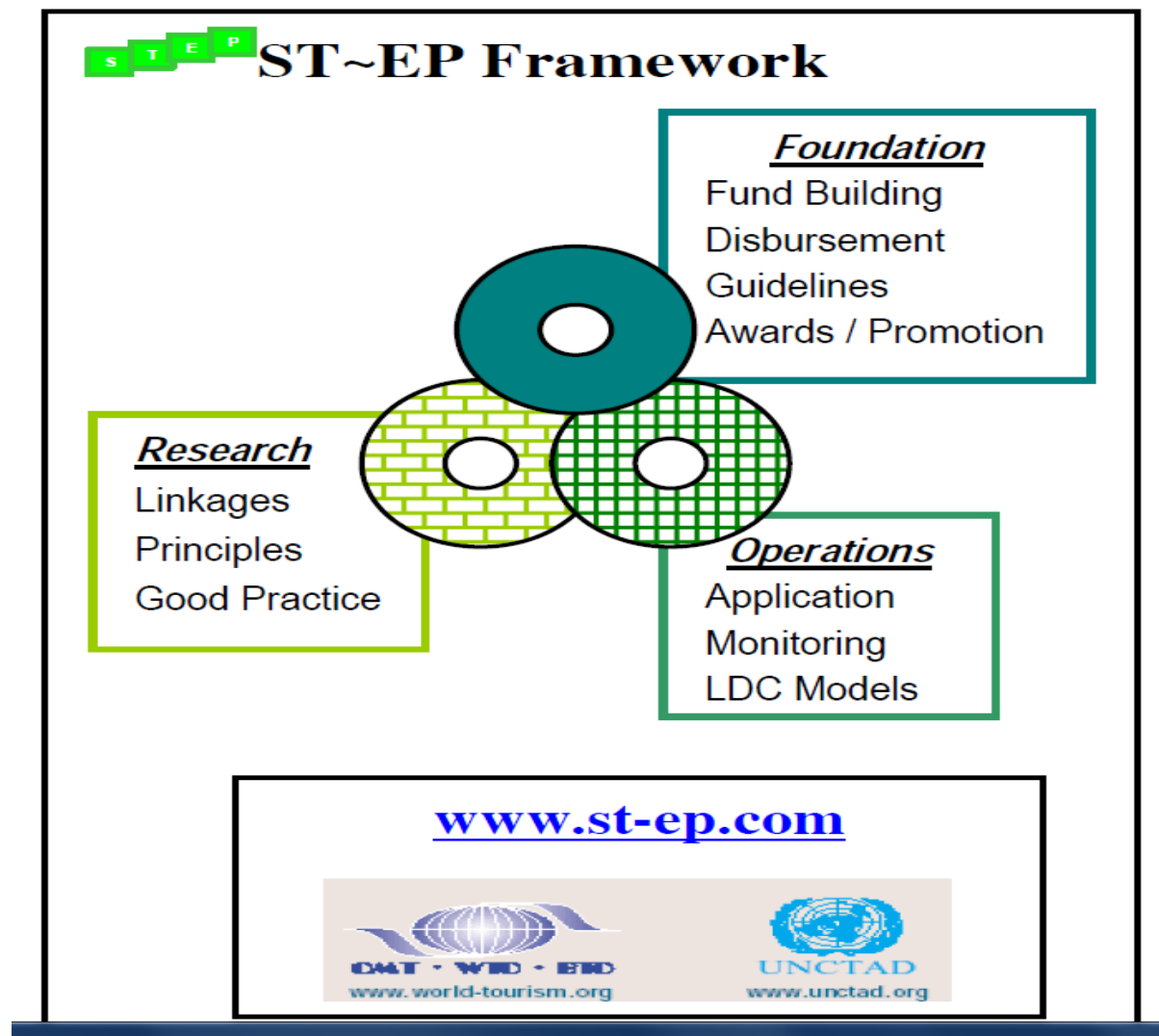


Figure 2.7: ST~EP

Source: www.st-ep.com (Sofield, Bauer, De Lacy, Lipman & Daugherty, 2004:17)

The ST~EP-programme comprises four components. As a research base that considers principles, linkages and model applications regarding sustainable tourism and poverty alleviation as a first component. Secondly, functioning components that develop and promote incentives for good practices between consumer, communities and companies are emphasised. Thirdly, forums through which a selection of stakeholders can be brought together, ideas, information and plans shared. Attracting financing from business, government and philanthropic sources is the last component to which the ST~EP foundation is dedicated (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007:139).

The ST~EP-program promotes a conceptual framework from which tourism and poverty can address tourism development. The ST~EP and PPT strategies emphasising local interventions which is not addressing structural constraints on national and global level where critiqued by Scheyvens (2007:249). It was reasoned that regulation on foreign owned companies and ratification of labour codes might be more effective in reducing poverty (Scheyvens, 2007:250; Schilcher, 2007:178). The methodology designed by the PPT and ST~EP to measure the impact on the poor population concentrates on economic benefits as the most effective method for poverty reduction to date. Gartner (2008:28) warns that researchers have to be exceptionally discerning regarding the fact that empirical evidence and political rhetoric of the development philosophy and processes are separated.

Seven mechanisms through which the poor can benefit from tourism were published in "Tourism and Poverty Alleviation: Recommendations for Action" (Denman & Denman, 2004:17-30) and refer to the following:

- **Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises**

Measures used to escalate the level of employment of the poor employed in the tourism sector. In this symbiotic relationship between the industry and the poor, the poor stand to benefit considerably. The direct benefit through earning wages empowers the poor to develop their own skills and level of service. Employment as a positive economic factor can play a key role in getting a sizeable number of the poor to benefit (Ashely, 2000:1),

especially if big industry players get involved who could employ a great number of unskilled or entry level staff. Self-respect by having a full time employment and receiving a salary boosts self-esteem. The households benefit as they will receive a regular income. This, in turn, gives the poor a sense of self-respect. Tourism businesses can benefit from employing local people thus making the businesses more locally distinctive, reducing their staff cost, the standard of service can be increased, creating a political and commercial environment for future trading and investments. Challenges to be overcome in employing the poor include strengthening the level of education, valuing cultural and religious customs, paying a fair wage, combating seasonality, removing barriers with regard to race and gender, safeguarding decent circumstances of employment.

- **The supply of goods and services to tourism by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor.**

Warranting that goods and services in the tourism supply chain are from local sources needs to be promoted as much as possible in achieving poverty reduction. This is to maximise the tourism expenditure in the local communities and to include the poor in the supply process. Ensuring that suppliers are local is one way of retaining the money in the country or region. There are exhaustive advantages to this method. It can become a stable source of income due to large purchasing budgets of certain tourism enterprises, it supports traditional patterns of rural livelihood, and it could assist in developing new activities and skills associated with local securities and capabilities. It also provides a market for existing skills and activities. Fresh and locally distinctive products or food, are also a benefit, which reduces the cost of supplying the product and to the client. Challenges for the local market include the meeting of high standards, reliability, level of quality and producing possible large orders. These challenges can be met by taking initial small steps with a few carefully chosen connections and building from there. Assisting and promoting standards and industry ambitions. By setting up projects involving the local farmers and suppliers to work with a group of tourism enterprises the supply of products could be streamlined and even increased.

- **The direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor (i.e. informal economy)**

Examples are the poor selling goods like fruits and handicraft or giving guided tours. These markets are mainly unregulated and are not legally registered businesses. These enterprises are usually small and often run by a family or an individual. This informal economic sector can play a very important role contributing to the overall picture of the income of the poor. The main advantages are that the tourist engages directly with the poor. Thus the poor have direct access to the source of income, the tourist. This could bring a greater understanding of the needs and wants of the consumer, giving the supplier the knowledge of demands, shift in trends and instant feedback. Tourists interact with this informal sector and intermingle directly with the poor, which could lead to enhanced understanding of challenges and maybe a colourful experience. The poor receive exposure to possible new demands and needs which may possibly lead to higher quality or even new product development. A variety of challenges with the informal economy are to be managed. Provision of a guarantee that the product presented is safe, competitive trading processes where pestering of tourists can be threatening and a put off. Buyer and seller need to get fair prices for goods. Managing the informal economy is comparable to the formal economy, training and capacity building to improve quality, differentiating products and services, providing access to information, support and financing, and assisting the informal sector to manage and organise itself are some of the approaches. Possible measures and strategies need to be put in place to protect the poor and the tourist from exploiting one another.

- **The establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor – e.g., small, micro and medium sized enterprises (SMMEs), or community-based enterprises (formal economy)**

Starting at individual or community level with establishment of formal tourism businesses like catering, accommodation, transport, guiding and entertainment. Enterprise establishment and growth is the emphasis here and is the difference between formal and informal economy. It has been established that, at best, income received in

the informal economy only satisfies the immediate needs of the household and no funds are left for investment or development of opportunities for the future. The benefit of enterprise formation is that it gives power and control in the local people's hands via long-term investments. The range of enterprises might include lodges, campsites, food and beverages, etc. Growth of new SMMEs will depend on the opportunities available. There are four distinct enterprises to consider, the individual enterprise, a group enterprise - independently owned nevertheless advancing each other, and community owned enterprise this will be shared by and benefiting the community and the private sector. In developing countries, mechanisms and policies to backing enterprise development at all levels are normally directed at the agriculture and manufacturing side rather than tourism. Challenges that can be incurred are the availability of finance, the lack of business skills, a poor infrastructure and inadequate resources, poor access, assisting women to obtain finance and obtaining legal recognition.

- **Tax and levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor**

These are revenues produced by government from tourism that can reduce poverty. Income derived from tourism can be obtained in various ways, including development and business taxes, general income, and tourism-related charges like airport taxes and visa fees. The levies and taxes can also be raised locally, through license fees and revenue charges on bed nights. At local level it can be more transparent, communities can have a greater say in how monies can be raised. The benefits are that the poor can be directly involved and funds can be distributed to the most needy. Large amounts of money can be raised; the devices can be quite simple. Challenges faced are to ensure that tourists are not discouraged; care must be taken not to lose tax revenue, the fair distribution of revenues that was raised at local level. Approaches to adopt are to review taxation policies at national level.

- **Voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists, this is when visitors give back to the area they are visiting.**

Various sponsorships are given and available to develop initiatives. This may come from organisations supporting social programmes in the country. Some beneficiaries become actively involved and give training programmes and advice while others merely give financial aid to specific identified needs. To distribute funds that have been raised, a trust or foundations is established and the local NGOs are also involved. Advantages are that poverty issues are made public by and to visitors, the potential to raise large sums of money, beneficiary schemes can address specific issues and can reach the most needed. Some challenges faced by tourism businesses should demonstrate their real commitment to projects. Being sensitive in the way the process is implemented, the management of beneficiary project should include local communities. This can be achieved by working with NGOs, improving knowledge of the sponsorship and donation raising mechanisms, transparency in how funds will be distributed so contributors will understand where funds are used.

- **Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support from other sectors**

Sustainable Tourism ~ Elimination of Poverty, this refers to the development of new infrastructures, such as roads, water and energy supply, communications and sanitation by means of investments received. This can assist the poor in receiving basic services and opening new opportunities for development. Poverty reduction cannot be done without providing safe drinking water. One main challenge in new tourism development is not to consume all the resources at the expense of the local community. To address this, the community should be involved in the early stages of new tourism planning, to profile tourism infrastructure development programmes locally and nationally.

A variety of potential benefits can be gleaned from PPT/ST~EP assistance both economic and non-economic. Although non-economic benefits may be less objectively measured they are in many cases ranked of higher value than pure earnings (Sofield, Bauer, De Lacy, Lipman & Daugherty, 2004:4-5). These seven keys are ways, vital

techniques how the tourism industry can benefit the poor, creating linkages, value chains and impacting positively on the livelihood of the local community member.

2.11.4 Multi-dimensional poverty index

The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) consists of 3 dimensions and 10 indicators. Every dimension is equally weighted; each indicator within a dimension is too equally weighted (OPHI, 2011:1). Standard of living is contextualise in access to resources, such as clean drinking water, the distance of the water source from the household, access to electricity and types of fuel used for cooking (wood & charcoal), housing materials, flooring and ownership and sanitation facilities. Education consists of years of schooling, access to education facilities, distance, skills training and qualifications. The third dimension is health, monitoring nutrition and child mortality. Figure 2.8 indicates the 3 dimensions and 10 indicators which are the components of MPI.

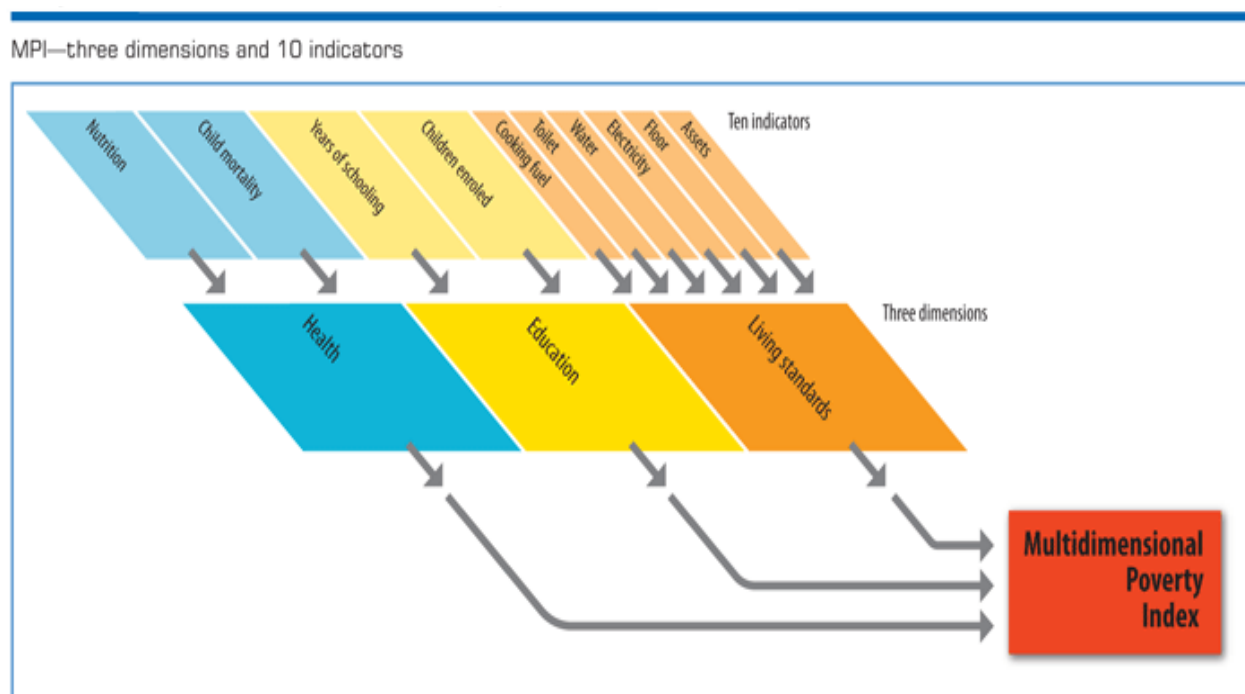


Figure 2.8: Components of MPI

Source: Alkire & Santos (2010:2)

Multidimensional Poverty Index produced by the University of Oxford. The MPI is a measure of severe global poverty indicators developed by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) for the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Report (Alkire, Conconi & Roche, 2013:5). An assortment of indicators is incorporated in the index to reveal the complexity of poverty. MPI includes a number of indicators that aspire to capture people's experience of deprivation, such as lack of education, poor health, inadequate living standard, low income, disempowerment and threat of violence (Smith, Mashhadi & Capra, 2013:3). It reflects either the incidence or headcount ratio (H) of poverty (the proportion of the population that is multi-dimensionally poor) or the average intensity (A) of their poverty. The MPI is calculated by multiplying the incidence of poverty by the average intensity across the poor ($H \times A$) (OPHI, 2011:1). This methodology necessitates determining the unit of analysis (i.e. person or household), identifying the set of indicators in which they are deprived. This reiterates their poverty profile in a deprivation score simultaneously. This is acknowledged as multi-dimensionally poor if their deprivation score exceeds a cross-dimensional poverty cut off threshold of 33% (OPHI, 2011:1; Smith, Mashhadi & Capra, 2013:5).

Cohen (2010:889) argues that rural poverty approaches are either too simple or too complex and that the nature of poverty in a given area needs to be understood (Cohen, 2010:891). Without a doubt, a large amount of the importance in exploring multidimensional poverty arises from the actuality that there may be different correlations among the dimensions of poverty between one country and another. Multidimensional poverty and its measurement is a reasonably complex subject, and remnants an area for dynamic research.

2.12 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was not only to define poverty in finer detail but also to describe the challenges facing the researcher trying to attain an accurate measurement

of poverty and exploring its causes. Furthermore, the chapter then aspired to link the concept of poverty to that of tourism regarding the impacts on the local community.

This was achieved by analysing the many differing definitions of poverty and finally settling on that of the UN's Copenhagen Declaration as "...a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic needs including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information". This definition makes it clear that the level of income has little to do with the universal understanding of poverty.

This understanding of the irrelevance of income as a poverty indicator is at the basis of the difficulty in measuring poverty itself. It is self-evident from the above chapter that the ability to help oneself is much higher in importance than other requirements and that to reduce poverty's measurement or causes to a mere set of financial indicators is a gross misrepresentation of the problem as it stands today. This is the Human Poverty Index, which consists of three dimensions, survival (minimum requirements), knowledge (literacy) and decent standards of living.

It is not easy to find the causes of an intricate concept such as poverty but for this study will adopt those as defined by the World Development Report 2000/1 as being most representative. These include environmental impacts like natural disasters and climate change, political impacts including ease of doing business, ownership and just government as well as socio-economic factors related to the level of income or assets accumulated, participation in society and capability or lack thereof of withstanding adverse shocks be they health, monetary or natural.

The majority of developing countries are convinced that tourism can be used as an effective, quick and relatively cost efficient means of poverty alleviation if not total eradication and most have included it in their policy statement as a strategy to that effect. It highlights the advantages of tourism such as being labour intensive, consumed at point of production and being a foreign exchange earner.

Governments may feel that tourism is the Holy Grail regarding poverty alleviation but it is imperative that the full impact of tourism on the local communities be taken into

consideration to determine tourism's net value to the poor. There are many different types of impacts to be considered such as direct (income, employment, business start-ups, etc.), indirect (capital investments, government spending and supply-chain contributions) and, lastly, dynamic effects such as changes in the local economy (less farming, more wage earning), expansion of the working class (women entering the workforce) and exchange rate changes (negative or positive).

It is therefore clear that to achieve the policy statements goals of governments in developing countries tourism needs to be managed as a Pro-Poor strategy thereby creating opportunities and generating benefits for the poor first. This will have a knock on effect on the economy and positively benefit the entire population.

CHAPTER 3

ANALYSING THE CURRENT STATUS OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN MOZAMBIQUE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry, even in colonial Mozambique, played a very important part in the development and growth of the country. Mozambique with its 800 000 km² geographical area, extensive cultural diversity and being blessed with an assortment of ecosystems has great potential (Soto, 2009:85). GDP per capita in Mozambique at US\$439.88 is the next to lowest in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (SAT, 2012:12).

The purpose of chapter three is to analysis the tourism status of Mozambique. Reflecting on the history and development of the country, investigating its policies, laws and strategies regarding tourism and poverty issues, an analysis of poverty in Mozambique is considered as one of the world's poorest countries. Material goods, civil relationships/status and source of income are some of the perceptions of poverty in Mozambique (PARPA II, 2006:20).

The tourism industry in Mozambique is analysed in terms of development and growth over the years, poverty issues and impacts for tourism. "Uneven and unequal development and globalisation with its exploitation of Third World countries is about to continue" (Mowforth & Munt, 2009:16). Statements like this are a warning to all stakeholders and role players in the tourism industry to manage, plan, and strategise to enhance impacts and the benefits to local populations from tourism. Lastly, an overview on the tourism impacts on the country and it residents is provided. Impacts of tourism vary greatly, directly linked with the geographical area and culture, "who" is in control and the participation of stakeholders (Brown & Hall, 2008:848).

3.2 HISTORY OF TOURISM IN MOZAMBIQUE

Colonial Mozambique was identified as a leading tourism destination in Africa and the tourism sector played an important role in the economy of the country in 1960 and the early 1970s (Kiambo, 2005:144). Mozambique welcomed close to 400 000 tourists in 1973 - most of them from South Africa, Portugal and Zimbabwe (Sarmento, 2007:34). Tourism was established around three themes, beautiful beaches, the urban centres and the wildlife, which are mainly concentrated in the central and southern regions. Corongosa/Saragossa National Park was recognised as one of the main game parks in Southern Africa and the hunting in the central areas was to international standards (SPDTM, 2004:19).

The country lies north of the Tropic of Capricorn and is mostly tropical. There are about 25 main rivers that flow into the Indian Ocean. The biggest river is the Zambezi which cuts across central Mozambique. Mozambique has a beautiful coastline of about 2 500 kilometres with some of the finest beaches in the world (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). The country is largely low-lying and the coastal grasslands are beneath 200 metres covering about 42% of the country particularly in a belt along the big rivers, the coast and in the south.

Mozambique with its distinct Portuguese cultural influences was surely the most vibrant and popular holiday destination for regional tourists from South Africa, the then Rhodesia and Malawi. International tourists derived mostly from Portugal also regarded Mozambique's unique atmosphere and exceptional national parks very highly. The infrastructures were well developed, from roads, railways, electricity and water to agricultural products. Saragossa National Park in pre-civil war era had more wildlife than the Kruger National Park and the Serengeti combined. Cahora Bassa dam delivered electricity to neighbouring countries like South Africa (Clement & Peiris 2008:20).

Tourism was centred on well-known and visited beach resorts and hotels, like the Polana hotel in Maputo and Pemba in the north. Pre-independence tourist arrivals of South Africans and Rhodesians were estimated at approximately 400 000 in 1973, a level that was only reached again post-independence in 2002 (SPDTM, 2004:19; Kiambo, 2005:142).

The tourism industry of pre-independence Mozambique was booming, the local populations were generally only used for manual labour and benefited only indirectly from the industry. The colonial Portuguese were the owners and managers of almost all the resorts, hotels, restaurants and street cafés so well frequented by the tourists. In the years before and directly after the fight for independence all the colonial Portuguese absconded from the country taking all their belongings and money with them which lead to massive economic leakage. Tourism came to a halt in the light of the turmoil from the civil war (IFC, 2006:8). During the two decades of civil war nearly the entire previously well-established infrastructure was all but destroyed (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). That which was not damaged by the fleeing colonials or fighting armed forces, was laid to waste by long time neglect. Saragossa National Park's once famed herds of wildlife were driven to near extinction by armed forces in their quest for food.

A rapid decline in visitors to the country was experience in 1973 due to political unrest and turmoil. Into the early 1990's after the end of the civil war, a sense of normality once again descended on Mozambique as a country. This was the signal for the most adventurous of South African tourists to return, driven by nostalgic memories of idyllic Mozambican holidays. What they found was destruction, decimated wildlife, landmines, and poor infrastructure but with pristine beaches intact (IFC, 2006:8). Weary but friendly locals were eager to recreate what once was. As the situation in Mozambique normalised further, it created a fertile situation for South African entrepreneurs in the tourism industry. Low cost beach resorts sprang up all along the coast from Maputo to Barra, Inhambane. The flow of South African tourists over the border steadily increased. In 1992 the adoption of the peace accord introduced the start of the revival of the tourism industry. The economy has seen a substantial growth since 1990 and a

number of new hotels have been developed in Maputo. Recovering from civil war, Mozambique is on a growth path as one of the fastest growing economies in Africa (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286).

The tourism in the southern provinces got a jump start due to the discovery by South African tourists that Mozambique is a desirable destination (Stenhoff & Hagberg, 2009:10). A demand for beach-grounded tourism stimulated the development of accommodation in the southern areas, of Ponto do Ouro, Inhambane, Bilene etc. Investments mainly consisted of beach chalets, campsites and self-catering lodging which were focusing on regional markets. Mozambique has a considerable quantity of natural resources ranging from natural beauty, prime beaches and marine life, hydro power, minerals, natural gas and coal (Bucuane & Mulder, 2007:4).



Map 2: Mozambique Political Map

Source: <http://www.mappery.com/map-of/Mozambique-political-map>

Mozambique can be divided into three geographical regions, the distances between them are significant and the socio-economic development, geo-physical characteristics and tourism profiles differ among them as well. The three regions are – the North (with Cabo Delgado, Nampula and Niassa provinces) – Centre (Sofala, Manica, Zambezia and Tete provinces) and then the last one – the South (Maputo, Maputo Cidade, Gasa and Inhambane provinces). Of all the regions, tourism is concentrated in the South with a total of 50% of registered tourism establishments and contains 65% of the entire beds presented in accommodation. In 2001, a total of 60% of room nights were sold in Maputo-Cidade (SPDTM, 2004:24). Room accommodation in Maputo accounts for 52% of the entire room capacity of the country (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). Standards barely compare to international standards and tend to be highly priced (Sharma & Christie, 2010:289).

Mozambique attracted nearly the same number of tourists in 2001 than in the colonial period of 1973 (SPDTM, 2004:19/25). Superb diving areas with whale shark can be seen throughout the year. The “Aquatic Big Five”, turtles, sharks, dolphins, mantra ray and whale shark make a unique and attractive drawcard for the coast of Mozambique. The country’s vibrant nightlife and Afro-Portuguese cuisine has been influenced by the mixture of African, Portuguese and Arab cultures (ESIPP, 2006:4).

The main supply to the tourist market is mainly from Portugal, South Africa and a few European countries (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). South Africa accounts for 46% of all visitors to Mozambique (IFC, 2006:7).

David Scowsill, President and CEO of WTTC stated that Mozambique’s economy is set to increase by 6.4% per year for the next decade. This means that the Travel and Tourism industry will provide job opportunities to the magnitude of 700 000 by the year 2021. Already, by 2010, with 2 million international tourist arrivals representing 9% of Mozambique’s total exports at US\$1 billion made Mozambique one of the hottest destinations in sub-Saharan Africa (WTTC, 2011:1). Reviewing the growth and

development in Mozambique to examine the data on tourism development and growth, or the lack thereof (Mutch, 2013:1) is a real limitation (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286).

3.3 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MOZAMBIQUE AS PART OF THE AFRICAN CONTINENT

Tourism and travel are responsible for 1 out of 20 jobs in Africa, which leaves tourism as a powerful development path for Africa (World Bank, 2013a:xi). Brown and Hall (2008:839) argue that tourism as a major economic activity is currently growing the fastest in the south of the world, due to greater disposable income, cheap, no-frills airlines and adventurous tourists who are interested in exploring the “exotic” Third World destinations. Many developing countries’ economic and social growth can benefit considerably from tourism. Tourism is significant in 11 of the 12 poorest countries in the world, in virtually half the low-income countries and nearly all of the lower-middle income countries i.e. in these countries more than 2% of GDP can be ascribed to tourism or 5% of export (DFID) is accounted for through tourism (Gerosa, 2003:4; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:7).

Viewing the tourism market in Africa, attention immediately gets drawn to the great untapped potential of tourism and the impact the development of it can have on the socio-economy of Africa. UNWTO (2012:3) indicate in the world tourism barometer that Africa holds 3% of international receipts which accumulate to US\$ 33 billion. Tourism contributes to reducing vulnerability to shocks due to its reliance on natural and cultural resources, mainly owned by the poor (PARPA II, 2006:21,138).

For the majority of African countries, one of the foremost sources of foreign exchange is tourism: it is a significant contributor in 27 of them. Through international passenger transport, tourism also generates export earnings, which were estimated by the UNWTO (2012:1) at US\$ 196 billion in 2011. Together with the international tourism receipts it totals US\$1.2 trillion or a staggering US\$ 3.4 billion a day, thus confirming the potential and significance of tourism as an export product. Thirty per cent of the world’s export of

services is held by tourism and 6% of overall exports of services and goods. That ranks tourism fourth overall in worldwide export category and first in many developing countries (UNWTO, 2012:1).

A string of difficulties impact the development of tourism businesses in developing countries, LDCs in particular: these are structural constraints and shock factors. Structural constraints are perceived as leakages, nonexistence of infrastructure, unskilled human capital and poor connections while shock factors are seen as environmental factors, economic factors, safety issues and political instability (Gerosa, 2003:6-7).

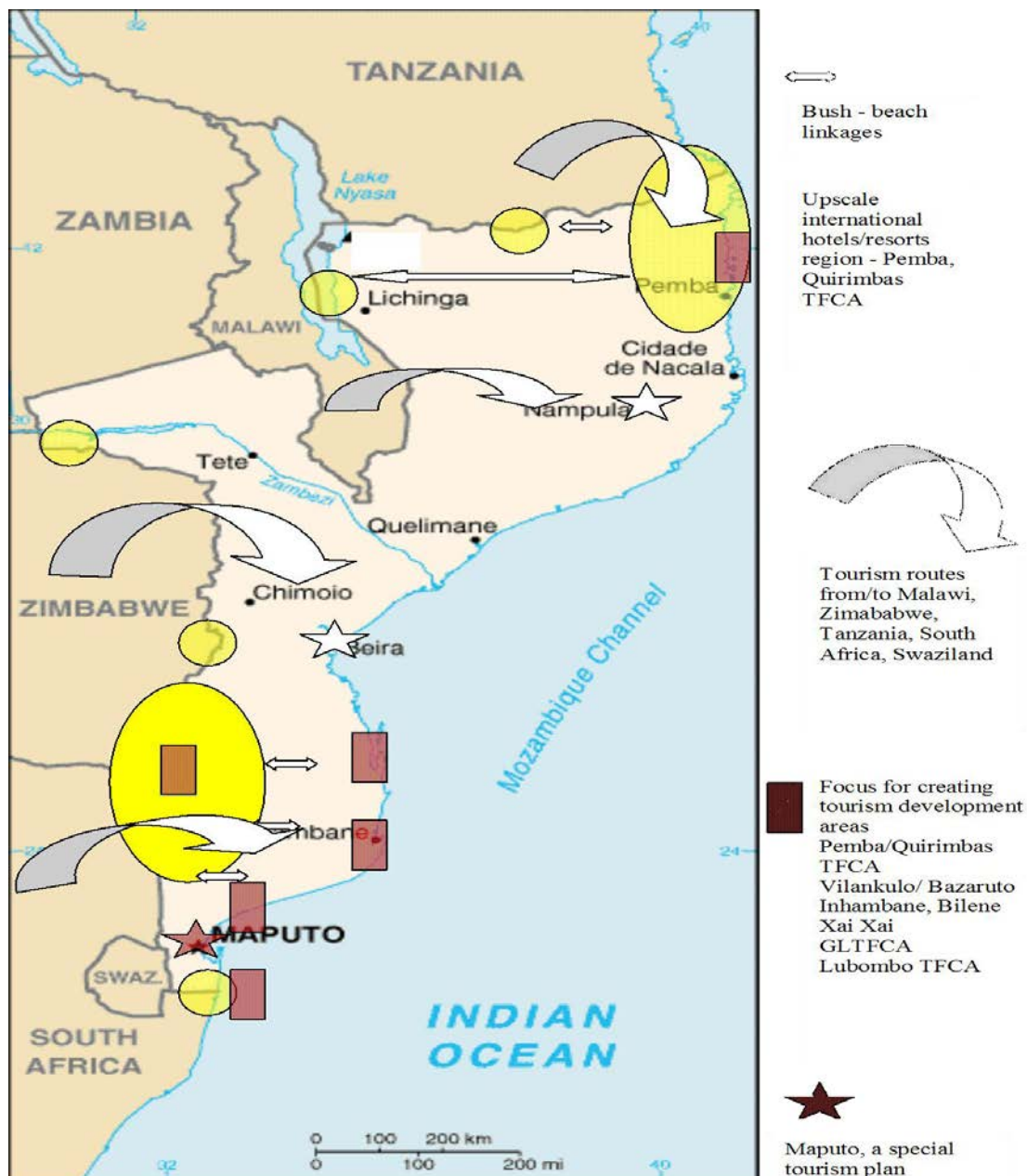
Effective Tourism Master Plans are applied to the minority of African countries due to restricted application of tourism policy frameworks due to tourism's secondary role in most instances. Therefore tourism has been hardly incorporated in the poverty reduction policies at a national level in Africa and Governments do not realise the great potential of tourism (Gerosa, 2003:19), emphasising the development of strategies to promote faster economic growth (Tribe, 2012:318).

Due to higher priority ranking in Government, it is difficult for tourism to compete against many other sectors, thus making tourism ministers politically weak (Gerosa, 2003:23). Africa continued to receive 50 million international arrivals. While North-Africa's arrival had dropped by 12%, due to political unrest, sub-Saharan destinations have gained two million (+7%) (UNWTO, 2012:1).

Monies transferred through tourism from rich countries to poor countries are twofold: the amount that a rich government will contribute through aid as well as the amounts spent by travellers. Governments and the private sector need to adjust their ways if tourism is to contribute to poverty reduction in developing countries (ACUDES, 2007:2).

High growth in Mozambique began shortly after the peace accord signed in 1992, with a strong growth of 7.4% in 2012 and maintained at 7% in 2013 (IMF, 2013:4; MITUR,

2002:3). Although it started at a very low base due to being one of the world's poorest countries (Hofmann, 2013:102). Mozambique has selected the following geographical areas for priority tourism development see, Map 3 Greater Maputo Zone and Xai-Xai Coastal Zone, in which Macanetta and Bilene the two relevant case studies reside (ESIPP, 2006:7; World Bank, 2013a:6).



Enhancing the positive impacts of tourism and reducing the cost it has on the poor is, in essence, the challenge (Roe & Urquhart, 2001:4). The tourism sector in Mozambique is at a vital phase of its development, with the prospect of contributing over the long term to the country's GDP and development (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:11). Linking employment opportunities and backward linkages to other sectors through the value-chain contributes to this, although it is still of moderate size (Vignati & Laumans, 2010:3). The Government's anticipation of the economic contribution of tourism can be seen in the positive linkage from tourism to employment in Bilene (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:6). Potential is tempered by four **weaknesses** that underline the following:

- Low average usage rates of existing hotel capacity: currently overseas tourists' length of stay is three nights per trip (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:5).
- The average spend per overseas tourist is still very low for Mozambique with an average of US\$250 per tourist (Sharma & Christie, 2010:289), the average spend in Bilene is about US\$150 excluding local transport costs (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:7).
- Domestic tourism spending is mostly local spending on direct purchases and transport procurements and not on restaurants and hotels (Sharma & Christie, 2010:293). Data from 2003 SAM and Bilene case studies illustrate that foreign tourist spending is centred to hotels and restaurants and only about 25% goes toward transport and direct purchases. In Bilene, about 10% is informal spending and the remaining 90% is spending at "formal" providers of tourist activities such as restaurants and accommodation services (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:7-8).
- A Central defect in the value chain and a crucial means of generating pro-poor economic impacts is the independent activity or tour operators in Bilene (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:10). Local tourists would rather spend time with family and friends than on formal holiday destinations. Data suggest that sub-sector tourism which does not generate revenue like water sport activities is still very underdeveloped and limits the stay of the tourist, resulting in low spending per tourist.

Table 3.1: Priority areas identified for intervention by GoM

• Integrated Planning	• Human Resources Development
• Access to Land for Tourism Development	• Tourism Promotion
• Infrastructure and Public Services	• Community Involvement
• Sustainable Tourism	• Financing
• Conservation Areas	• Priority Areas for Tourism Investment
• Tourism Product Development	• Social Development
• Valorisation of Cultural Heritage	• Regulation and Control of Quality

Source: Tourism Policy and Implementation Strategy (2003:19)

International tourist has grown with 284% between 2005 and 2011, with a prediction of over 4 million tourists in Mozambique in 2015 (World Bank, 2013a:2). Policies, strategies and easing of visa requirements had made the tremendous growth possible (World Bank, 2013a:4).

The Minister for tourism has indicated in Figure 3.1 that tourism markets are generally from the following countries.

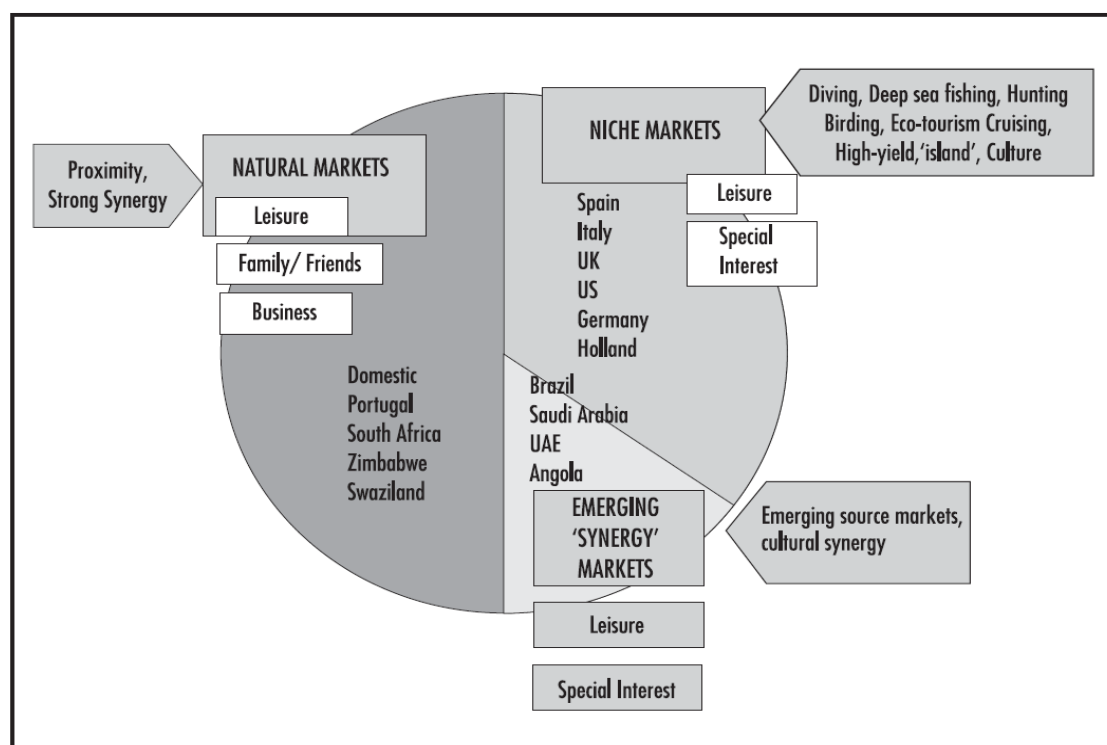


Figure 3.1: Mozambique tourist markets

Source: MIRTUR (2005)

The main feed of tourism comes from four countries. Zimbabwe and Swaziland mainly for mercantile reasons, such as the port and export facilities as it is being landlocked countries. South Africa, another neighbouring country, mainly feeds the tourism sector with leisure seekers and business people. On the other hand, Portugal has colonial ties with Mozambique which makes for family visits in conjunction with leisure and business travel. A value-chain study done by the SNV in Maputo shows an interesting result from the previous consecutive six years of 5% economic growth in Mozambique that tourism demand in Maputo is 40% from locals, providing a huge new domestic market (Vignati & Laumans, 2010:8).

In Table 3.2, the World Tourism & Travel Council predicted tourism growth and contribution for Mozambique, showcasing the possible impact on the economy.

Table 3.2: WTTC Estimates & Forecasts for Mozambique

Mozambique	2013 MZNbn ¹	2013 % of total	2014 Growth ²	MZNbn ¹	2024 % of total	Growth ³
Direct contribution to GDP	13.9	3.2	4.0	26.3	2.7	6.1
Total contribution to GDP	32.7	7.6	4.4	61.7	6.4	6.1
Direct contribution to employment ⁴	273	2.4	1.6	352	2.3	2.4
Total contribution to employment ⁴	718	6.4	1.0	891	5.9	2.1
Visitor exports	8.8	6.8	-1.2	13.0	5.9	4.2
Domestic spending	15.1	3.5	7.3	31.0	3.2	6.7
Leisure spending	13.3	1.8	1.7	22.5	1.4	5.2
Business spending	10.6	1.4	7.2	21.6	1.3	6.6
Capital investment	5.4	5.8	4.7	7.6	3.7	3.0

¹2013 constant prices & exchange rates; ²2014 real growth adjusted for inflation (%); ³2014-2024 annualised real growth adjusted for inflation (%); ⁴000 jobs

Source: WTTC, 2014:11

Travel and tourism spending directly contributed over 13.9 billion Mozambique metical in 2013 to the GDP (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1). Estimating a staggering 32.7 billion Mozambique metical contribution to the GDP of the country and indicating the impact magnitude of the tourism sector in Mozambique which leads to the necessity of effective and implementable strategies and policies (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1).

3.4 TOURISM POLICIES, LAWS AND STRATEGIES IN MOZAMBIQUE

David Scowsill, President and CEO of WTTC, has much acclaim for the tourism potential of Mozambique. He indicated advantages such as a long and undeveloped coastline, a variety of ecological systems as well as an interesting cultural heritage as being significant but, most of all, the recognition given by the Mozambican government that tourism provides myriad opportunities for economic advancement and employment (WTTC, 2011:1).

Mozambique's seat of government is situated in its capital and the most southerly situated city, Maputo. This makes it difficult to control all tourism developments due to the extended territory to the north. The government was also restructured from a one party state to a democracy with more input into government institutions from the local electorate (Kiambo, 2005:142). Realising that sustainable tourism as a strategic and coherent economic force may achieve the delivery of growth and employment on a scale capable of turning the Mozambican economy around, the government created the Ministry of Tourism in 2000 (Kiambo, 2005:142).

Social and economic transformation processes have been taking place in Mozambique. The implementation of the decentralisation policy can stimulate the political equity and create public participation at a local level through independent and fair elections in governments to assist in democracy (Antonio, 2001:5).

Successful implementation of democratisation and decentralisation in the rural areas in Mozambique would rely on the restoration of confidence and legitimacy between the structures of local administration and citizens (Antonio, 2001:6, Stenhoff & Hagberg, 2009:8). In 1987 the fourth FRELIMO congress was held in Maputo, where it was established that the state was weak at provincial and district levels and top heavy at the central level. A debate was held about decentralisation and autonomy of the local structures (Antonio, 2001:8).

On 19 January 1987, a by-law, number 2/87, was passed due to the debate on decentralisation and the independence of local government. This enabled the council of ministers to authorise and to formulate statutes of administrative and financial independence. This by-law is two-fold and is firstly there to promote participation and accountability of the district assemblies and the executive councils and then to assist with management between the provincial government and the cabinet (Antonio, 2001:8).

The local government reform came to an end in 1990 with the adoption of the Mozambican constitution. The Constitutional reform to a multiparty-democracy was approved in 1990 and in 1992 the General Peace Agreement was signed in Rome (Antonio, 2001:9). A Local Government Reform Programme (PROL) was also implemented to assist in reforming the local government systems, permitting local authorities their own legal standing, with their own administrative and financial self-sufficiency.

Parliament passed another by-law, 3/94, in 1994, this law provided the framework for municipal districts (Antonio, 2001:9). Rural and urban municipalities were elected under this law. The first multiparty general and presidential elections took place later in 1994 where FRELIMO won both general and local government. A multiparty democracy and a market economy took place in the Mozambique political system.

The multiparty elections were postponed three times and were first planned for 1996 but only took place in June 1998. It took place in 33 municipalities (10 boroughs and 23 cities) where only 15% of voters turned out to vote. Since then, the country has been to the polls three times, (UNICEF, 2009:1) with another scheduled in 2014. The Government of Mozambique has the political will to implement and initiate the decentralisation policy. Politicians from diverse surroundings often discuss and agree on how to best implement the local government objectives. Government comprehends and agrees that without legitimate people's participation sustainable development is not feasible.

In May 1997, parliament approved law number 6/97 - the municipal electoral law, which permits the population to fully participate in ongoing political, economic and social activities. In June 1998, Mozambique held its first local government elections in history and it was completed in 33 municipalities. Mozambique has voted successfully three times since the end of the war. To understand regional tourism development configurations and the way public policy resolutions are made, four points are significant, economic growth, institutionalised corruption, infrastructure and the institutional environment (CESD, 2007:6).

The labour regulations outlined in the Labour Law of 1998, in terms of employing foreigners is very strict and states that a company must show that it is impossible to find a Mozambican with the necessary qualifications before employing a foreigner (ESIPP, 2006:3). The land tenure law has been based on a non-tradable lease agreement system and the land use concessions are approved for a period of up to 50 years (ESIPP, 2006:2). The Government's revenue collection capability has enlarged since 1994 due to the value-added tax and reform of customs services.

The largest foreign investment was the inauguration of the Mozal aluminum smelter and this has amplified export earnings. Mozambique also procured the majority share from Portugal of the Cahora Bassa Hydroelectricity (HCB) Company (Mozambique Economy Profile, 2012:1). The International Monetary Fund (IMF) has reduced a considerable amount of foreign debt from Mozambique, to a controllable level through forgiveness and rescheduling as a signal of goodwill (World Bank & IMF, 2013 4).

Mozambique is still one of the principal receivers of international aid in the world and this aid makes up about 50% of the state budget (Republic of Mozambique, 2010:13). However, the Government has identified tourism as a key role in its development and growth strategies (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:6). After the Ministry of tourism was established in 2000, planning and various documents and strategies were adopted. Establishing policies and working documents like the Strategic Plan for the Development of Tourism in Mozambique 2004- 2013, PARPA I, PARPA II and PARP.

According to Sarmento, (2007:35) those with direct affiliation with the tourism sector are:

- National Tourism Law (2004).
- Tourism Policy and Implementation Strategy (2003).
- National Forestry and Wildlife Policy and Strategy (1995).
- Forestry and Wildlife Law (1997).
- Land Law (1997).
- National Environmental Management Programme (1995).
- Environmental Framework Law (1997).
- Fisheries Law.
- Investment Law.

The Mozambican government has made the struggle against poverty a major policy and with the help of donors like SNV, IFC, GETZ and the World Bank, the Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA), a five year plan (for 2001-2005) that plans to diminish the incidence of poverty, at that time estimated at 70%, was implemented. Following it up with PARPA II (2006 – 2009) and PARP (2011 – 2014) the main goal is to diminish the occurrence of poverty to 42% in 2014 from 54.7% in 2009 (PARP, 2011:7). The framework of the Poverty Reduction Strategy focuses on human development, agricultural output, productivity and creation of jobs in the small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Fifty-eight percent of children live beneath the poverty line, and this will be a major challenge for Mozambique to increase maternal and child health over the long term (UNICEF, 2012b:2). Mozambique's ultimate threat is HIV/AIDS; approximately 1.6 million people are living with HIV and AIDS and around 350 000 children are orphaned due to this pandemic (UNICEF, 2012b:2). An exceptional decrease in poverty was reached due to GoM strategies and plan for economic growth and development.

Mozambique has been setting the example in Southern Africa regarding privatisation by decreasing state owned assets by more than 1400 enterprises since the early 1990s (ESIPP, 2006:2). In the international arena, Mozambique is considered as a model of successful political transformation even with the ongoing political, economic and social

challenges. Mozambique has successfully transitioned from war to peace and turned from a one party state to a multiparty democratic state. Individual freedom is respected and this ensures an environment of political stability. Mozambique has enjoyed one of the fastest growth rates in Africa (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). Nonetheless, despite the exceptional economic growth rate, half of the population still resides in extreme poverty.

3.5 POVERTY IN MOZAMBIQUE

Mozambique is a country with many disparities and vast potential. It shares borders with 6 other countries and has a coastline of over 2 500 km. The population is approximately 20 million, of which 10 million are children (UNICEF, 2012a:2). According to the Mozambique's first national poverty assessment in 1996-1997, practically 70% of the Mozambican inhabitants lived below the poverty line (MPF/UEM/IFPRI, 1998). For many years Mozambique was among the five poorest countries in the world. This was further exacerbated by authorities, centralised in the capital, Maputo, who had trouble controlling the nationwide developments regarding tourism. The capital, Maputo, holds a large number of poor due to its enormous population and this is also true for most of the provincial capitals (Simler & Nhate, 2005:15). When the government changed from a single to a multi-party system with decentralisation and expanded citizen participation, it admitted to realising the importance of tourism in the national framework. It was stated by the government that "as an economic sector, tourism is one of the few that can deliver growth and employment on the scale required to make a difference in Mozambique, if managed in a strategic and sustainable way" (Kiambo. 2005:142). This led to the creation of a Ministry of Tourism dedicated to the development of the tourism industry in Mozambique.

A study done by Simler and Nhate (2005:15) for the World Bank's annual World Development Report indicates that the majority of the poor are distributed in the south of the country spread in a thin band that runs beside the coast. This was also a contributing factor in the identification of the two case studies used in this research,

Bilene & Macanetta, both situated in the south. The National poverty lines fluctuate significantly across the world at 2005 purchasing power parity from under US\$1 per person per day to over US\$40 (Ravallion, 2010:1). Mozambique's poverty line is set at 18 metical which is about US \$0.50 (PARP, 2011:6). This is half of the World Bank's "dollar a day" international poverty guides, indicating the harshness of poverty in this country. The poverty line is attained as the sum of two components, non-food poverty line and food poverty line (Arndt *et al.*, 2011:7). The food poverty line is determined by deriving a bundle of food products, which reveals the consumption patterns of poor households to provide sufficient calories and adhere to the quality over time and space. The prices paid by the poor are calculated for all the elements of the food bundles. Those households that are adjacent to the minimum budgetary allocation necessary to meet basic non-food needs are calculated and known as the non-food poverty line (Arndt *et al.*, 2011:7).

Arndt *et al.*, (2011:5) found that the national poverty rate stagnated in Mozambique between 2002/3 and 2008/9 at around 55% of the population. Due to the world recovery after the international financial crisis, the economic growth in Mozambique has been 6.5% in 2010. If the growth pattern continues the average annual growth could be 7.7% in 2011 - 2014 (PARP, 2011:8).

Although Mozambique was branded the world's 'poorest country' in 1992, drastic improvements have been made and results show high economic growth and poverty reduction. These achievements motivated Clément and Peiris (2008:1) to brand Mozambique as an economic success story in sub-Saharan Africa, confirming this growth and improved performance with existing data is Arndt, Jones and Tarp (2006:79). Mozambique's consumption poverty according to the household survey (IOF08) conducted by the National Statistics Institute (INE) shows 70% of households are located in rural areas (INE, 2005:9). They are furthermore, though it is unspoken, all black people. A staggering 96% are engaged with agriculture in some way, this survey was done in 2008/9 with a sample of 10 832 households (Arndt *et al.*, 2011:6). Food prices are on the rise for the first time in a decade and Mozambique's volatile price

changes between 2005 - 2010 impacted severely on the local population (FAO, 2011:9 & 27).

According to a press release by Inter Press Services authored by Thembi Mutch there are no official statistics regarding the wealth gap in Mozambique. This country is wrapped in contradictions (Mutch, 2013:1; Alfani, Azzarri, d'Errico & Molini, 2012:26). It appears amongst the countries with the highest real GDP growth rates at 7.5% but, at the same time, trails all but two other nations for a spot on the 2013 UN Human Development Index, coming in 185th out of 187 countries (HDI, 2013:3). A report by the ODHI provides some answers on the state of poverty in Mozambique.

3.5.1 Multidimensional Poverty Index highlighting poverty in Mozambique

Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) published a briefing on Mozambique results of the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). The focus here was on the deprivation of poverty, data from the DHS survey done in 2009 were used and not the correlation with tourism (which is one of the objectives of this study). It explains key findings and gives graphs of statistics. The MPI consists of 3 dimensions and 10 indicators, which are revealed in the figure beneath. Each dimension is weighted, each indicator within a dimension is also equally weighted and these weights are revealed within the diagram in brackets (OPHI, 2011:1). A person is considered poor if they are deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators; the intensity of poverty denotes the proportion of indicators in which they are deprived. (OPHI, 2011:4). Those identified as "Vulnerable to Poverty" are only deprived in 20%-33% of the weighted indicators and those identified as in "Severe Poverty" are deprived in more than 50% (OPHI, 2011:1).

Standard of living is contextualised in access to resources such as clean drinking water, how far is the water from the household, electricity or types of fuel used for cooking, housing materials, flooring and ownership and sanitation facilities. Education consists of

years schooling, access to education facilities, distance, skills training and qualifications. Health is the third dimension monitoring nutrition and child mortality.

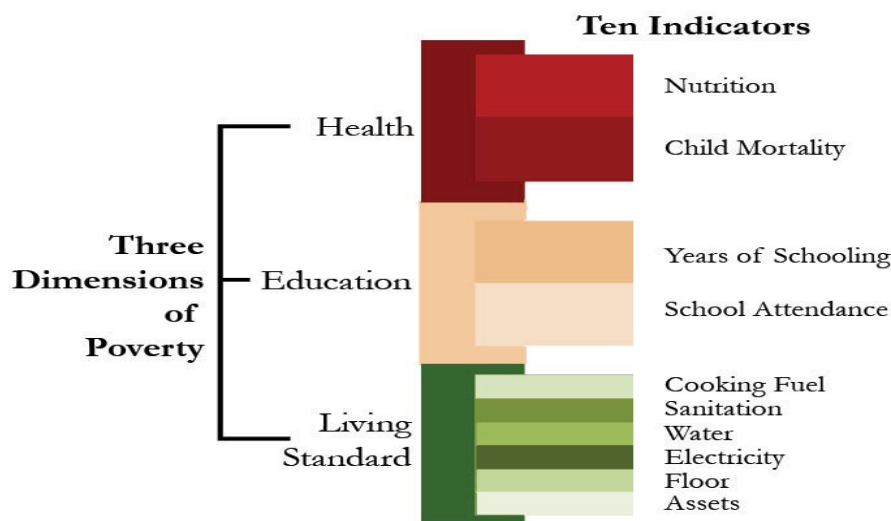


Figure 3.2: Multidimensional Poverty Index 10 Indicators

Source: OPHI (2013:1)

In the next diagram, the comparison between the MPI, US\$1.25, & US\$2 a day and the poverty line is shown. The first columns present the percentage of poverty according to the MPI, also called the headcount ratio or incidence. The second and third columns indicate the percentage of people that are seen as poor according to the US\$1.25 and US\$2 a day line. Lastly, the percentage of poor according to the national income poverty line is denoted.

Table 3.3: 2009 DHS Survey on Poverty in Mozambique

Survey	Year	Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI = H×A)	Incidence of Poverty (H)	Average Intensity Across the Poor (A)	Percentage of Population Vulnerable to Poverty	Percentage of Population in Severe Poverty
DHS	2009	0.512	79.3%	64.6%	9.5%	60.7%

Source: OPHI (2013:1)

An individual is acknowledged as being poor if she or he is deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators. To be identified as poor according to the MPI, a person has to be deprived in at least 33% of the weighted indicators. Those identified as “Vulnerable to Poverty” are only deprived in 20%-33% of the weighted indicators and those recognised as in “Severe Poverty” are deprived in more than 50% (OPHI, 2011:1). These findings are extremely disturbing with a 60.7% of the population in severe poverty (OPHI, 2013:1).

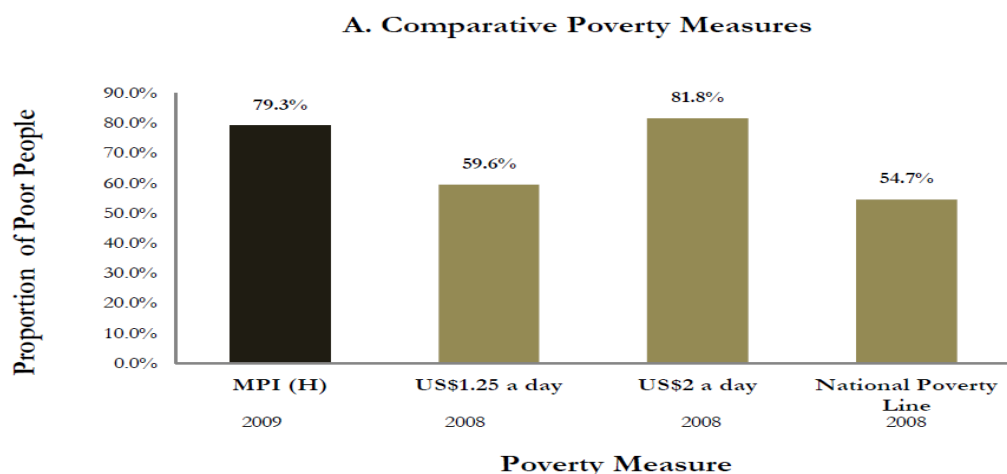


Figure 3.3: Comparative poverty measures

Source: OPHI (2013:1)

Confirming the 54% of Mozambican people is living in poverty, with a staggering 81% under the US\$2 a day threshold of the World Bank. The multi poverty index relates that 79% are poor (OPHI, 2013:1). In Figure 3.4, a summary of the MPI statistics for Mozambique are given.

Table 3.4: Summary of MPI Mozambique

Multidimensional Poverty Index	0,512
Percentage of MPI Poor (H)	79.3%
Average Intensity of Deprivation (A)	64.6%
Percentage of Income Poor (\$1.25 a day)‡	59.6%
Percentage of Income Poor (\$2.00 a day)‡	81.8%
Percentage of Poor (National Poverty Line)‡	54.7%

Human Development Index 2011*	0.322
HDI rank*	184
HDI category*	Low
‡ World Bank(2011) “World Development Indicator” Washington, DC	

Source: OPHI, 2013:2

Education, health and living standards are the 3 dimensions used by the MPI in which the 10 indicators are grouped. The figure 3.5 presents the percentage of the population that is poor and deprived in each of the 10 indicators. The MPI can be fragmented to view directly by what means each indicator contributes to multidimensional poverty. The subsequent figure demonstrates the structure of the MPI by means of a pie chart.

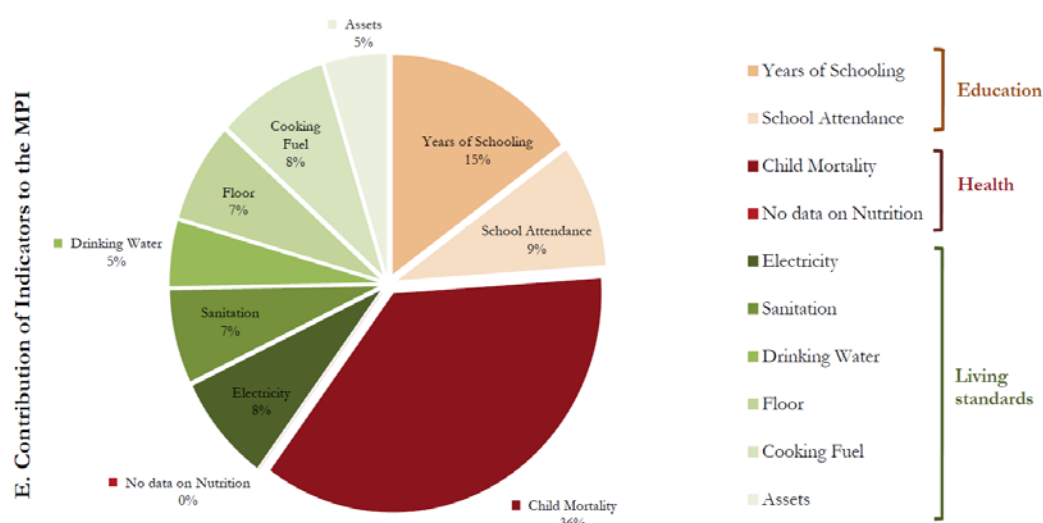


Figure 3.4: Contribution of indicators in the MPI

Source: OPHI (2013:3)

In Mozambique, more than 80% of the approximately 20 million people are involved in rural agriculture and this is primarily at subsistence level, leaving Mozambique as still one of the poorest countries in the world (ARD, 2002:vii). With regards to Mozambique poverty reduction and the Millennium Development Goals strategies it is essential to take into account the substantial disparities among the different regions (World Bank, 2012:1). Clement & Peiris (2008:11) state that Mozambique is well on its way to achieving these goals.

3.6 TOURISM GROWTH IN MOZAMBIQUE

In Mozambique, the tourism industry is growing (Sharma & Chrisitie, 2010:286) as a result of the government's new policies to endorse tourism and to improve the current tourism infrastructures and facilities and to create greater business opportunities. Travel and tourisms' total contribution to employment, including the broader effects from investments, induced income and supply chain impacts was 718 000 jobs in 2013 (WTTC(Moz), 2014:4). It was anticipated that travel and tourism will attract capital investments of MZN 5.4bn in 2013 (WTTC (Moz), 2014:5). By country ranking, the absolute contribution in 2013 placed Mozambique 134 out of 184 countries (WTTC(Moz), 2014:7). The WTTC promotes increased awareness of travel and tourism as one of the world's largest industries, providing over 266 million jobs and generating 9.5% of the global GDP in 2013 (WTTC, 2014:1).

In Mozambique, the potential resources found corresponds with the areas for tourism development the beaches, scenic landscape, interesting culture and friendly people (Stenhoff & Hagberg, 2009:45). Limited data are available in the hospitality and tourism development sector in Mozambique (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286; Jones, 2010:691).

Tourism is a fast emerging feature in the economy of Mozambique and is a significant source of foreign exchange and economic modification (CESC, 2007:6, Sharma & Christie, 2010:289). The prime mechanism for economic growth regarding escalation in employment and general poverty alleviation is private sector activities (FIAS, 2006:ix). The tourism industry has developed as an information rigorous industry and cannot continue to exist otherwise. All sectors of the tourism business rely profoundly on this information technology. It has had a major impact on the marketing and structure of the tourism industry. Tourists are capable of determining their preferred destination in the comfort of their own homes, and determining the availability and price in minutes. Reservations and bookings of airlines costs, which have been reduced drastically due to computerised reservations (FIAS, 2006:xxiii), impact on the tour operator as the middle man.

Tour operators compile packages that have a mark-up of between 15% and 35%. The industry is exceptionally competitive; operating cost and overheads can be high and even though revenue can also be high, the margins are often slim due to cost factors (FIAS, 2006:xviii). The tourism sector in Mozambique is predominantly characterised by small and medium sized enterprises but contain a few large firms that dominate. Tour operators mainly rely on travel agencies for guidance on selection of destinations and still use them as a marketing outlet (FIAS, 2006:xx). Mozambique is rapidly becoming a popular tourist destination (ESIPP, 2006:2). Data from 2003 SAM and Bilene case studies show that foreign tourist disbursements are concentrated on hotels and restaurants and only about 25% goes towards transport and direct purchases (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:7). Jones (2010:690) confirms that foreign business tourists contribute almost 50% of the value added by foreign tourists. Maputo, with its fast growing tourism industry is a major contributor (US\$95 million) to the economy with 4 000 direct jobs, tourism visits of 333 000 per year and an 8% pro-poor impact is an example of this growth (Vignati & Laumans, 2010:3,8). Tourism in developing countries is now being recognised as a valuable foundation for long-term growth (ESIPP, 2006:1).

GDP is seen as the measurement tool of economic growth for counties. Talberth (2008:19) argues that it provides no sustainability since it fails to account for the diminution of both natural and human capital. Although an average of 7% GDP growth was achieved in 2009 – 2011, Mozambique is still among the 10 poorest countries (Hofmann, 2013:112). In the Republic of Mozambique poverty reduction strategy paper and joint IDA-IMF staff advisory note it is indicated that the high GDP growth had not been accompanied by a strong poverty reduction and it was determined that development must be more inclusive and broad-based (World Bank, 2012:1).

The German Development Cooperation (GTZ) has funded numerous tourism initiatives in the Inhambane Province within the framework of its private sector development programme. Initiatives incorporated financial support for a study on coastal zone management, a number of eco-tourism interconnected activities in Manica province

specifically in Chimanimani reserve. GTZ furthermore funded the draft development on tourism and tourism marketing strategy for Inhambane province (FIAS, 2006:xiv). Another example is tourism-led poverty reduction (TPRP) which is an International Trade Centre (ITC) programme whose undertaking is “to link poor communities with promising products and services to market using technical support, in order to achieve a direct impact on their economic development” (Ashley, Mitchell & Spenceley, 2009:1) Mozambique is benefitting from current TPRP projects.

At the UNWTO / WTTC global leader for tourism campaign held in Maputo on 28 June 2011, President Armando Guebuza once again endorsed the tourism effort with the Mozambican government’s support. He reiterated the widely held belief that the multiplier effect of tourism is highly relevant in the socio-economic development of Mozambique, stressing the areas of job creation and income generation. Tourism was once again recognised as a strategic asset in the overall development of the country. The political will to improve the populace’s lives through tourism was amply displayed through the inclusion of tourism in the Government Plan for the coming years (UNWTO / WTTC (Moz), 2011:1).

Not only does the WTTC do economic impact studies for the global aspects of tourism but it also makes an annual in-depth study per country. These economic impact studies allow us to track the progress of numerous key aspects. In the next comparative study, focus will be on GDP and employment generated by tourism as direct and total contributions to the Mozambican economy.

WORLD RANKING (OUT OF 184 COUNTRIES):

Relative importance of Travel & Tourism's total contribution to GDP

135 ABSOLUTE Size in 2012	115 RELATIVE SIZE Contribution to GDP in 2012	81 GROWTH 2013 forecast	37 LONG-TERM GROWTH Forecast 2013-2023
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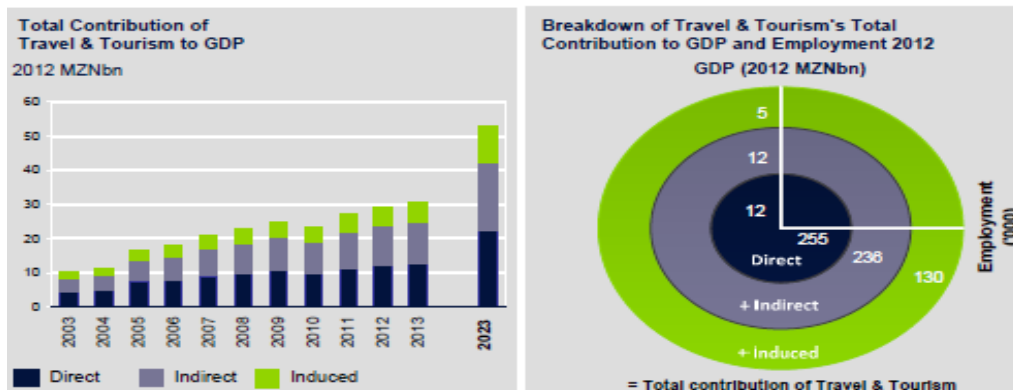


Figure 3.5: WTTC Mozambique statistics on economic impacts of tourism

Source: WTTC Travel & Tourism Economic impact (2013:1)

In the 2012 report, the direct contribution of T&T (travel and tourism) to the GDP of Mozambique was estimated to increase by 2.8% in 2012 (WTTC(Moz), 2012:1). This grew in 2013 to 3.1% of GDP, a slightly greater increase. Total contribution was estimated to increase by 3.3% in 2012 from a real contribution of 7% of GDP in 2011. Here a much larger discrepancy crept in. From a positive forecast of 3.3% the total real contribution increased by an astounding 6.7% (WTTC(Moz), 2012:1).

These, however, are not the least of the surprises: when comparing the estimates for the contribution made by tourism to the employment in Mozambique, a picture of the importance of this sector to a developing country with an overabundance of natural resources such as Mozambique is shown. The direct contribution to the employment sector in 2011 was 233 000 jobs. In 2012 it increased by 9.1% to 255 000 jobs regardless of the fact that the employment figures were expected to fall by 0.1% in the 2012 forecast (WTTC(Moz), 2012:2). In 2013, direct employment is forecasted at 273 000 (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1).

However, the total contribution to employment outshone even this. In 2011 562 000 Mozambicans were employed in T&T (WTTC(Moz), 2012:1). This escalated to 621 000

in 2012, which makes for a 9% increase even though this figure was also estimated to decline by nearly a percentage point (WTTC(Moz), 2013:1). The figure for 2013 confirms a 6.4% total employment, contributing to 718 000 job created in tourism and travel (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1). These figures make it abundantly clear that tourism's major contribution to the employment dilemma in Mozambique can no longer be disregarded.

All the other factors support the hypothesis that Mozambique has a long way to travel to fully exploit its potential for T&T. GDP total contribution lags the world by 1.8 percentage points, 9.3% for the world to 7.5% for Mozambique. GDP per capita in Mozambique at US\$439.88 is the next to lowest in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (SAT, 2012:12).

The main drivers of economic growth in Mozambique are FDI (Foreign Direct investment), donor funding and the agricultural sector (SAT, 2012:12). Currently 47.8% of Mozambique's budget is provided through donor funds. This is, however, expected to decrease by 3.6% of GDP per year leaving Mozambique with a growing budget deficit in the future. The bulk of this is made up of an ambitious public works program increasing the deficit growth by 1.5% of GDP per annum between 2008-2012 (SAT, 2012:15). Mozambique is highly dependent on imports of food and services due to the lack of local production and manufacturing. This adds to price volatility and inflation (SAT, 2012:16).

Out of 184 countries in the 2014 report, Mozambique ranked 116 on the scale of relative contribution of tourism to its GDP in 2013 (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1). Mozambique also improved its ranking pertaining to tourism's forecasted contribution to growth in Mozambique from 93rd among 184 countries in (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1). These may be relative numbers or forecasts but the proven statistics in the first part of the discussion bear out the improvement trajectory that the Mozambican travel and tourism industry is embarked upon.

3.6.1 Constraints identified in Mozambique tourism growth and development

Even though tourism accounts for the third largest investment sector in Mozambique, there are severe constraints keeping back this important development opportunity. These constraints include not only sub-par investment in infrastructure, which decreases the accessibility to areas with potential for tourism development, but also the institutional incapacity to integrate tourism development plans and priorities with those of other sectors in the national economy. Insufficient marketing and a less than creative approach to the development of tourism as a product to be sold, added to the less than favourable business climate further limits the possible exploitability of tourism as a driver for economic growth (Sarmiento, 2007:55).

High costs of international air travel due to inadequate air routes to Mozambique from major destinations in the world, deficiency of qualified human resources, land rights and poor infrastructure are all inhibitors to growth in the tourism sector in Mozambique (ACUDES, 2007:7, Sharma & Christie, 2010:286).

International demand investigation confirms Mozambique as a high-priced tourist destination with low standards when weighed against competing destinations with related price-levels (Stenhoff & Hagberg, 2009:2). The high interest rate of 25% impacts negatively on growth for SMMEs in Mozambique (Hofmann, 2013:116).

A barricade to communities wanting to participate in the tourism industry in Mozambique is the deficiency in language and hospitality skills (Sarmiento, 2007:44, Truong et al., 2014:15). English is recognised as the tourism language while Portuguese is the official language. The most problematic area has to be quantifying the impacts of tourism on communities and local livelihoods (Simpson, 2009:187).

Shortages in skilled labour are a critical constraint on Mozambique tourism growth (Jones, 2010:690). The lack of skilled labour and poor service delivery impacts negatively on tourism businesses. A baseline study done in Inhambane showed that

Mozambique has established that accountancy, health, transport, repair & maintenance, construction and plumbing are the services that are mainly outsourced (ACUDES, 2007:25). For instance, in the Inhambane district, roughly 85% of tourism establishments have their private in-house services for their boats and vehicles. (ACUDES, 2007:27). It was found that about 86% of tourism establishments are dissatisfied with the goods and services presented locally and this is due to the absence of dependability in quantity, quality and pricing (ACUDES, 2007:26-27).

Renewed conflict has impacted already on the tourism sector, with Vilankulo district at a 10% occupancy rate in 2013 compared to 2010-2011 (Batey, 2014:43). Conflicts between traditional authorities and legal power (GoM) is still a real threat in Mozambique, due to decisions that are made and the participation of local leaders and structures is often lacking (Belotii, 2013:384). Thus creating the situation where the GoM or the South decide what gets developed and how, with possible negative community attitudes towards these parks or tourism projects, influencing the success and the enhancement of positive impacts

3.6.2 Infrastructure development

Although development and infrastructure was badly eroded and has to take off from a low base, Mozambique's process of rebuilding the country and the economy has grown fast and development after the war has been extremely positive. Infrastructure deteriorates rapidly when leaving the capital city Maputo (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). Tourism is providing the country with a basis for long term development (ESIPP, 2006:1).



Photo 1: Local school in Bilene – dilapidated infrastructure

Source: Researcher October 2013

Adequate financial mechanisms to support development and management in local tourism products do not exist and public investment in tourism infrastructure is minimal. The low average spend and stay per tourist can be explained by the expansion of restaurants and hotels that have not developed sub-sectors in tourism such as social and cultural activities, domestic tours and direct spending like shopping. Behind the “adjusted” results is the high concentration of spending in hotels and restaurants and low occupancy rates that characterise the economic structure of tourism in Mozambique (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:12).

Tete, a city to the north of Mozambique and halfway between Malawi and Zimbabwe, would not have been anyone’s first guess for finding a first-rate poverty alleviation project. Not only is it run by the private sector but it is also working well and believed to be sustainable. This tobacco growing project brought not only a million US dollar infrastructure investment to Tete, but also created a sustainable personal income of US\$400 per annum for 125 000 Mozambican tobacco growers. There are also non quantifiable infrastructure benefits such as the quality of farmland improving through education in crop rotation and fertilisation (Mills, 2010:370-371). A study done in Kaziranga National Park in India has shown that capacity was built in the communities,

enabling them to compete with external service providers. Assistance was given to upgrade the infrastructure for homes, campsites and cafés. Using minimal capital and construction requirements, these improvements led to alternative livelihood income. This resulted in viable livelihood resource and participation in tourism, which created a greater awareness of the conservation of the Himalayan Parks. In turn, this created a more involved community wanting to protect the natural environment which is beneficial to their lives (Hussain, Bartwal, Badola, Rahman, Rastogi, Tuboi & Bhardwaj, 2012:39). Another example is the Barra Resorts Group in the Inhambane district, which employs over 300 people. It assisted with 5 water points, pumps, built a pedestrian bridge at Flamingo Bay Water Lodge, shortening the distance to the local school and clinic for the community by over three kilometres, helped with building a new clinic at Pomene with the assistance of a philanthropy tourist (Mutimucuo, 2010:6-7).

It equally emphasised the importance of considering the linkages between policy actions, economic growth and poverty outcomes in Mozambique. These linkages are a prerequisite to address the infrastructure bottleneck, develop financial markets and regulatory framework and to expand the overall investment climate (World Bank, 2012:1). Although tourism is providing the country with a basis for long term development (ESIPP, 2006:1) it can be said that infrastructure makes it all possible.

3.6.3 Mozambique tourism and the role played by South Africa

Mozambique is an affiliate of the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA) and, as the official tourism organization for the SADC, they have been given the mandate to endorse and market Southern Africa in co-operation with the region's national tourism organisations and private sectors (ESIPP, 2006:10). Strategically it is imperative for Mozambique in terms of linkage with bordering countries in its marketing as an add-on destination, especially South Africa (SPDTM, 2004:22; Kiambo, 2005:148).

A study done in the Inhambane area establishes that the origin of tourists visiting are 59 % from SA and Zimbabwe, 29% international, primarily Europeans, followed by 12% nationals. (ACUDES, 2007:29 & DIPTUR, 2005-2006:4). This baseline study has shown that over 90% of the lodges have contacts with travel agents in South Africa (ACUDES, 2007:29). The closest resource of tourism for Mozambique is the South African market. South Africa's outbound tourism market enlarged by 40% from 2002-2003. Mozambique as destination had a 25% increase by the South African tourist, visits from 276 100 in 2001 to 335 426 in 2003. Roughly 90-95% of the tourists travel by road, making the self-drive tourism market one of the principal sources of tourism in Mozambique (FIAS, 2006:i). Jones and Ibrahimo (2008:7) showed that 40% of tourists to Mozambique were self-drive tourists.

South Africa provides a unique bush tourism experience like the Kruger National Park and Mozambique has the prospect to tap into this pool of tourism with their beach tourism experience (FIAS, 2006:i). South African people and businesses have made considerable investments in Mozambique (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). This increased demand and growth is still development and it impacts on the country and its people, types of development, priorities and change.

3.7 IMPACT OF TOURISM

Acknowledged impacts from the tourism sector are the fluctuations in entrée to services and infrastructure, the deviations in access to natural resources, the access to new networks and connections, community organisations, the enlarged access to markets and the understanding thereof and other service and language skills (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:61-62). Tourism is a diverse sector with a range of economic opportunities ranging from infrastructure, transport, accommodation, education, communication, protected areas, health immigration and customs (Spenceley & Batey, 2011:3).

Tourism could grow local economies by providing additional income while restoring the social capital and the culture giving a sense of community pride (Duttagupta, 2012:2).

The benefits to local rural communities comprise skills development and improved social welfare, training, employment and other income-generating opportunities whether directly or indirectly (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:21; Spenceley, 2008:182). Tourism can facilitate micro-entrepreneurship through the informal and formal economies. Traditional skills amongst women are promoted, which gives them a sense of empowerment and the capacity to participate in decision making (Scheyvens, 2000:246).

Many of the impacts are not limited to tourism only but tend to come hand-in-hand with modification in all of its forms, such as the drift from urban to rural areas for work and the impact of the internet and television on the poor (Beeton, 2006:203).

Positive and negative impacts of tourism are well known and recognised. Through the SPDTM, a vision and implementation strategy was formulated to maximise the positive impacts of the tourism industry on society and to minimise or even to eliminate the negative impacts (SPDTM, 2003:12). Tourism is not exempt from assured negative implications i.e. the exploitation of natural resources or abuse of foreign investment, resulting in economic leakages, commodification and the consequential degradation of local culture are some of the unsavoury effects of tourism practices (Brown & Hall, 2008:847; ILO, 2011:15). Rapid and poorly planned tourism related development results in destruction and deteriorating environment and resources (Honey, Vargas, Durham, 2010:10,79).

Tourism impact could be assessed by its negative or positive impacts on the local population and the environment (ILO, 2011:15). Spenceley, Ashley and de Kock, (2009:20) indicate there are three types of impact that tourism can have on the poor:

- Earning income.
- The impacts on the natural and cultural environment in which they reside.
- Development of rural/local economies and people's livelihoods.

These translate to economic, social and environmental impacts.

3.7.1 Economic impacts of tourism

Despite unselfish and socially acceptable reasons often given for the promotion of tourism development it is the economic benefits that underscore the importance of this sector (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:129; Fletcher, 2013:145). Creating a climate conducive to investment in tourism encompasses the development of a wide range of destinations, products and tourist attractions. This will lead to the upliftment of local economies by providing the opportunities needed for the creation of small, micro, and medium businesses. The strengthening of the economic links between sectors will reduce the imported component of tourism goods and services and thereby minimise not only leakages but also reduce the impact of internal or external threats (IFC, 2007:5). The contribution from tourism, leisure and recreation to national economies and the traditional GNP frequently underestimated the true contribution (Tribe, 2012:279). GDP contribution in 2013 for tourism and travel was MZN32.7bn totalling 7.6% of the country's GDP (WTCC(Moz), 2014:1).

Ivanovic, Khunou, Reynish, Pawson, Tseane and Wassung (2009:271) and Winters, Corral and Mora, (2013:193) provide us with three indicators which provide information on the positive economic impacts of tourism in an area or country:

- Tourism contribution to the GDP.
- Foreign exchange earnings.
- Employment opportunities.

Potential economic effects of tourism and the area of impact are: employment, wages, seasonality, supplying of the tourism sector, demand from tourists for products, local ownership to reduce leakages, SMME development, diversified economy and improved standard of living (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:124-183,) understanding of market and improved language and other skills (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:61). Underwriting factors of tourism and leisure activities according to Tribe (2012:282-297) are, employment, wages, taxation, possible multipliers and inflation and government policies

- Economic growth

The Ministry of Tourism was created in 2000 after the Mozambique government acknowledged the opportunities in job creation and economic growth. In the Strategic plan for development of tourism in Mozambique (SPDTM) the importance of economic growth is highlighted. Tourism contributes to infrastructure development, improving roads, availability of electricity and clean water. Developing amenities and other add-on products and services, benefits all. Contributing to the countries balance of payment; adding receipts from tourists into the current and capital account, creating Government revenue through tax, income, payroll tax and VAT (Keyser, 2002:285). In a study done by Nhantumbo (2009:103) in Inhambane Mozambique, it was found that between 70% and 90% of the respondents agreed that tourism increases the quality of infrastructure.

- Foreign exchange earnings

Especially international tourists bring in valuable international currency to the country, which needs to be exchanged for the local currency to buy goods and services. This forms part of a country's foreign exchange earnings, which is needed by each country to do business with the rest of the world. Foreign exchange due to international tourists who bring in foreign currencies is huge, with an expected 2 137 000 international tourist arrivals in Mozambique for 2014 (WTTC(Mos), 2014:5). Foreign exchange earnings are mostly from South Africa, due to port, rail fees and monies received by Mozambican citizens working in S.A. (Hofmann, 2013:108). International business tourism accounts for nearly half of the value of all foreign tourism in Mozambique (Jones, 2010:690).

- Employment opportunities

The economic sector in tourism is one of a limited number of factors that can provide growth and employment of the magnitude that is a prerequisite to making a difference in Mozambique and the country's quest to alleviate poverty. As a labour intensive industry, tourism integrates and links to diverse economic sectors, linking food and beverage, transport, accommodation, financial services, agriculture, construction and handcraft making as additional add-ons in the tourism business. Not only is tourism a

labour intensive industry (Neto, 2003:215) but it also provides local populations with the indirect benefit of the tourism employees spending their wages locally (Spencely, 2011:3) creating a multiplier effect (Cooper, 2012:61). It is important to distinguish that, while tourism creates jobs and contributes to economic growth, it is not automatically a formula for poverty reduction (ILO, 2011:10). Direct employment by tourism and travel in Mozambique in 2013 was 273 000 jobs, with a total contribution of 718 000 jobs (direct, indirect and induced) (WTCC(Moz), 2014:1).

- Improved living standards

Communities benefit through new infrastructure, new roads, amenities and services. Employment opportunities, wages or business possibilities from tourism could be used to improve their livelihood. More opportunities, increased awareness of markets and trends, language and other skills acquired, networks and new contacts, improved communication channels and understanding of markets and access directly to tourists could be extremely beneficial to local communities (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:61).

- Share in infrastructure

New facilities like hospitals, access to electricity, new roads or improved roads would have a positive effect on the local livelihood in Mozambique (Duttagupta, 2012:3; Dominguez-Torres & Briçeo-Garmendia, 2011:3). Local communities share in business opportunities and new infrastructure is beneficial to tourist and local alike. Airports, roads, shopping centres, restaurant and other services are shared by tourists and local residents (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:298; George, 2008:304).

Negative economic impacts can be:

- Leakages

Money leaves the country, due to foreign ownership of tourism enterprises. Leakages also occur when products or services are imported, even taxes and savings means money that is taken out of circulation (Saayman 2000:117; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:78; Lejarraga & Walkenhorst, 2010:421; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013a:153). Wages to expatriates,

management fees or royalties for international franchises, payment to tour operators and airlines and marketing are added leakages (George, 2008:292). Leakages due to foreign ownership are a real threat (STDTM, 2004:12; Mbaiwa, 2011:1052) and the extent need to be determined (Salençon, 2004:64). Leakage through repatriation of profits by foreign owners and opportunity costs, where tourism may not be attuned with other industries in the area or most favourable for revenue-generation in the area at all, can also develop into a major concern (Spenceley & Batey, 2011:3). Imported goods and services are another example of an economic leakage, where money flows out of the country (Keyser, 2002:289). Leakages reflect that community's incapability to harvest the benefits of tourism (Mbaiwa, 2005:170). Sixty percent of tourism businesses in the Inhambane district are foreign owned and only 40% are owned by Mozambicans (Nhantumbo, 2009:94) creating possible leakages back to the country of origin.

- Seasonality

Negative impacts could be seasonality (Guha & Ghosh, 2007:60, Bolwell & Weinz, 2008:29; Truong, Hall & Garry, 2014:15), due to the weather and holiday patterns. Seasonality increases unemployment due to peak and low season, creating a temporary, casual and part-time work force (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:280). In Bilene, a 70% occupancy in high season drops to under 10% in low season, affecting the tourism industry and income tremendously (Jones & Ibrahim, 2008:7). Inhambane's hotels have a low occupancy rate of 17% with high seasonal fluctuations and tourists stay (Mutimucuo, Suurna & Laumans, 2010:2).

- Dependence

Setting up and operating a business in Mozambique is a challenging and relative costly process (Sharma & Christie, 2010:290). Dependence due to the absence of other options for employment, education, business sectors and permanent employment is a real threat. Seasonality can also create a dependence to exploit tourists and casual employment to cover and survive in the off-peak season (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:280). Dependence on selling crafts to tourists can lead to aggressive selling, driving tourists

away from a destination (Truong *et al.*, 2014:15). The risk associated with excessive dependence on tourism can lead to major economic crises, especially in third world countries with the impact of a natural disaster, terrorist activities or political unrest (George, 2008:300). Dependence on tourism relates to tourism receipts relative to total GDP, the effect of inflation, the movement in value of international currencies like the US dollar and trade deficits that could be created due to the exchange rate (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013a:149). Dependence on foreign aid and investment is, for Mozambique, a major reality for the future (PARPA II, 2006:147; van der Boom, 2011:30).

- Vulnerability

Low wages due to a large component of the staff requiring semi-skilled or entry level competencies. The requirement for only moderate formal education for jobs in the tourism industry results in many businesses operating on low profit margins which results in low salaries (Beeton, 2006:224). The minimum monthly wage is annually reviewed and stands currently around the equivalent of US\$65 per month for service and industry workers and up to US\$3 500 per month for management level employees (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). In certain destinations US\$1 reaches the poor for every US\$4 spent by a tourist (Mitchell, 2012:472). Vulnerability due to natural disasters and destruction of resources is one of the major impacts on the poor; not being able to recover from such an event. Mozambique is known for its floods due to its low lying areas and major river systems. Cyclones and floods are experienced on a regular basis and recovery can take years. Mozambique experienced floods in 2013, which destroyed crops, infrastructure and resulted in higher food prices due to imports and the exchange rate (IMF, 2013:39).

- Increased prices

Increased prices of products and property are direct results of tourism and the increased demand, which could impact negatively on the local community. Strong currencies of foreigners buying property or dominating markets, increases prices for the local population (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:281). The cost of essential goods and services has

increased, resulting in a higher cost of living (Honey, *et al.*, 2010:78; Jomehpour & Ahmadi, 2011:11), growing food, insecurity and the rising costs of living are undermining the living standards in Mozambique (Hofmann, 2013:115).

Economic impact from tourism is essential from both a poverty perspective and sustainable development outlook (Mitchell & Faal, 2007:460). The case study on Praia do Bilene is a valuable example as it is an established tourism destination in Mozambique and has a high concentration of tourism operations (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2007:11-13). The total tourism spending in Bilene for a year is about US\$2.8 million (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:7), which correspond to approximately US\$420 per resident of the relevant administrative area. Tourism in Bilene is substantial as the population is very small and there is also the absence of other formal sector employment opportunities. In Bilene 60% of the population lives below the poverty line (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:7). Tourism contributes directly to about 400 jobs in Bilene, of these employees, approximately 60% have a basic education (Jones & Ibrahimo, 2008:8).

Table 3.5: WTTC Economic contribution of Travel & Tourism in Mozambique: Real 2012 prices

 The economic contribution of Travel & Tourism: Real 2012 prices								
Mozambique (MZNbn, real 2012 prices)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013E	2023F
1. Visitor exports	6.4	6.4	7.1	8.4	8.1	8.5	8.5	12.9
2. Domestic expenditure (includes government individual spending)	9.3	10.6	11.2	8.3	10.9	12.1	12.8	23.8
3. Internal tourism consumption (= 1 + 2)	15.6	17.0	18.3	16.7	19.0	20.5	21.3	36.7
4. Purchases by tourism providers, including imported goods (supply chain)	-6.6	-7.1	-7.6	-7.0	-7.7	-8.3	-8.6	-14.6
5. Direct contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP (= 3 + 4)	9.1	9.9	10.7	9.7	11.3	12.2	12.7	22.2
Other final impacts (indirect & induced)	5.4	5.9	6.4	5.8	6.7	7.3	7.6	13.3
6. Domestic supply chain								
7. Capital investment	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.3	5.4

Source: WTTC (2013:12)

Tourism is perceived to contribute economically by generating employment and alleviating poverty. As a result of active participation by local communities in tourism development their standard of living is expected to improve (TFCATDP, 2005:5).

Given the current structure of the tourism sector, its potential for expansion may need a modified view in which a multiplier process might be reliant on scarce factors of production. The multipliers have been adjusted to extend their dependence on physical capital and highly skilled human capital (Jones, 2007:43). As a result, tourism supplies are not as attractive a contender for demand stimulus as before, making tourism a relatively moderate sector in economic terms (Jones & Ibrahim, 2008:9; Jones, 2010:686).

Money spent by tourists works its way throughout the recipient economy through direct, indirect and induced ways. Direct effects refer to the tourist expenditure net of the imported component, indirect effects refer to the expenditure of hotels, restaurants etc. to suppliers of their goods and services and induced effects are wages and salaries spent by the local residents employed in the tourism industry or peripheral businesses (Tohamy & Swinscoe, 2000:2; Cooper *et al.*, 2008:137; Blake, Arbache, Sinclair & Teles, 2009:107).



Photo 2: Local selling the morning's catch on the street to tourism establishments or tourists in Bilene.

Source: Researcher October 2013.

In the economic case for tourism in Mozambique paper, Spenceley and Batey (2011:4) highlight potential disadvantages:

- Exposure to risk and exploitation due to naivety and lack of worldly knowledge.
- Community instability due to negative impacts on traditional structures – young and skilled members conflicting with unskilled elders.
- Negative impacts on culture – commoditisation of arts and crafts, adapting song and dance to audience and losing deeper meaning.
- Materialism and individualism replacing social structure of community.

- Loss of access to natural resources – may lead to change in diet or weaken ability to provide for themselves.
- Physical security may be compromised by more outsiders leading to increases in crime, prostitution and drugs.

It must be of particular interest to the authorities to see that the benefits of tourism do not only accrue to small elite but are distributed as widely as possible. These differing impacts are not restricted to tourism but are, in fact, the outcome of modernisation in all its forms.

The foremost pro-poor consequence of the informal sector is that this is a meeting place where thousands of poor people can access the tourism economy (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:44). Due to the large numbers employed in the informal climbing staff of Mount Kilimanjaro a result of 28% pro-poor employment was reported in a value chain study done (Mitchell, Keane & Laidlaw, 2009:5). This demonstrates one of the most successful transferrals of benefits from tourists to the poor living in Tanzania. Key sector responsibilities are the participation of the private sector in promoting and developing tourism activities. Direct employment in Mozambique of 273 000 jobs were created through travel agents, the accommodation sector, air & other passage transport services, restaurants and leisure activities (WTTC(Moz), 2014:4).

Tourism leads to infrastructure development in terms of roadways developments, the public transport system, electricity supply and water supply, benefiting the local populations and tourists alike (Dutttagupta, 2012:3). For real economic growth to take place, there is a great need for tourism to be pro-poor (Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003:1). However, economic benefits are to be considered in conjunction with the social objectives inherent in determining the success of tourism development.

3.7.2 Social/Cultural impacts of tourism

Socio-cultural impacts of tourism can include crime, health, prostitution, commoditisation, staged authenticity and alien cultural tourist experiences (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:177; Flechter *et al.*, 2013:210). Tourism can act as a powerful driving force of change, implanting new ideas, norms, consumption patterns and even behaviour under stakeholders (Keyser, 2002:365). Possible positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism on local people are:

- Renewal of local and cultural pride

The interest that tourists have in cultures, especially in third world African countries, can have a major impact on the revival in cultural pride (Inskeep, 1991:370). The preservation of cultural traditions and places of historical interest often can cultivate a deep sense of ownership regarding the tourism product.

- Promotion of socio-cultural awareness and peace

Tourism as a tool to promote socio-cultural awareness and peace is very successful. Creating a better understanding and knowledge of different cultures and tribes, breaching the gap and misunderstanding between people, their beliefs and customs are important (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:296).

- Conservation and revival of cultural heritage

The interest and opportunities in their own culture provide a stimulant for the protection and revival of their own. Conservation of historical and archaeological sites, revitalisation of traditional dance, crafts, music, dress code and customs are some of the elements in the conservation of cultural heritage (Inskeep, 1991:370).

Cultural degradation, increases in crime, violence, prostitution and alcohol consumption are some negative social/cultural impacts that have been associated with tourism development (ILO, 2011:15). Poverty and social exclusion are synonymous (Wagle,

2005:317), but also contain possible educational and political exclusion (Halleröd & Larsson, 2008:16).

These benefits must never be so overshadowing as to impact negatively on the social unity of the population through the inevitable commercialisation or bastardisation of the arts and crafts or ceremonies and traditions of the local communities (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:187).

Tourism can be a tool for community development and engagement and may also be a tool that can increase the effect of influential communities by growing cohesion and empowering their members (Beeton, 2006:210). There are certain possible negative socio-cultural impacts which could impact on a destination or between tourists and the local community.

- Decline of morality in society

Casual sexual encounters are a draw card for many tourists in the travel industry. The AIDS pandemic has dampened the sex tourism industry. Prostitution is a major industry worldwide, the problem with sex tourism mostly being the illegal side like child prostitution and narcotics (George, 2008:302). New behaviour learned and morals by locals from tourists are increased nudity, casual sex and alcohol misuse. Gambling and criminal activities, like prostitution, crime and begging are associated with tourism (George, 2008:30). Negative impacts such as begging, prostitution, drugs, alcohol, and crime, were found to be an increasing problem in Tofo, in the Inhambane district (Hedberg & Hedberg, 2011:41). The sale of alcohol to tourists and locals is on the increase, mostly with no proper licencing or regulations - see photo of local alcohol shop in Macanetta (Photo 3).



Photo 3: Local liquor shop at a house in Macanetta

Source: Researcher October 2013

- Commodification and stage authenticity

Art and crafts, the performance of sacred rituals and dances for money are examples of adding a price tag to culture. Cultural performances may be staged, reducing the culture to a mere product or business for sale and reproduction (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:299) or modifying the cultural performance or product to fit tourist demand or preference (George, 2008:303). Souvenirs as gifts and memorabilia are often mass produced and of poor quality. Handicraft in Mozambique are crafted in various parts of the country and then sold in markets in tourist areas and cities or in souvenir shops in certain resorts. Wooden statues and masks, bead work, Mozambique branded clothing, jewellery, domestic utensils, and many other handmade products are exhibited for retailing (Nhantumbo, 2009:15). Souvenirs sold at the market in Tofo are estimated to be 50 % Mozambican arts and crafts, and the remaining products are produced in other countries like Indonesia and Kenya (Hedberg & Hedberg, 2011:30).



Photo 4: Curio stalls in Bilene

Source: Researcher October 2013

- Cultural exchange

Learning and copying the western lifestyle, ways, clothing, morals and even language are part of the cultural exchange that happens between tourist and local. Misconception that all western tourists are rich, spoilt people with low moral values, due to the luxury holidays, spending and overindulging, while locals could be seen by tourists as incompetent, lazy leading to the lack of services and products on the western level or standard (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:302).



Photo 5: Local business and beacon at Macanetta

Source: Researcher October 2013

An example of cultural exchange is the influence of South African Afrikaans speaking people on the local community. This local is an artist and hairdresser, known for his singing of the De La Rey Afrikaans song. Photo 5 shows his business at the first T-junction in Macanetta, showcasing South Africa and even the Blue Bull logo of a South African rugby team, is situated in one of the relevant case studies in this paper.

- Standardisation

Expectations of the standard of service and commodities are a major prerequisite for tourists, wanting products and services on a western standard in a third world country, which struggles to provide basics in many cases. Language is a major problem in tourism destinations, where tourists expect English or French to communicate. In Mozambique, the lack of English proficiency has a major negative impact on services and getting employment in tourism, because the local language is Shangaan and the GoM medium is Portuguese (Hedberg & Hedberg, 2011:36).

Slum and dark tourism are forms of tourism, linking people's curiosity and even exploitation of the poor or their situations for mostly economic benefits, bringing in issues like commodification, staged authenticity, standardisation and the alien cultural experiences of tourists (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013c:212).

Social responsibility focuses heavily on philanthropy and volunteer tourism in third world countries is a way of contributing to society and getting tourists involved in the host communities. A philanthropic flow to poor communities arises in various different forms from the tourism sector. Several hotels, tour operators and lodges accumulate donations from guests, whereas other tourism initiatives, especially in the rural areas, make a contribution of equipment or funds to local projects (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:58-60).

Through creating voluntary projects in third world countries, the western countries are brought into direct contact with poverty (Crossley, 2012:236). Such contacts may lead to a shift in thinking and action by the western world. This could create a better

understanding and response by the tourist, leading to more interaction on a personal level with a possible outreach to the poor communities through philanthropy and volunteer tourism. Travellers' philanthropy focuses on the business as well as the traveller and is grounded on the hypothesis that individual travellers can make a difference (Beeton, 2006:206).

Volunteer tourism is a growing trend where the need to comprehend the motivations and desires that lead people to travel to the poor areas or countries of the world. What are the responses of tourists to their encounters with poverty? (Crossley, 2012:236). Who are these growing numbers of travellers and civic-minded explorers that are giving financial resources, talent and time to advance the well-being of the societies they are visiting (Beeton, 2006:206). The western countries need to be brought into contact with poverty through the creation of volunteer projects in Third World countries (Crossley, 2012:236).

According to Lyons and Wearing (2008:6), an alternative tourism 'reconfigures the tourism destinations as an interactive space' where agency, inter-subjective and creativity encounters replaces the passive. Volunteer labour is potentially an ethical model for travel to poorer parts of the world, one that pressures sustainability, reciprocity, and the capability of initiating a different form of touristic practice that evades objectifying places and people and includes the potential to cultivate a sense of social responsibility and philanthropy (Crossley, 2012:236, Lyons & Wearing, 2008:6-7). Simpson (2004:688) found that volunteers were unwilling to accept that poverty, as they had witnessed it in 'developing' countries, was a feature of Western society, instead they went to great lengths to differentiate the two spaces: rather than finding a commonality between the developing and developed worlds, students highlighted the difference and established a distinction between 'them' and 'us' (Crossley, 2012:236). An obstruction is created to the development of empathy with local people, evidence of the romanticism of poverty as the volunteer tourist portrays the materially deprived societies as happy with their ways of life (Crossley, 2012:237).

There has been a very limited engagement within academia concerning volunteer tourists' responses to poverty (Crossley, 2012:236). Although tourists that have originated as helpers, they need to feel positive with regard to the impact their labour and effort is making: poverty can still remain disturbing and intimidating to them (Crossley, 2012:242). A case study in Nkwichi Lodge indicated that the mission is to empower the community, and to promote conservation and provide social and economic benefits for the local communities and not just accommodation is producing results. Through a US\$5 bed night levy and a "visitor payback", funds are created that the Umojio association, representing 20 000 local Mozambican people, could build 5 schools, a maternity clinic, a maize mill and 2 church roofs (Cooper, 2012:107), assisting with training, priorities, monitoring and control of natural resources.

It is important that the social-cultural impact of interaction between the host population and the tourist is managed in such a way as to minimise any adverse impact on the local value system, traditions, customs, lifestyles, dress codes, religious beliefs and attitudes towards strangers (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:193-194). These include the alleviation of poverty, strengthening of the national coherence and promoting education. It must also be ensured that Mozambicans themselves have access to travel prospects and can participate in the planning, development and management of the tourism strategy (IFC, 2007:5).

3.7.3 Environmental impact of tourism

Lastly, too consider the environmental impacts of tourism as set out in the framework by the OECD in 1970. Four categories were accented:

- Permanent environmental restructuring - for example: Construction of roads, airport, hotels, buildings, structures, electricity, dams and reservoirs. Erosion of land, loss of habitat and wildlife or depletion of natural resources (George, 2008:308).

- Waste product generation including biological and non-biological effluent. Pollution created by development, air, noise and waste pollution, contaminating the water and environment. Pollution control (Li & Blake, 2008:23-25) is vital in controlling its impact on the environment, waste, noise, water and air pollution.
- Direct environmental stress such as destruction of coral reefs and dunes. Mozambique's coastal ecosystems are highly sensitive but hold the greatest potential for development of tourism in the country. Change in animal behaviour, change in biodiversity and damage to important sites or resources (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009:332)
- The possible effects of tourism on the population dynamics within a certain area such as migration and urban density as well as rural depopulation (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:161). Traffic congestion, the carrying capacity of an area or attraction are all impacts that have to be addressed by the EIA (Environmental Impact Assessment) that is needed before development begins.

The National Directorate for Conservation Areas (DNAC) is the institution accountable for the general management of all conservation areas in Mozambique; the foremost purpose being to develop tourism. The tourism law no4/2004 emphasises the principles that economic and social development require to value the historic heritage, wildlife, forests, mineral, archaeological, marine and land biodiversity and ecosystems (TFCATDP, 2005:5). Ecotourism has remarkable potential to generate economic incentives in a region attempting to sustain conservation policies and practices (CESC, 2007:6). Conservation areas in Mozambique were transferred in 2001 from the Ministry of Agriculture to the Ministry of Tourism (Soto, 2009:91). Tourism cannot be linked by means of a single industry or sector from an accounting perspective. It is broad set of services and goods predominantly distinguished by the purpose or nature of demand (Jones & Ibrahim, 2008:2).

Tourism covers a wide range of competencies and policy domains. Mozambique aims to ensure that tourism and the environment remain jointly loyal by supporting all stakeholders to develop markets and manage tourism responsibly (Soto, 2009:95). It

made the preservation of biodiversity a priority and also believes that the conservation of its natural resources will aid in sustaining a vibrant and growing tourism industry with a wide variety of attractions for every taste and pocket (IFC, 2007:6). Including exceptional beaches, marine and coral life at Quirimbas and Bazaruto archipelagos and an array of natural resources, fifteen percent of the country is reserved for conservation in six national parks. Six Trans-frontier conservation areas (TFCA) with neighbouring countries have been developed in the drive for conservation (Sharma & Christie, 2010:286). National parks and reserves cover 12% of Mozambique. Adding the hunting concessions, this area enlarges to almost 15% (SPDTM, 2004:22).

Noise and water pollution, waste disposal, erosion of natural habitat and wildlife are all products of development (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013b:178) congestion or overcrowding on roads and beaches (Keyser, 2002:318-3) even conflict due to exploiting/use/carrying capacity of resources and conservation on the other side (Cooper, 2012:80). Air travel due to tourism is responsible for 60% of pollution and therefore a culprit in leaving a footprint in air emissions (Tribe, 2012:401). The impact on resources, (renewable and non-renewable) , altering the ozone layer due to air pollution, other pollution generated by tourism, physical impact on the environment due to development and the displacement or even loss of people, fauna and flora are some of the possible negative impacts highlighted (Tribe, 2012: 398-403). Tourism increases demand, utilisation and creates all these negative impacts on the environment. Coastal impacts in Mauritius from tourism development, mass or local, were identified as negative, even though development shows a positive economic growth on the Mauritian economy (Durbarray, 2004:389). Coastal development is more prone to be tourism related and can impact negatively on the environment (Neto, 2003:216-7). Through environmental impact assessments (EIAs), most countries try to manage, plan, emphasise and control the environmental impacts, to focus on environmental protection rather than an additional costly alternative that is correction afterwards (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013b:181: Cooper, 2012:88). Tribe (2012:390) argues that environmental economics give a platform that well-being is insufficiently considered in the conventional measure of economic growth.



Photo 6: Exploitation of fish resource with nets by locals

Source: Researcher October 2013

Positive adjustments to tourism directly linked to natural resources such as coral reefs, wildlife and forests, can deliver economic justification nationally and locally, contributing to environmental conservation (CESC, 2007:8). Tourism has a high potential to support conservation in Eastern Africa, including the coastal regions (CESC, 2007:6). Inland and coastal routes in Mozambique are still in the early stages of development. Doxey's irritation index attempts to measure the level of irritation generated by tourist-host interaction and relationship through tourism development and the Butler life cycle model predicts that the reactions of locals to tourism development will depend on the stage of tourism development (Doxey, 1976; Butler, 1980:5-8).

Even though economic activity and commercial development is increased through tourism, it can lead to increased consumer pressure on natural resources that can directly destroy environmental assets through development. Factors determining environmental impacts are the extent and volume of tourism, the concentration of tourists, the type of activity and the type of environment (Keyser, 2002:338-9). This can be seen in many coastal areas in Tanzania, Kenya and Zanzibar (CESC, 2007:6). It has become clear that an economically successful tourism industry can cause deterioration of the original splendour of natural resources that were initially considered unlimited and renewable (Gormsen, 1997:53).

The tourism growth in Mozambique is mainly on the coast whereas the wildlife based safari section has not yet been established. There are many instances where the poor actually own the resources that tourism is grounded upon, such as natural capital and their cultural activities. However, in the past such proprietorships have been disregarded (Beeton, 2006:202).

The Ministry for the Coordination of Environmental Affairs (MICOA) and DANIDA coastal management has launched a long term programme emphasising natural resource management and coastal zoning in conjunction with tourism development. The Centre for Sustainable Development (CSD) is the implementing organisation commissioned with the project regarding the micro zoning. The CSD has accomplished numerous zoning proposals indicating zones with great prospects for tourism and is in the process of repeating the zoning of other districts all along the coast of Mozambique (FIAS, 2006:xiv-xv). The environmental threats and opportunities (ETAO) team recommended that USAID and Mozambique underwrite the development of an integrated coastal zone management plans for conservation areas taking precedence and environmentally sensitive coastal zone planning for all protected coastal zones for areas of tourism development in Mozambique (ARD, 2002:xi). A study performed by Lacey and Ilcan (2014:14) on Namibia revealed that conservancies can be converted into a product, seen by residents as marketable consumable commodities. This leaves an escalating focus that conservancies being poverty-alleviating or pro-poor serve environmental conservation efforts, and have multiple positive impacts (Lacey & Ilcan, 2014:14). A study done in Kaziranga National Park in India resulted in the increase in communities' stake in conservations, leading to an elevated awareness and management of the assets (Hussian *et al.*, 2012:39).

Will the exploration of Mozambican natural resources be a blessing or a curse to the country as many of the world's poorest countries have the richest resources in the world (Bucauane & Mulder, 2007:36)?

3.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter is to determine the current status of tourism as an industry in Mozambique. This was achieved by referring back to the historical development of tourism in Mozambique taking into account the policies, laws and strategies instituted and implemented by successive governments. Considering the future growth of tourism and how that will impact on the overall Mozambican landscape.

Mozambique has historically played host to a variety of tourists from the sub-continent as well as Europe. Tourism mainly centred on the pristine white beaches, the wildlife and the urban centres that were reminiscent of the colonial past and continued throughout the years due to the excellent weather brought on by an advantageous geographical location. Although there was an extended hiatus directly attributed to the civil war, tourism picked up rapidly upon ceasefire, once again demonstrating its inherent potential for using tourism as an economic booster.

Although tourism has long been seen as a peripheral industry, it has become a priority for most developing countries due to the multiplier effect that promotes faster economic growth and employment. The government's statement that "as an economic sector, tourism is one of the few that can deliver growth and employment on the scale required to make a difference in Mozambique, if managed in a strategic and sustainable way" led to the creation of a ministry dedicated solely to tourism in 2000. Its work was made easier by several laws decentralising authority, protecting worker's rights and laws regarding land tenure having been instituted since 1987.

Several policies and strategies to reduce the incidence of poverty in Mozambique have been tabled and accepted. Of these, the most relevant to tourism is PARPA (Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty). Mozambique remained for many years one of the five poorest countries in the world but, due to the decentralisation of authority from Maputo to the provinces, privatisation of more than 1 400 state owned businesses

and the change from a single to a multi-party system, Mozambique has flourished into a vibrant, economically mobile nation.

Currently tourism accounts for the third largest investment sector in Mozambique and the industry itself created 718 000 jobs in tourism and travel in 2013 confirming a 6.4% total employment. Tourism in Mozambique has shown a better than average rate of growth despite some years of negative forecasts. This growth, however, is overshadowed by the lack of educational opportunities for the local populace leaving them with sub-par abilities illustrated by the fact that 85% of lodges have in-house services seeing to their boats and other equipment instead of outsourcing this to local businesses.

Tourism growth is universally accepted as a good thing, but it is imperative to investigate the positive as well as negative impacts it may have on the poor, the local community and the environment. Impacts are assessed in three dimensions, economic, social/cultural and environmental impact by focusing on the positive and negative consequences of each impact. There are certainly positive impacts to economic growth, social/cultural change and environmental issues but there can also be negative ones. It is in the best interest of the poor and the communities involved to assess these impacts and to promote the advantageous impacts and to limit the detrimental ones.

The following chapter contains findings obtained by 503 completed questionnaires done in the two relevant case studies. Data collected on the perceptions of the local communities in Bilene and Macanetta peninsula in Mozambique, on impacts of tourism and its effect on poverty alleviation.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this research is to assess the perceptions of local rural communities, living on the coast of Mozambique of tourism development and the impact of the tourism industry, especially on poverty. This perception analysis was done by means of a structured questionnaire distributed among residents in selected communities during October 2013. Residents were selected from two towns, Bilene and Marracuene in the south of the country (in the Maputo and Gaza province). Macanetta is an area in the town of Marracuene which is cut off by the Nkomati River, creating an island effect. Bilene and Macanetta are mostly tourism related areas with very few other industries along the coast and lake sides of Mozambique.

Five hundred and three questionnaires were completed in Portuguese with the help of field workers and translators. The purpose of this chapter is to record and discuss the results of the statistical analyses and to make recommendations on the findings of this research. Firstly, the descriptive results are presented and discussed. Secondly, the impacts of tourism on the community is analysed by means of a factor analysis. Thirdly, the results of the Multi-dimensional Poverty Index are discussed and, lastly, the relationship between participation in tourism and poverty levels is explored. This is all based on the perceptions of the community related to the impacts of tourism and poverty levels.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

In this section, the demographic profile of the communities in Bilene and the greater Marracuene are presented. This is followed by discussions on the socio-economic circumstances of residents, the status of their living conditions, their awareness of

tourism and, lastly, a discussion on the poverty indicators. The purpose of the descriptive results is thus to describe the current case study.

4.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

A description of the demographic profile of the respondents includes aspects such as: area of origin, gender, age, marital status, language, education, employment and other demographic details.¹

4.2.1.1 Participating communities

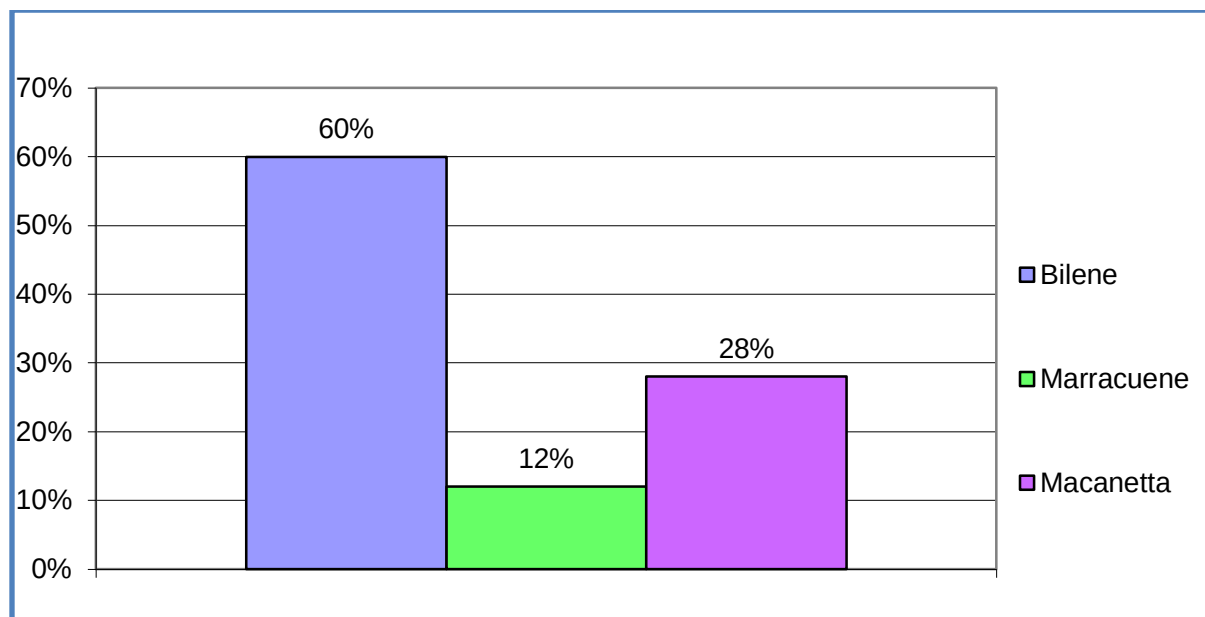


Figure 4.1: Participating communities in this research

A total of 303 Portuguese questionnaires (60%) was collected in Bilene, and 200 (40%) in Marracuene (60 in Marracuene main town and 140 on Macanetta peninsula, opposite the Komati River).

¹ In presenting the demographic profile of the participating communities, all percentages have been rounded to the nearest 1%.

4.2.1.2 Gender

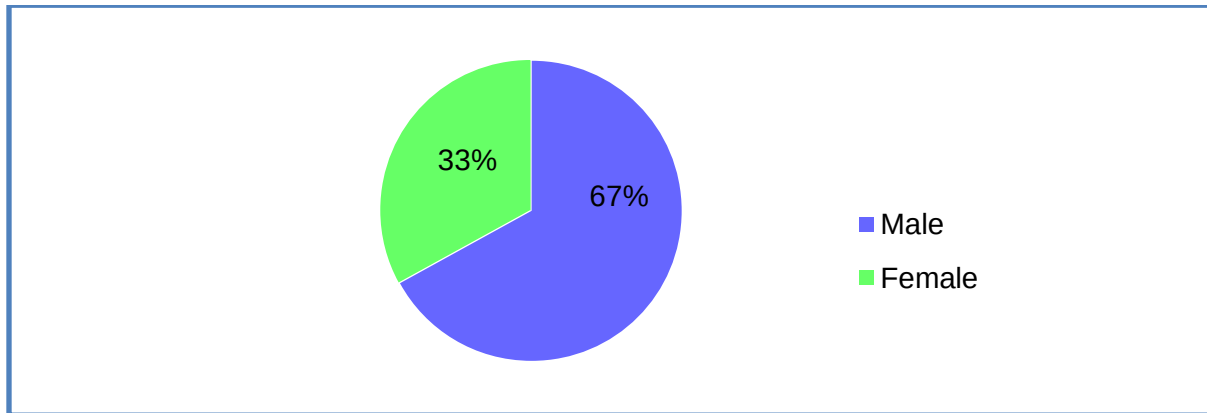


Figure 4.2: Gender of the respondents

Respondents that participated in survey were 67% male and 33% female.

4.2.1.3 Age of respondents

The age distribution of the respondents is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

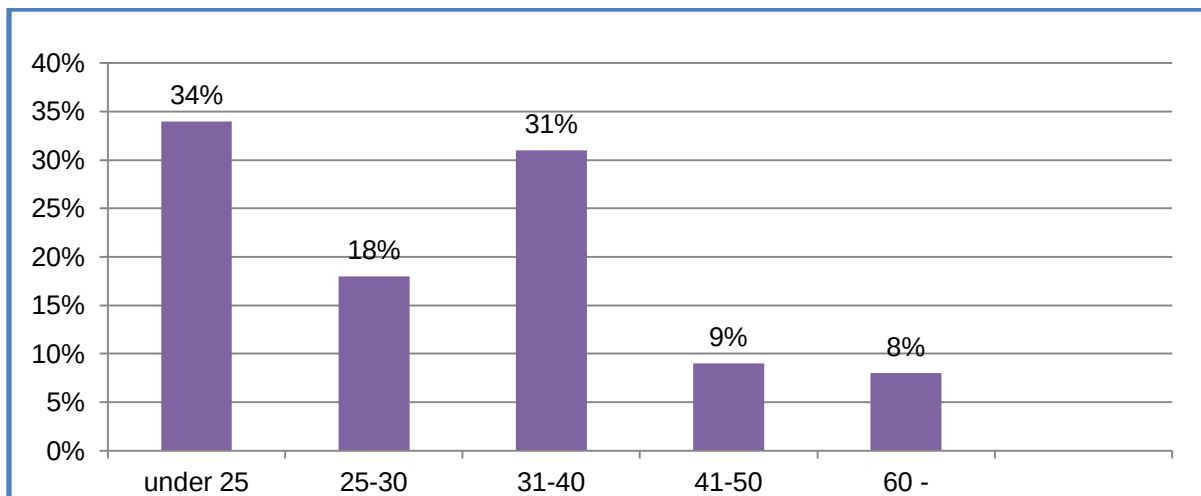


Figure 4.3: Age distribution of respondents

The youngest respondents were 17 and the oldest 92 years old, 34% of the respondents were younger than 25 years and 18% were between 25 and 30 years of age. Thirty-one per cent were between 31 and 40 years of age, followed by 9% between 41 and 50 years of age and 8% were older than 60 years. The average age of respondents was 31.63 years of age which is fairly young.

4.2.1.4 Home language

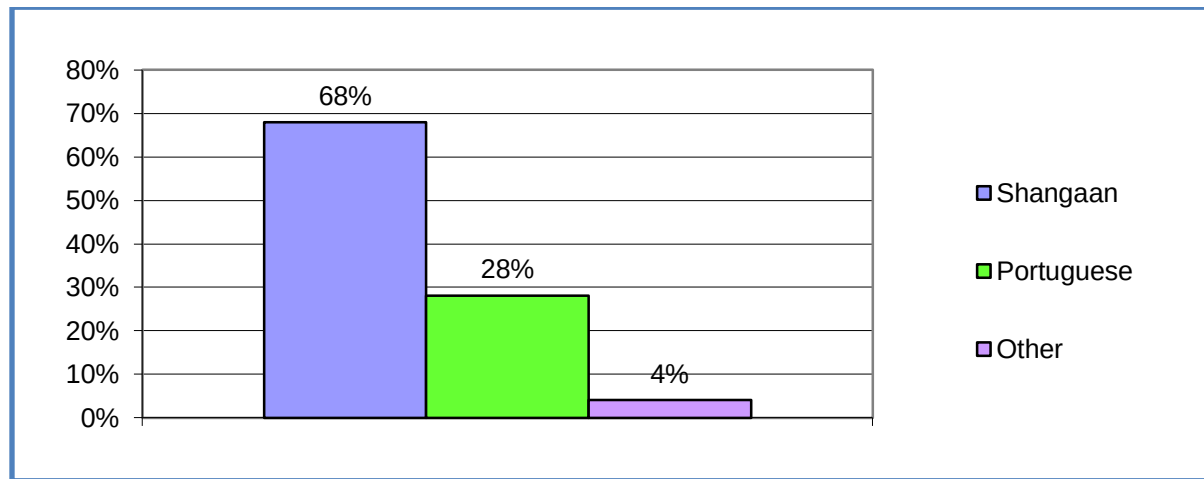


Figure 4.4: Home language of respondents

As seen in Figure 4.4, the largest percentage of respondents' home language is Shangaan (68%), with Portuguese at 28% and only 4% speaking other indigenous languages. Portuguese as the home language is a result of the influence of the Portuguese colonisation of the country before the war. Portuguese is still the main educational medium at schools and GoM. It is clear from the results that Shangaan is the most widely used home language in the households of the respondents.

4.2.1.5 Marital status

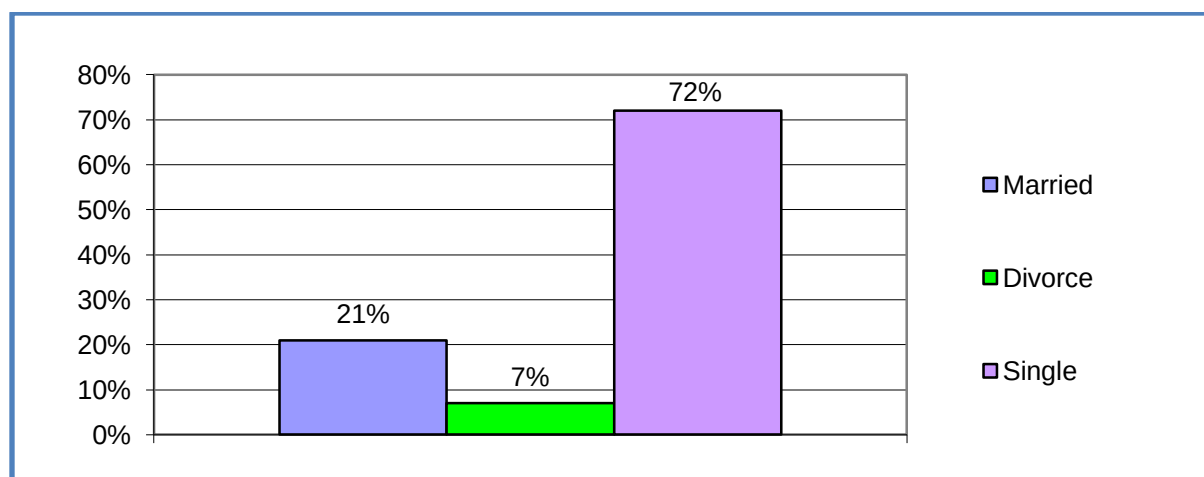


Figure 4.5: Marital status

Respondents indicated according to Figure 4.5 that they were single (72%), married (21%) or divorced (7%). It was evident from the interviews that respondents have partners, but the cost of getting married according to traditional customs is too expensive for the general population. One of the respondents indicated in the last question of the questionnaire is that his dream is “to have one day enough money to legally marry my wife”.

4.2.1.6 Level of Education

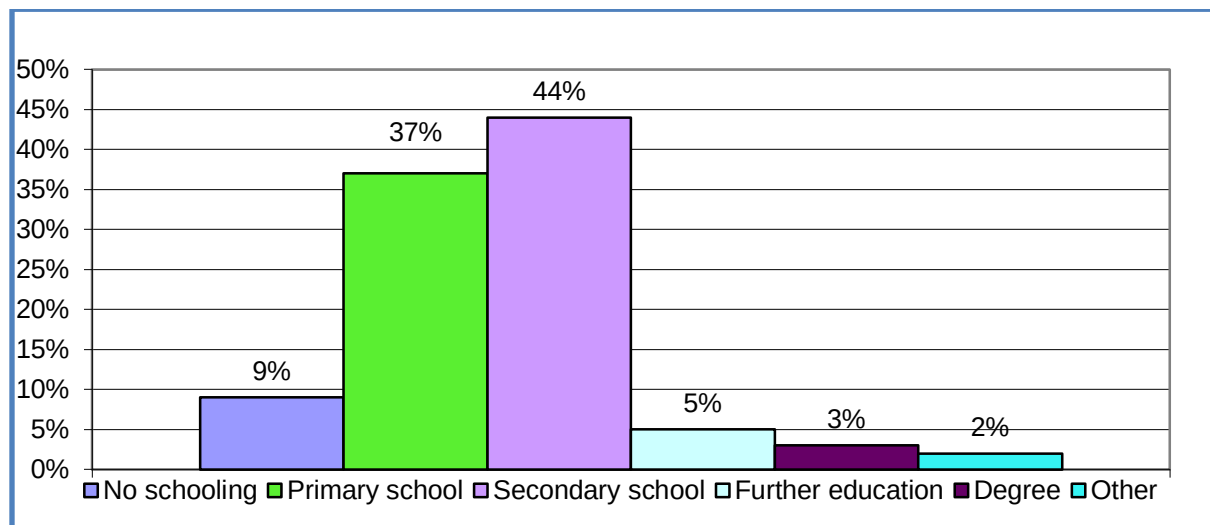


Figure 4.6: Level of education

It is evident in Figure 4.6 that 81% were schooled, with primary (37%) and secondary (44%) schooling. Nine percent (9%) had no schooling and 10% hold further education qualifications related to nursing, education and trade certificates. Children’s numbers enrolling for school in Mozambique have increased in all the provinces (Arndt *et al.*, 2011:13).

Not only has Mozambique the lowest literacy rates in the SADC region but the percentage of female literates is just 37% of the total. In a 2009 survey, it was found that 32.8% of Mozambicans have never attended any form of schooling, only 13.8% have completed primary and 3.4% high school. A low 2.7% of the population has tertiary education including teacher training, college and university. Although enrolment

rates have been boosted to 90% in 2009 the teacher-pupil ratio is at a high 1:61. A dearth of study materials and insufficient infrastructure makes the ambition of universal literacy a difficult goal to attain (SAT, 2012:25). This indicates that education has improved in both the case study areas with a total of 90% of respondents who have either primary or secondary or further education, much higher than the national statistic.

4.2.1.7 Occupation

Table 4.1 presents the type of occupation respondents hold. Fifty three percent (53%) have more informal employment such as farmers, commercial traders, construction workers, entertainment, technical services and 47% have more formal employment such as public service, management, retail, security and food and beverage. Six percent were unemployed and 9% were students.

Table 4.1: Type of occupation

Informal employment 53%	Producers	Agriculture, Farmers, Fisherman	16%
	Commercial	Sellers, Vendors, Traders	12%
	Construction	Builders, Painter, Plumbers	15%
	Technical services	Mechanics, Fridge repair, Electrician	2%
	Entertainment/Sportsman	Singers, DJ, Dancer, Soccer player	2%
Formal employment 47%	Public Service	Policemen, Doctor, Nurse	6%
	Food & Beverage services	Barman, Waiters	7%
	Cleaning service	Cleaners, Gardener	13%
	Security/Maintenance		4%
	Management	Lodge managers, HR	1%
	Transportation	Drivers/Taxi	4%
	Retail services	Hairdresser, Salesman	2%
	Private services	Inspector, Evaluator, Miners	1%
Unemployed 6%			6%
Students 9%			9%

4.2.2 Socio-economic information

Information pertaining to the status of the socio-economic circumstances of the respondents was collected, focusing on employment issues, finances, length of stay in area, property owned and living conditions.

4.2.2.1 Employment

a. Nature of employment

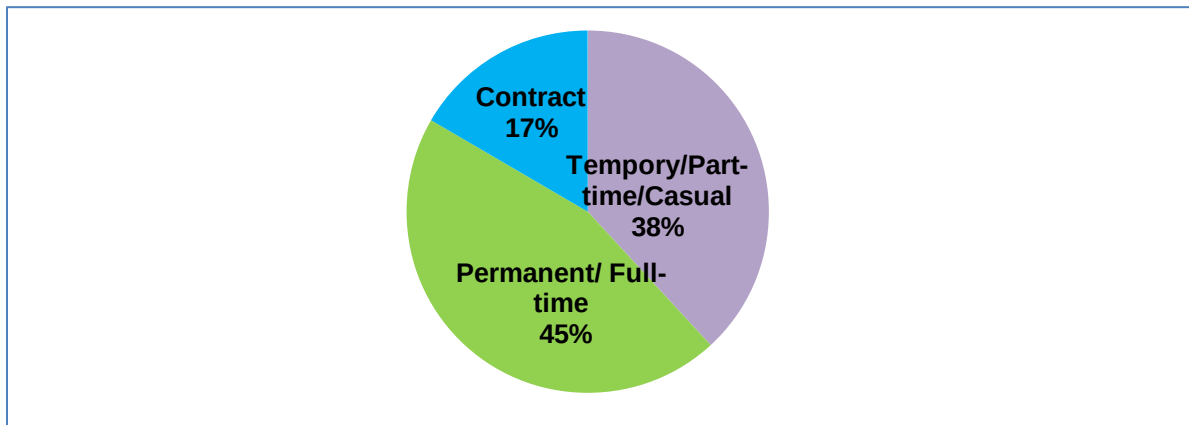


Figure 4.7: Nature of employment

Forty-five percent of the respondents have permanent employment, with 55% employed on contract or part time basis. This could also be due to seasonality of tourism (for those that work in the tourism industry) and the current economic climate. Shortage of labour creates a critical constraint for tourism growth in Mozambique (Jones, 2010:12).

b. Number of jobs

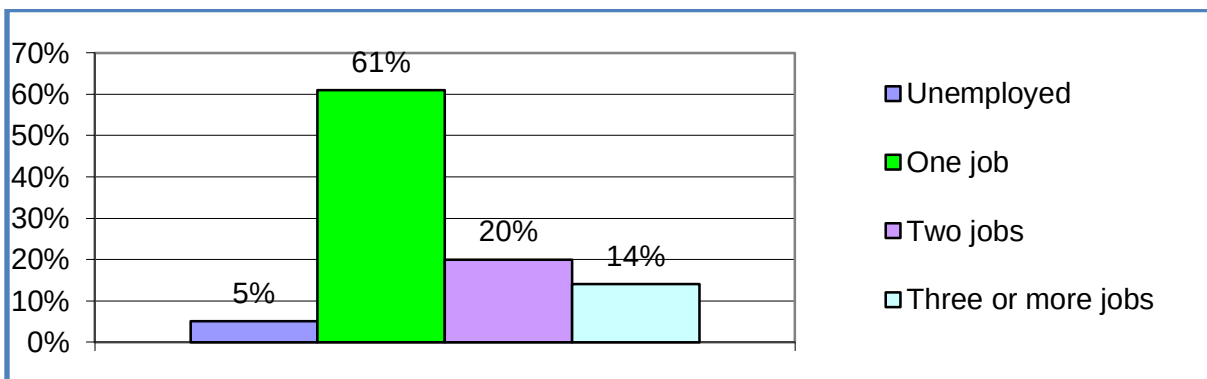


Figure 4.8: Number of jobs by respondents

The majority of respondents (61%) have one job whilst 20% have two jobs, 14% have indicated three or more jobs and 5% were unemployed.

c. Employment in the tourism industry

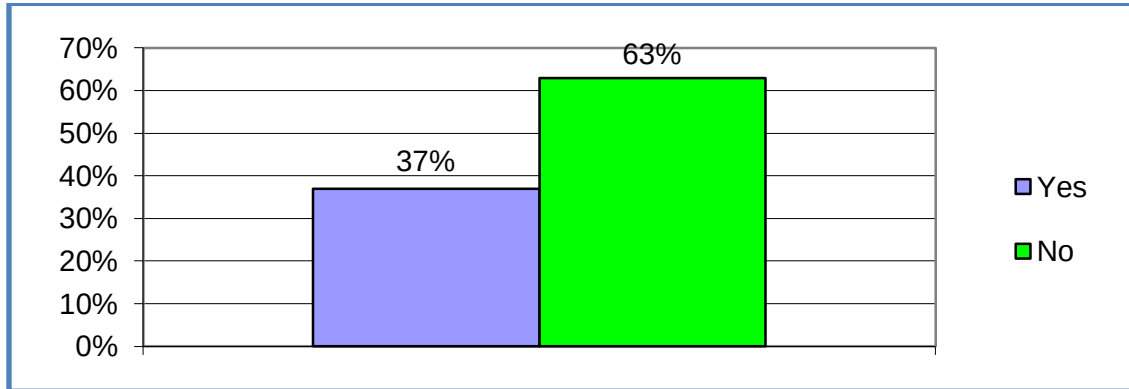


Figure 4.9: Distribution of respondents working in tourism sector

It is evident from Figure 4.9 that 63% of the respondents do not work in the tourism industry and 37% work in the tourism industry. Thus it seems that more than a third of respondents are directly employed in the tourism industry. Previously, in Table 4.1, it was shown that employment by respondents is 53% in the informal sector and 47% in the formal sector, in tourism related jobs like vendors, singers, DJ's, barman, waiter, cleaners, security, gardeners and manager at lodges. Linking with figure 4.9 where 24% work in accommodation and 28% in food and beverage of those employed in tourism sectors.

d. Tourism sector of employment

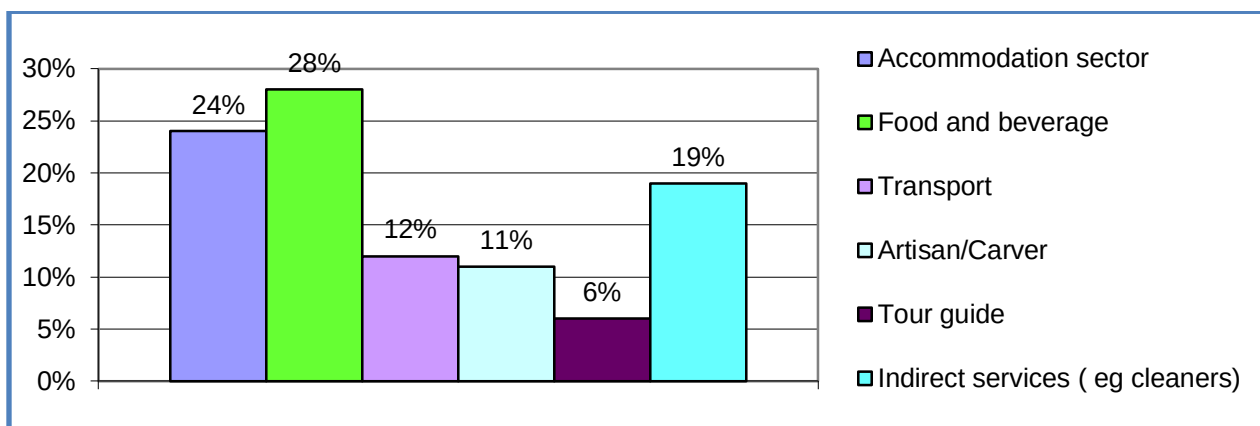


Figure 4.10: Tourism employment sectors

The food and beverage sector (28%) and the accommodation sector (24%) were the major job providers to respondents working in the tourism sector. Indirect services account for 19% of the employment whilst 12% were tour guides and 11% were artisans/carvers. According to Mutimucuio from SNV (2010:5), hospitality is not always the primary choice of employment, since it is perceived in the same way as domestic work but when it is the only type of work available in the area, availability influences their choice. It is thus more important that the tourism industry grow to provide for the needs of these communities.

e. Changes in income

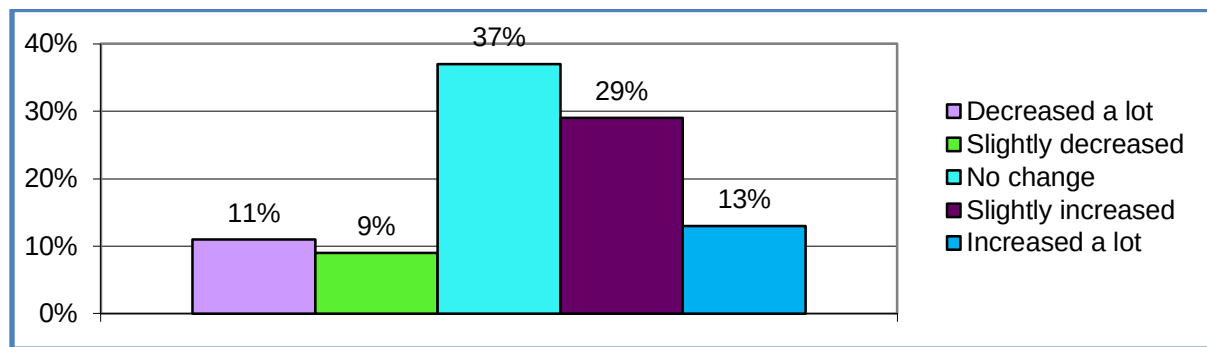


Figure 4.11: Changes in income changes over the last 5 years

Respondents (37%) indicated that there has been no change in their income in the past 5 years, with a total of 20% who indicated that it decreased slightly (9%) or a lot (11%) and a total of 42% who indicated an increase, either slightly (29%) or a lot (13%), which indicated a higher percentage income or salaries raised in the past five years.

f. Number of day's worked per week

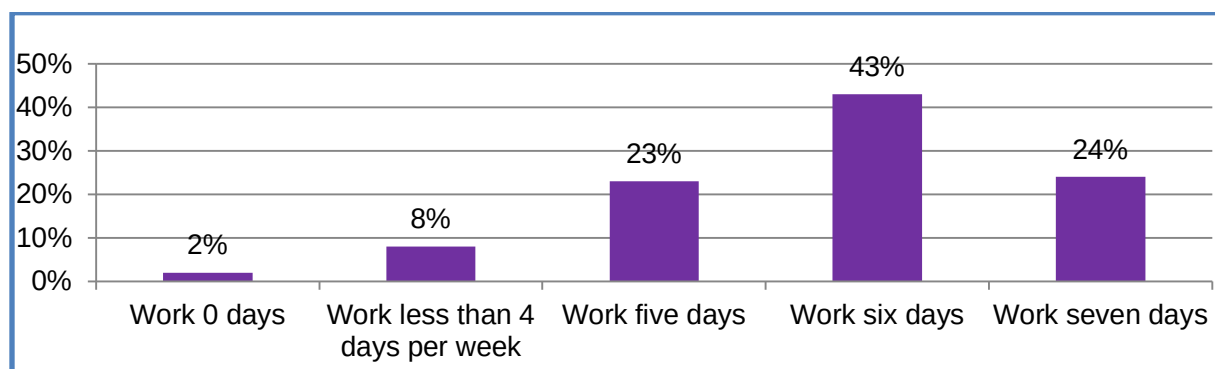


Figure 4.12: Number of day's worked per week

Figure 4.12 indicates the distribution of the number of days work per week by respondents. Forty-three percent of the respondents work 6 days per week, with 24% following a seven day work week and 23% five days, only 8% work less than four days per week. This is also relevant to the tourism industry that is known for longer working hours.

4.2.2.2 Finances

a. Financial management

Table 4.2: Financial management by respondents

FINANCES	YES	NO
Bank account	57%	43%
Debt	31%	69%
Government grants & Pension	23%	77%

Table 4.2 indicates the results of the management of finances by respondents. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that they have a bank account and 43% did not. Sixty-nine percent do not have debt and 31% indicated that they do have debt. Respondents (77%) indicated that they do not receive any kind of government grant or pension and only 23% receive these grants.

Formal banking in Mozambique only applies to 12% of the population with more Mozambican's being city dwellers than those living in rural areas. Income levels seem to determine largely whether a person uses banking services (SAT, 2012:30). Relating to these statistics, respondents are in a much better positions, due to the 57% who have a bank account.

b. Financial support in the household

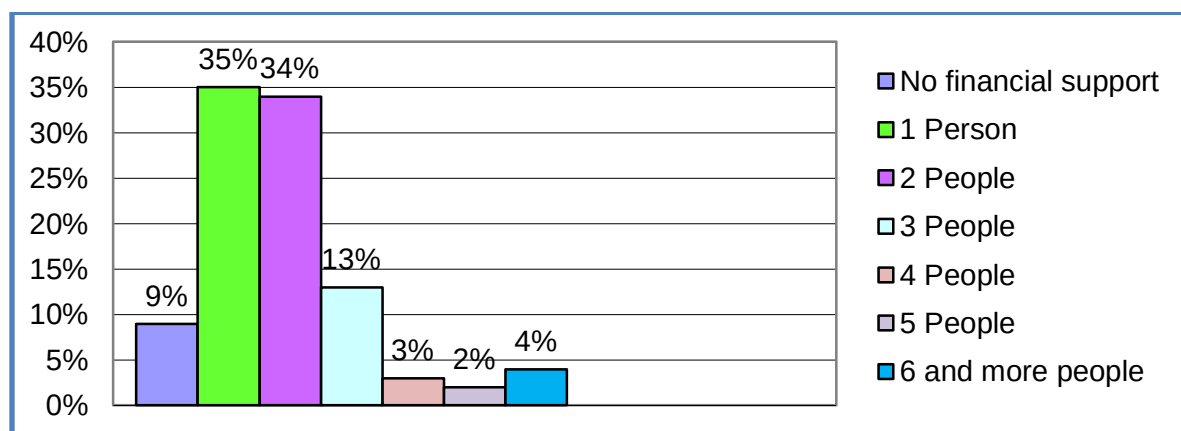


Figure 4.13: Number of people who financially support household

In 35% of the households only one person supports the household financially and in the case of 34% of the respondents two people support the household financially. In 9% of the households, no one is supporting the household financially, which contributes to the poverty status. This leaves the question: how do they survive? Subsistence farming, living of the land, extended family support? Nine percent have more than four people contributing financially to the household.

c. Financial decision making

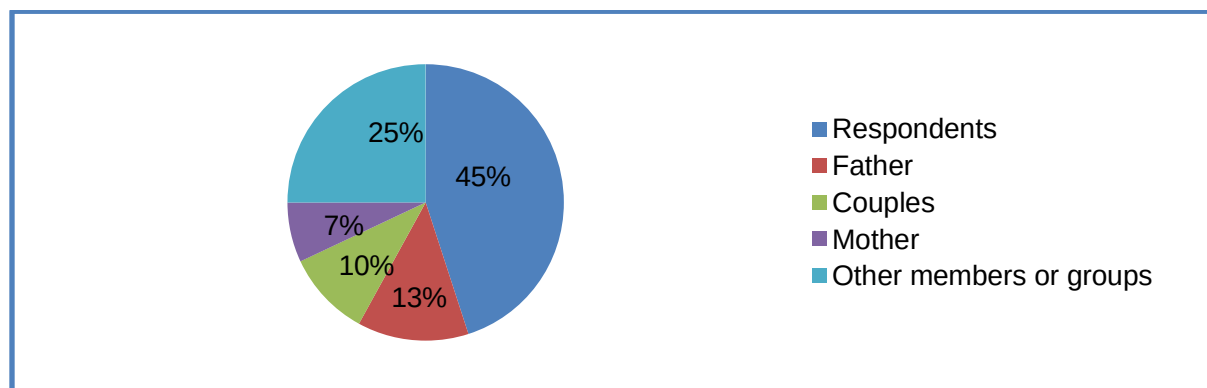


Figure 4.14: Decision about money in household

Forty-five percent of all the respondents make decisions about the money in their households, themselves. In 13% of the cases, the father alone makes the decisions, or

couples do it together (10%) or the mother of the household (7%). The rest is divided in small percentages by the whole family, individuals and other family members.

4.2.2.3 Length of stay

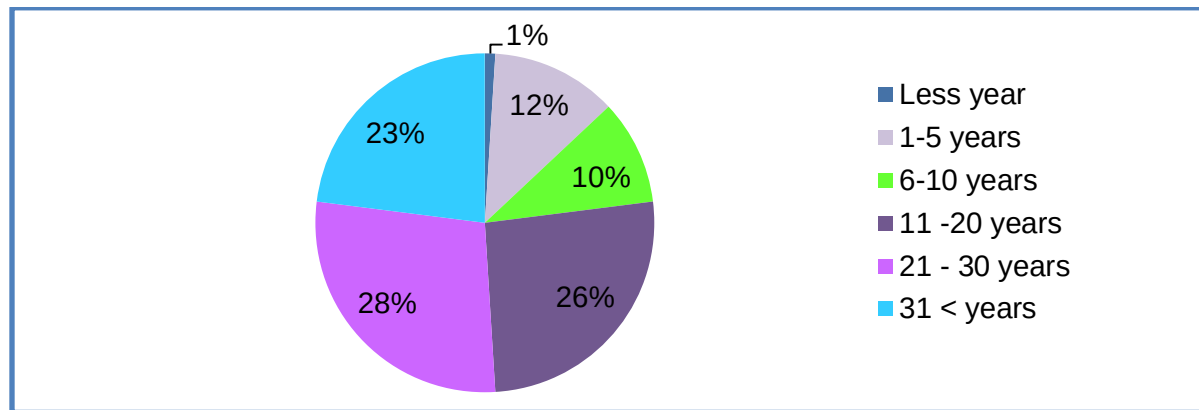


Figure 4.15: Length of stay in the area

Most respondents (54%) have lived in their relevant area since they were born (28% living here between 21–30 years and 23% living here for 31 years and longer). Twenty-six percent have been living between 11 and 20 years in their relevant areas. These respondents have thus lived in these areas for many years and can therefore be seen as attached to these communities. This finding has an influence on the way they view tourism development in their areas.

4.2.3 Property

a. Owning property

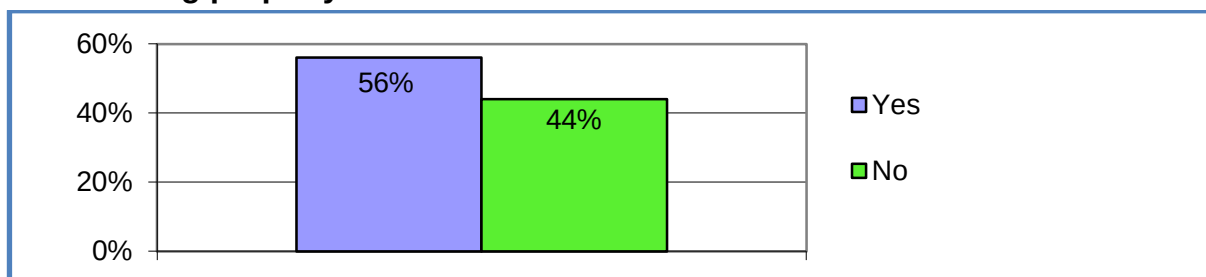


Figure 4.16: Property ownership in Mozambique

Fifty-six percent of the respondents indicated that they own property and 44% indicated they do not own property.

b. Utilisation of property

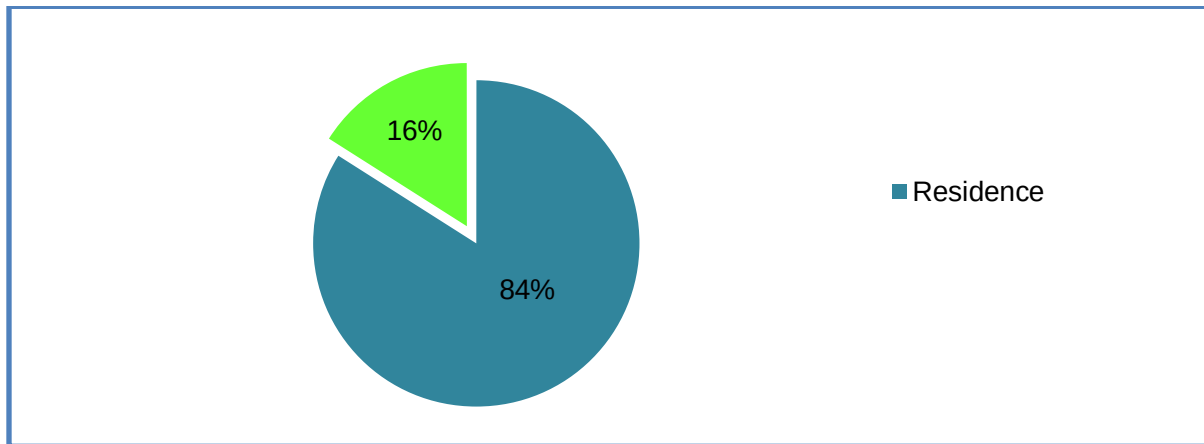


Figure 4.17: Property utilisation

Respondents indicated that 84% used their property for residence and 16% added farming or business to the use, indicating utilisation for fishing, taverns, growing of vegetables and livestock.

4.2.3.1 Home ownership

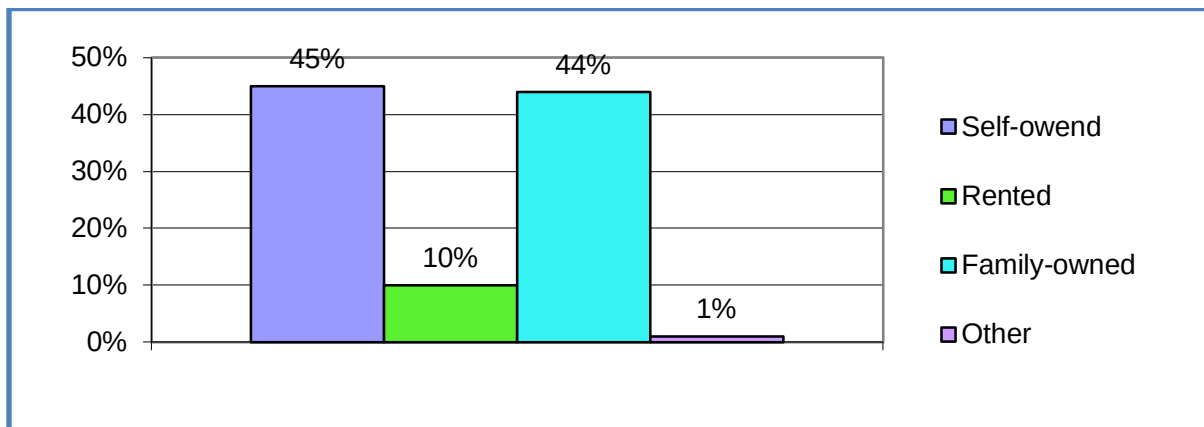


Figure 4.18: Home ownership

Forty-five percent of the respondents own their homes whilst 44% stay in family owned homes. The traditional sharing of property and combining of resources for survival of the family is a traditional livelihood mechanism. Only 10% rented accommodation for their livelihood.

4.2.3.2 Number of people living in the household

a. Number of children in household under 18

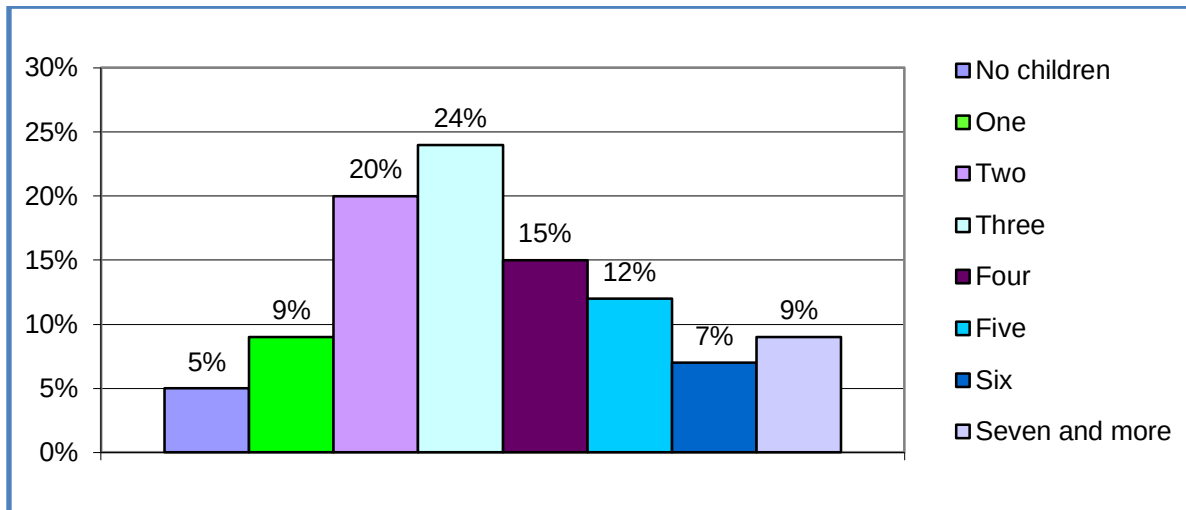


Figure 4.19: Number of children per household

The majority of respondents have three children in the household (24%), followed by two children (20%) and more than 7 children (9%) in the household. This indicates and confirms the existence of extended households and way of living in these two areas in Mozambique. Families tend to have family owned property which creates an intertwined family setup.

b. Adults per household

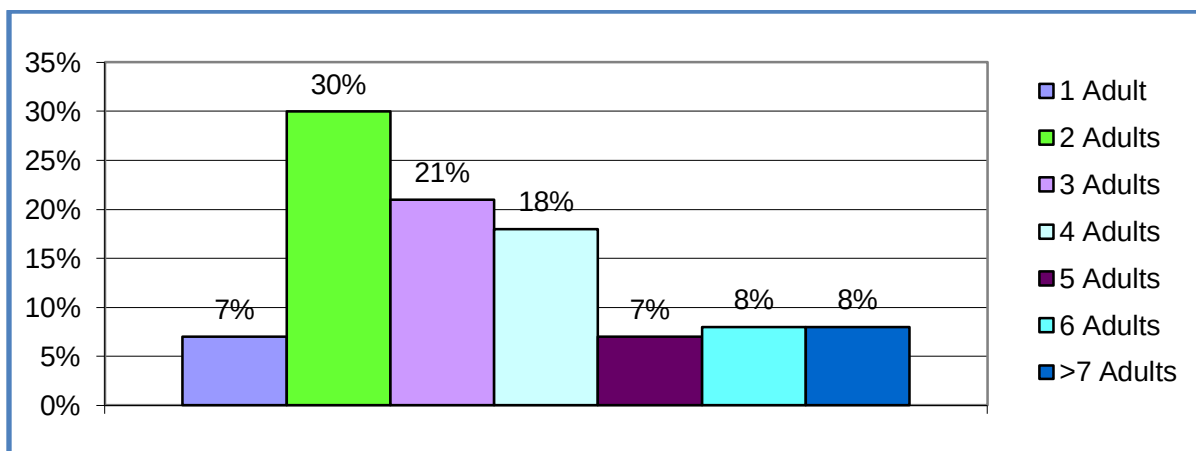


Figure 4.20: Distribution of adults per household

In Figure 4.20, the number of adults per household was indicated where it is clear that 30% of the respondents stay in households of 2 adults per household, 21% 3 adults, 18% with 4, rising to 8% who have 7 or more adults in a household. This totals to 62% who have more than 3 adults per household.

c. Unemployed in household

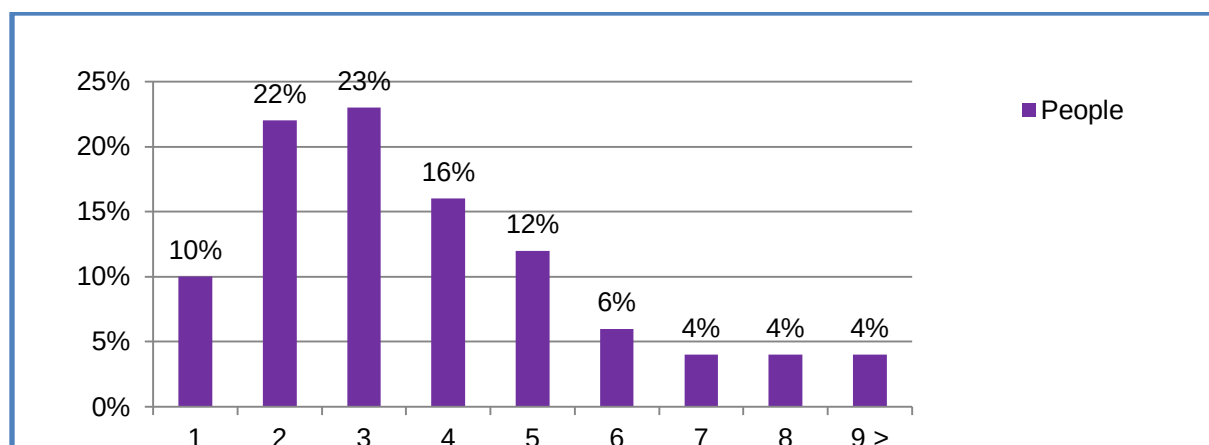


Figure 4.21: Unemployment in household

Twenty-three percent indicated that 3 people are unemployed in the household with 22% indicating that 2 people are unemployed. Only 10% indicated that only one person is unemployed in the household, 16% indicated that more than 4 people per household are unemployed. Six percent unemployment was measured in table 4.1 under respondents, but this data indicate that unemployment at household level is much bigger.

When correlated with the question on owning property (44%), this indicates the existence of combined traditional households or it might be so high due to the number of children present or real adults that are unemployed. This enlarges the impact of the income of those that work in the household even more. Official unemployment figures in Mozambique are said to have declined from 18.7% in 2004 to 17% in 2007. However, most rural dwellers are involved in agriculture and self-employed (66%), or work for family with no pay (30%). They are known as the disguised unemployed (SAT, 2012:28).

4.2.4 Living conditions

Perception of respondents was tested by means of their access to various resources. Collecting information on natural and physical resources owned, accessed or used in their relevant area and household of the respondents.

a. Access to resources

Table 4.3: Access to resources

ACCESS TO THE FOLLOWING RESOURCES	YES	NO
Electricity	73%	27%
Running water	44%	56%
Indoor toilet facilities	22%	78%
Outdoor toilet facilities	45%	55%
Farming land/fields	53%	47%
Harvesting of reeds, wood, grass	29%	71%
Fishing	31%	69%
Ocean	32%	68%
Health care facilities	43%	57%
Education facilities	57%	43%

A high 73% of the respondents indicated that they have access to electricity. Communities that have been born and living on the coast, view themselves as not having access to the ocean (68%), fishing (69%) and to harvesting resources (71%) like reeds, wood or grass. These are all resources that could improve their livelihood and/or create possible income. A very high percentage of respondents (78%) do not have access to indoor toilet facilities and only 45% have outdoor toilet facilities. Basic running water is lacking in 44% of respondents' households. Nearly half of the respondents indicated they do not have access to education and health facilities, which is a major indicator of their low poverty level, because these facilities are available but according to the respondents not accessible. Forty-six percent indicated in figure 4.6 had no schooling or only primary education, which seems to confirm the lack of access or means to utilise. "Access to natural resources, or the effective exploitation thereof, such as fish stocks, beautiful beaches, sun, sand and wildlife can be just as significant to poverty levels as a cash income" (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:61).

b. Fuel for cooking

Table 4.4: Indicates the fuel used for cooking

FUEL USED FOR MAINLY COOKING	YES	NO
Wood	75%	25%
Gas	21%	79%
Electricity	45%	55%
Paraffin	13%	86%
Solar power	5%	95%
Charcoal	62%	38%

Wood (75%) and charcoal (62%) are the main fuels used for cooking. In a personal interview with two respondents, they explained that although they have electricity they use it only for lights and charging of cellphones. It is too expensive to use for cooking, so cooking is done more traditionally with wood and charcoal. The use of solar power is very low (5%), maybe due to the high initial costs. Wood and locally made charcoal is everywhere to be found, due to tropical climate and plant life. Charcoal is a lucrative product made in Mozambique.

c. Ownership of assets

Table 4.5: Assets owned by respondents

OWN THE FOLLOWING ASSETS	YES	NO
Cellphone	88%	12%
Your own business	23%	77%
Own transport – car	14%	86%
Motorcycle or quad bike	4%	96%
Bicycle	18%	82%
Boat	16%	84%
Own house	45%	55%
Fishing equipment	14%	86%
Fishing rod and reel	13%	87%
Fishing nets	16%	84%
Fish traps	10%	90%
Agricultural fresh products	22%	78%
Livestock	16%	84%
Radio	70%	30%
TV	65%	35%
Appliances - fridge, stove	43%	57%
Own stall on street	12%	88%
Own business premises	18%	82%

In this table, respondents had to indicate their possessions. Most respondents owned a cellphone (88%) followed by radios (70%) and televisions (65%). Forty-five percent owned their own house and 43% own appliances such as stoves and fridges. It is clear, however, that in most cases there is a major **lack** of ownership of assets. Respondents own a bicycle (18%), boat (16%), a car (14%), and 4% own motorcycles and quad bikes. Differences in ownership and transport mode used are evident. In figure 4.9, transport mode used was indicated: only 7% use own car and 11% use a bicycle, while 14% own a car and 18% own a bicycle. What is interesting is that the top three assets owned are media related and probably the cheapest to acquire.

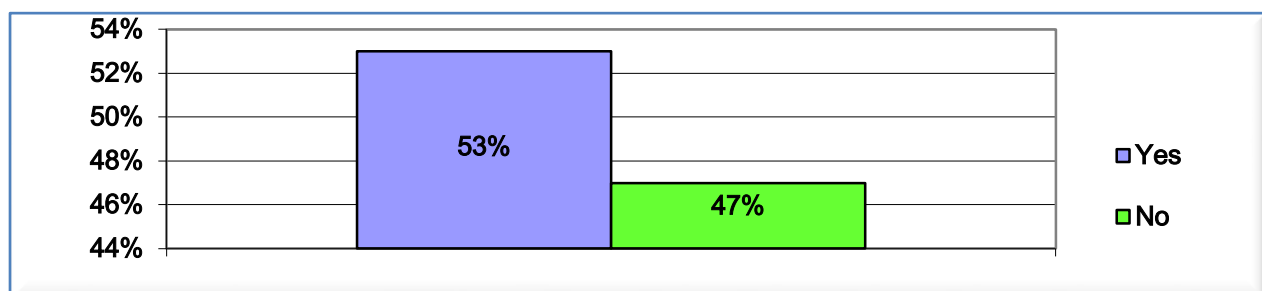
Mobile phone users are mainly educated people with 88% of the users having finished some form of secondary schooling. It has been established that Mozambicans of all classes of income and social standing are willing to part with some of their income for the use of mobile communications and this has encouraged the government in setting up a universal service fund to increase mobile network coverage (SAT, 2012:31).

4.2.5 Tourism awareness and involvement

Tourism awareness and involvement of respondents was obtained, looking at information on participation in community discussions regarding tourism, involvement in tourism businesses and the acquisition of a new language skill by interacting with tourists.

a. Ability to speak a foreign language

Figure 4.22: Ability to speak a foreign language due to contact with tourists



A positive impact is the 53% indicated by respondents who acquired a new language skill by interacting with tourists. This indicates frequent interactions between respondents and tourists and a new skill that has been acquired. English is not frequently spoken; it is third language at school, so the general public learns their mother tongue and Portuguese at school.

b. Respondent's participation in community discussions regarding tourism issues

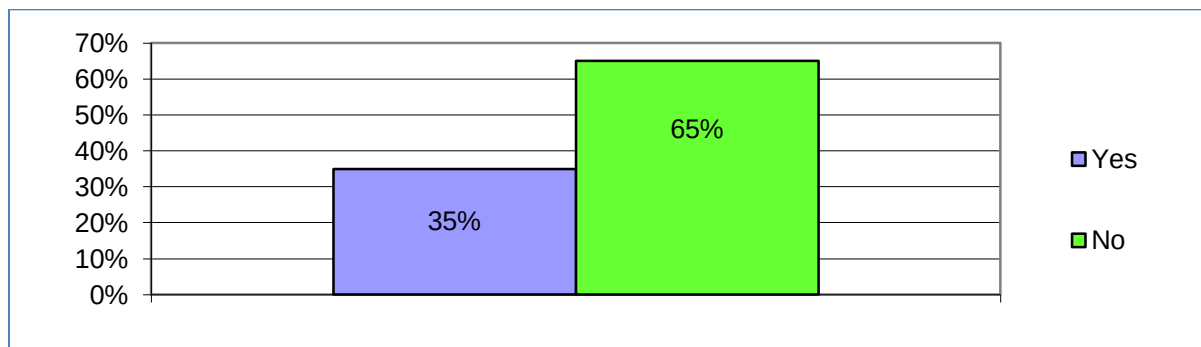


Figure 4.23: Participation in community discussions regarding tourism

From the results, it is clear that only 35% participate in community discussions regarding tourism which is alarming and needs attention. Community participation is done in wards with meetings with leaders, chiefs and stakeholders on various levels and times.

c. Owning a business

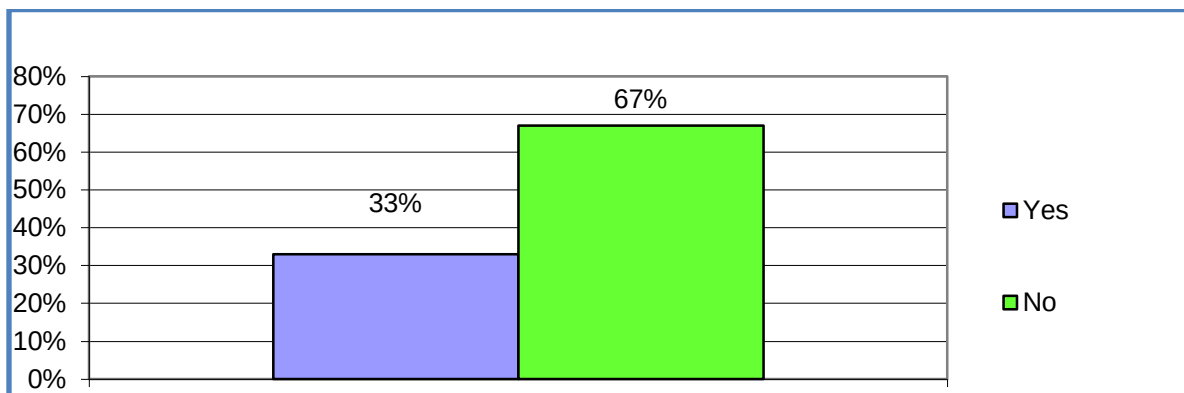


Figure 4.24: Business ownership by respondents

Most respondents indicated that they do not own a business (67%), but that 33% do own a business. No specific major business types were indicated but farming, fishing, selling produce and products were the main businesses mentioned.

d. Direct selling to tourists

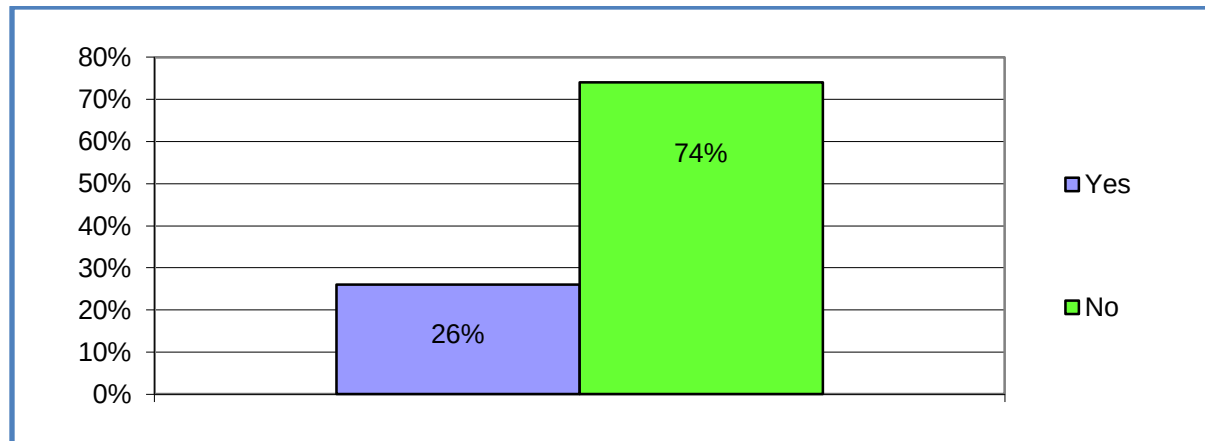


Figure 4.25: Direct selling to tourists

According to Figure 4.25, 74% of respondents do not sell any products to tourists. Only 26% of respondents indicated that they sell their products directly to tourists, which indicates potential for growth in entrepreneurial skills and business. Types of goods sold to tourists were mostly seafood, but also cashew nuts, vegetables, airtime, alcohol and curios.

e. Frequency of selling

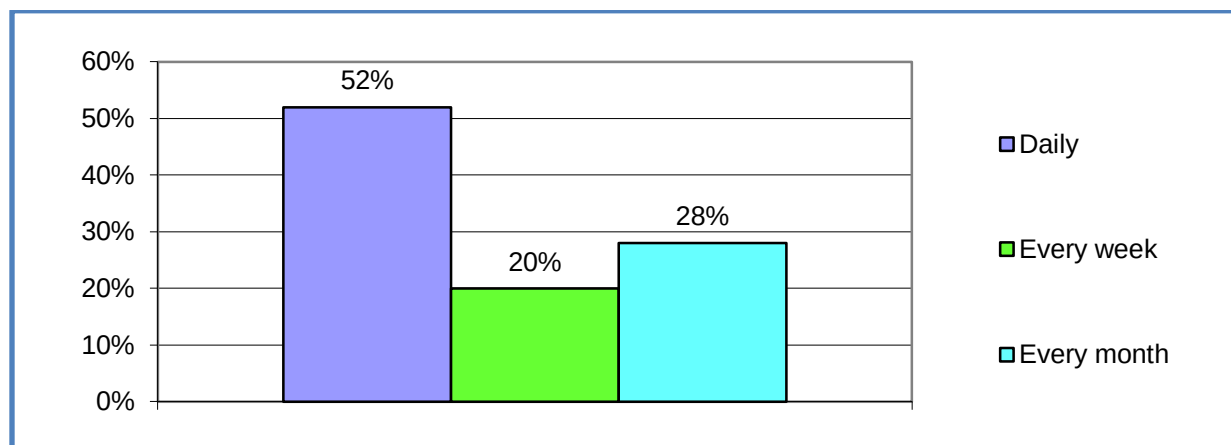


Figure 4.26: Frequency of selling to tourists

Fifty-two percent of the respondents indicated that they sell their products daily directly to tourists. Twenty percent sell products to tourists on a weekly basis and 28% sell on a monthly basis. Products and goods are bought and produced, in the ocean, towns and markets in Marcia, Manica, Maputo, South Africa or supplied and produced by respondents or family.

f. Tourism impacts

Table 4.6: Tourism impacts

BECAUSE OF TOURISM.....	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN VALUE
1. there are opportunities for me to learn more about my community	11%	18%	8%	43%	20%	3.41(1.21)
2. there is more pollution in Mozambique	16%	25%	11%	29%	19%	3.10 (1.39)
3. there are more traffic problems	12%	25%	11%	36%	16%	3.20 (1.30)
4. the price of properties and homes has increased	8%	14%	9%	44%	25%	3.65 (1.22)
5. the total cost of living has increased	6%	14%	7%	50%	24%	3.72 (1.14)
6. the community earns more money	14%	24%	15%	32%	15%	3.09 (1.30)
7. there has been a rise in crime	18%	28%	16%	24%	13%	2.86 (1.33)
8. cultural traditions are fading	11%	27%	15%	37%	11%	3.08 (1.23)
9. vandalism has increased	14%	26%	18%	30%	12%	3.00 (1.27)
10. my everyday lifestyle has improved	10%	17%	13%	42%	18%	3.42 (1.24)
11. the natural environment of Mozambique is protected	9%	23%	17%	33%	19%	3.31 (1.26)
12. there are too many visitors in the area	8%	14%	9%	39%	30%	3.69 (1.25)
13. I am proud to stay in Mozambique	7%	11%	12%	33%	38%	3.85 (1.24)

14. Mozambique's environment has improved	7%	17%	12%	37%	27%	3.60 (1.24)
15. There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning.	13%	19%	13%	36%	19%	3.31 (1.32)
16. my environment is noisier	17%	30%	15%	24%	13%	2.87 (1.32)
17. I learn more about other cultures	8%	20%	17%	39%	16%	3.34 (1.21)
18. new infrastructure has developed	7%	18%	11%	40%	24%	3.55 (1.24)
19. Mozambique has become well-known	6%	11%	11%	36%	37%	3.88 (1.18)
20. local areas, services & infrastructure (such as roads) are improving	11%	16%	13%	39%	21%	3.43 (1.28)
21. more jobs are created in the area	8%	19%	10%	39%	24%	3.52 (1.27)
22. there are more opportunities for local businesses	7%	19%	11%	42%	20%	3.48 (1.22)
23. businesses only doing well at certain times of the year	8%	18%	18%	30%	27%	3.48 (1.28)
24. tourism developments have increased in the area	5%	17%	11%	42%	26%	3.67 (1.17)
25. community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	18%	26%	15%	26%	16%	2.96(1.37)
26. the local cultures are protected	9%	25%	13%	33%	21%	3.31 (1.28)
27. I developed respect and understanding for visitors	7%	13%	13%	42%	25%	3.64 (1.19)
28. the lives of residents are disrupted	21%	31%	15%	22%	12%	2.73 (1.32)
29. my environment looks dirty/ugly	22%	26%	13%	24%	15%	2.84 (1.40)
30. I acquired more knowledge or a new skill	8%	16%	15%	41%	21%	3.53 (1.20)
31. I am employed	17%	25%	8%	26%	24%	3.16 (1.46)
32. I have a business	28%	24%	8%	25%	16%	2.78 (1.48)
33. I can provide for my family	8%	15%	9%	35%	34%	3.71 (1.28)

This question included 33 closed-ended tourism impact statements that required respondents to rate their level of agreement with each on a five-point Likert scale

ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Each item was related to general aspects of tourism development and tourism impacts.

Respondents **agree** to **strongly agree** that due to tourism:

• the total cost of living has increased	74%
• Mozambique has become well-known	73%
• I am proud to stay in Mozambique	71%
• the price of properties and homes has increased	69%
• there are too many visitors in the area	69%
• I can provide for my family	69%
• tourism developments have increased in the area	68%
• I developed respect and understanding for visitors	67%
• Mozambique's environment has improved	64%
• new infrastructure has developed	64%
• there are opportunities for me to learn more about my community	63%
• more jobs are created in the area	63%
• there are more opportunities for local businesses	62%
• I acquired more knowledge or a new skill	62%
• my everyday lifestyle has improved	60%
• local areas, services & infrastructure (roads) are improving	60%

Respondents **disagree** to **strongly disagree** that:

• the lives of residents are disrupted	52%
• they have a business	52%
• the environment looks dirty/ugly	48%
• the environment is noisier	47%
• there has been a rise in crime	46%

The majority of respondents did not necessarily agree or disagree with the following statements:

- Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes – 44% disagree to strongly disagree and 42% agree to strongly agree.
- Vandalism has increased – 40% disagree to strongly disagree and 42% agree to strongly agree.

Respondents have a much divided opinion on the impact of showcasing their culture for tourism and that vandalism is increasing. Both show ambiguous impacts on the socio-cultural impacts scale, leaving an unclear answer as to whether it is increasing or decreasing. Although the perception of locals was measured, one is not convinced as to whether it is seen as more negative or more positive.

The cost of living has increased due to international increase of fuel prices, soaring food prices and the low levels of food production in Mozambique (Arndt, 2011:11).

g. Changes caused by tourism

Table 4.7: Changes caused by tourism over the last five years

	POSITIVE CHANGES	NEGATIVE CHANGES
Bilene	± 230 positive responses	± 57 negative responses
	Improved, better, changed, changed a lot are the general feel by respondents “Thanks to tourism that we have now electricity, running water and better conditions” “Bilene changed in many ways, which now gives us jobs and infrastructure”	“Did not change because of GoM people mistreating the tourist” “Tourist are chased away by officials” “Did not change”
Marracuene	± 33 positive responses	± 20 negative responses
	“Improved positively due to construction building of new infrastructure” “Tourist has increased and Macanetta has changed” “Transformed and improved Macanetta”	“Reduce because tourist do not come anymore” “It brought new kind of life for the locals, income for the government” “Did not improved the area but projects are being launched”

Macanetta	± 133 positive responses	± 20 negative responses
	Improved, changed a lot, new infrastructure, access to electricity and more jobs are the main indicators mentioned by respondents. "Development new infrastructure & electricity" "Yes, build more lodge, restaurant, shop, garage and pharmacy" "Improved the living conditions of the people" "Improved because it was colonised by Boers" "Improved because its colonised by overseas people"	"Because colonised by Boers" "Has not really changed"

Interesting to note from Table 4.7 that 396 responses were more positive than the 97 negative comments on the question "has tourism changed the area they live in over the past five years". Notes like it changed, changed a lot, better, improve were general remarks. Improvements of infrastructure, more jobs and living conditions were specifically mentioned. Negative comments were that tourist numbers have dropped, reasons given were the treatment by Government officials and other officials.

h. The effect of tourism on the local economy

The effect of tourism on the local economies of Bilene/Macanetta over the past five years is discussed in this section.

Table 4.8: The effect of tourism on the local economy over the past five years

	POSITIVE CHANGES	NEGATIVE CHANGES
Bilene	+189 positive responses	- 70 negative responses
	Improved, better, changed "Tourism have affect the economy a lot, specially the commerce, shopping and accommodation"	"Decreased, no change, very little improvement, did not affect"

	"Affected positively, now we see the income of tourism"	
Marracuene	+29 positive responses	- 21 negative responses
	Tourism helped local communities with job opportunities"	"Didn't affected the economy anyway" "It affects it negatively in terms of pollution on the beaches" "Not much because tourist numbers has decreased"
Macanetta	+106 positive responses	-15 negative responses
	"Developed because now there are things in the area" "It has affected people income due to new jobs" "It improved the area in way like having electricity and work"	"Did not change much" "It affects it negatively in terms of pollution on the beaches" "Not so much, money stays at lodges"

Interesting to note from Table 4.8 on the question how "has tourism affected the local economy over the past five years", with 334 responses that were positive and 106 negative. Positive impacts like improved income increase in job availability, access to electricity and the view of more development was mentioned by the respondents. Pollution, money not filtering through to the community, only tourism enterprises that benefit, drop in tourist numbers are mostly indicated as negative reasons.

i. The effect of tourism on poverty

Table 4.9: The effect of tourism on poverty over the past five years

	POSITIVE CHANGES	NEGATIVE CHANGES
Bilene	160 positive responses	- 39 negative responses
	"Well in the economy because we now have jobs, and better living conditions" "Increased salaries" "The economy in Bilene has shown a good development in the area"	"No change in poverty due to tourism" "Not much, tourist very short time in Bilene. Need more business for jobs"
Marracuene	+38 positive responses	-13 negative responses

	"Has reduced poverty" "Has reduced poverty in terms of increase of job opportunities for local people" " Economy increased" "Reduced poverty because it brought improvement in terms of infrastructure"	"Did not correct or reduce poverty but created job opportunities" "Poverty has not been affected has been increasing because of the lack of support of Gov
Macanetta	+107 positive responses	-18 negative responses
	"Tourism gives more jobs and it reduce poverty" "Lots of improvement" "Brought development" "Effected positively. New jobs reduce poverty"	"Poverty in Macanetta has nothing to do with tourism" "They left us with no land" "Prices have increased"

Motivating to note from Table 4.9 that 305 positive and 70 negative statements on the question how tourism has affected poverty in the area over the past five years. Overwhelming positive responses indicate that tourism impacts positively on poverty is their perception. Development of area, increased job availability, job security; improved living conditions and improved infrastructure were given as reasons for the increased positive impact on poverty. Negative perceptions were that tourism has nothing to do with poverty, that GoM is not assisting enough and increase in poverty costs and loss of land. As one respondent has said "Has reduced poverty, improve infrastructure and related aspects like job opportunities, transport for the communities".

4.2.6 Poverty indicators

Poverty indicators containing information on health, child deaths, water sources, fuel used for cooking, number of meals, housing, modes of transport, school attendance and safety was obtained from respondents and are discussed below.

a. Healthcare

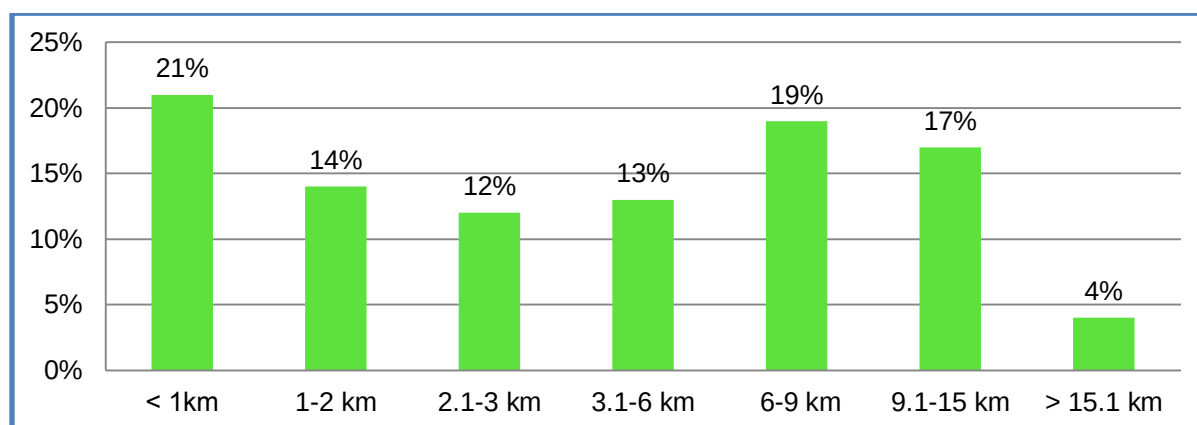


Figure 4.27: Distribution of distances of health facilities from respondents household

Distance to health facilities is, in some cases, quite far, especially considering that transport is very expensive and only 14% have their own cars and 18% have a bicycle. Twenty-one percent of the respondents live less than 1 km from a health facility, followed by 19% that are between 6 and 9 km and 17% that are between 9.1 and 15 km from these types of facilities.

b. Child deaths

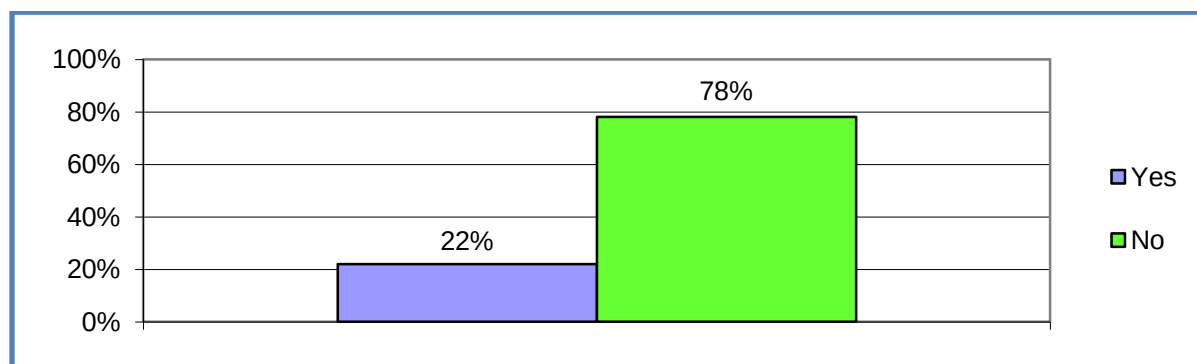


Figure 4.28: Death of a child in the last year in household

In Figure 4.28, respondents indicated that 78% had no deaths of children in their family in the last year with 22% of the respondents that indicated that there was a death of a child in their household, in the last year. Although Mozambique still has the highest birth rate in the SADC region at 38 per 1000 people, the infant mortality rate has declined

from 192 per 1000 births in 1980 to just 92 per 1000 births in 2010 due to access to improved health care. This stands to increase the dependency ratio of the labour force (SAT, 2012:21).

c. Frequency of visits to health facilities

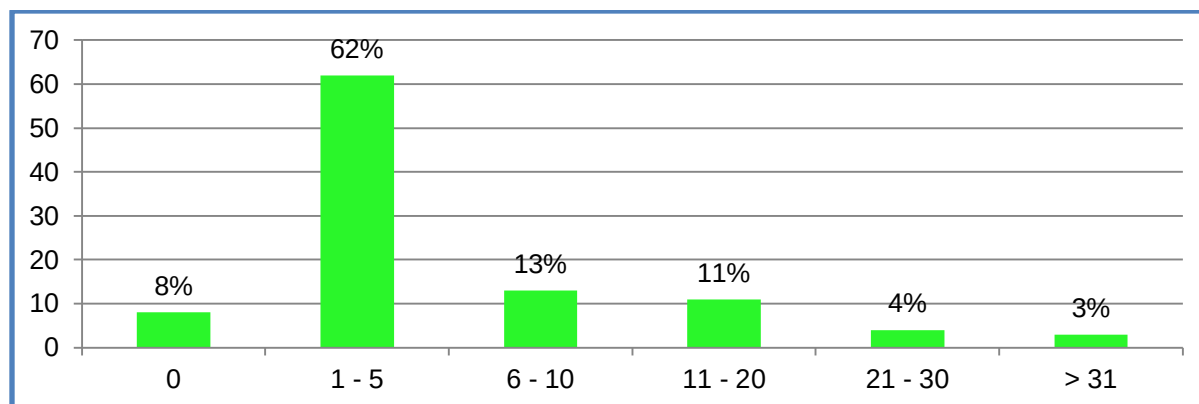


Figure 4.29: Number of times health facility were attended/visited

Sixty-two percent of respondents indicated that they attend/visit health care facilities between 1 and 5 times per year, 13% visit these facilities between 6 and 10 times and 11% between 11 and 20 times per year. Eight percent do not visit such a facility at all.

d. Sickness in the past year

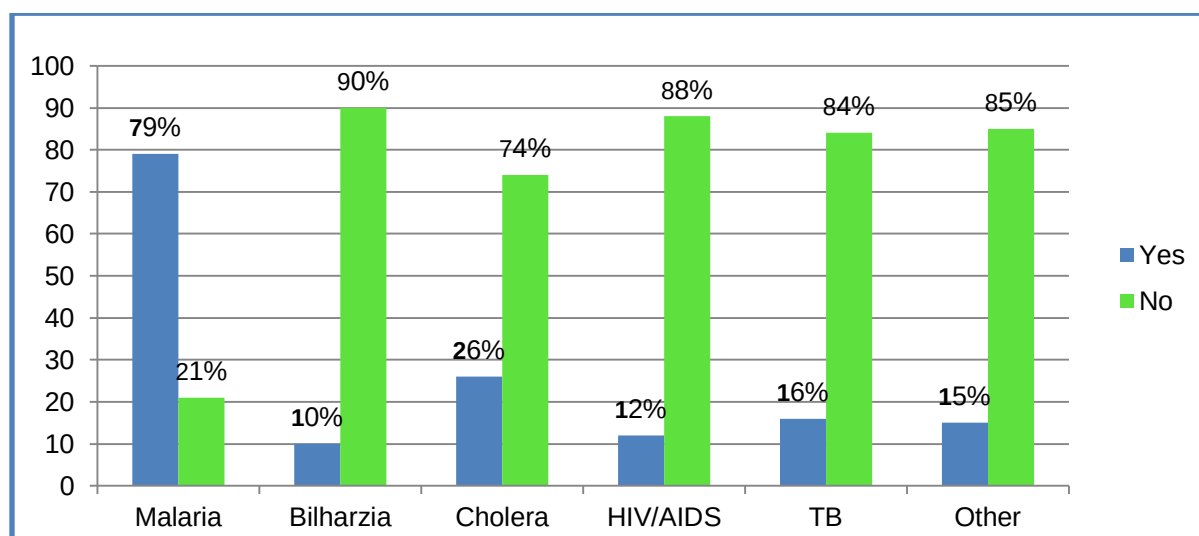


Figure 4.30: Sickness

Malaria is the most frequently diagnosed (79%) sickness according to respondents in the last year. Due to the tropical climate and the water around these destinations, this comes as no surprise. This was followed by occurrences of cholera (26%), TB (16%) and HIV/AIDS (12%).

Even though Mozambique signed the Abuja Declaration with the goal of spending 15% of the GDP on healthcare, only 36% of the populations are able to access a healthcare facility within 30 minutes of their house and an unfortunate 30% are not able to access healthcare at all. Regarding infant mortality rates and the number of doctors and hospital beds available per 1000 people, Mozambique's performance is the worst compared to her SADC peers. It is only in the HIV prevalence rate that Mozambique is outshone by her Swazi neighbor, perhaps because 80% of donor funding for HIV programs is spent on anti-retroviral and awareness (SAT, 2012:24).

e. Medication

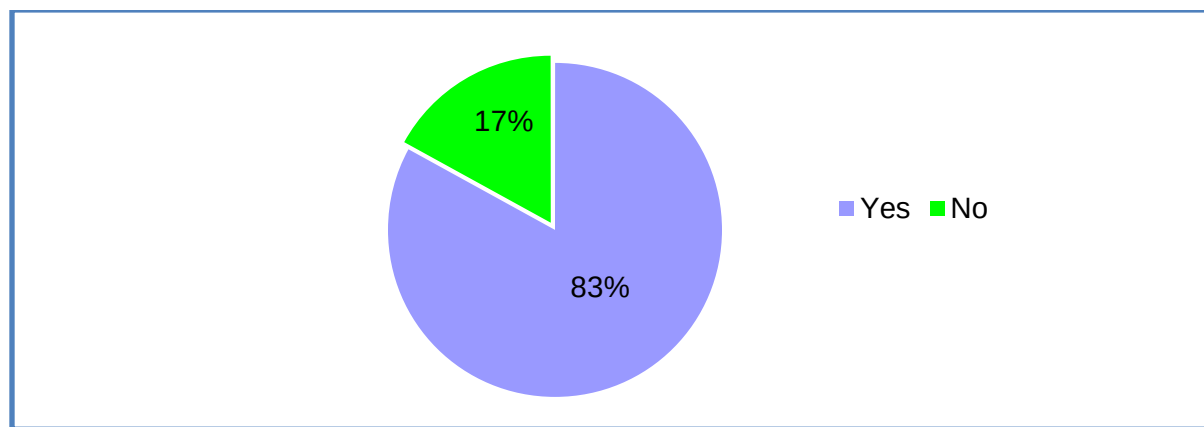


Figure 4.31: Medication receive for illnesses

Respondents mostly indicated that they did receive the relevant medication for these illnesses (83%), but 17% did not, reasons given for the latter included lack of facilities, medicine, money, the distance and transport. Respondents indicated that retroviral medicine is not always available and HIV has no cure.

f. Meals

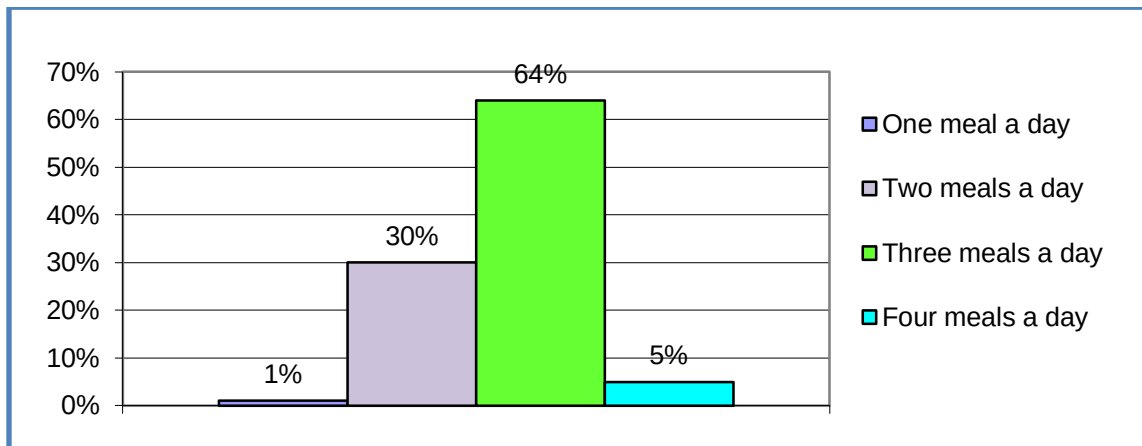


Figure 4.32: Frequency of meals by respondents per day

Figure 4.32 indicates the responses on the number of meals eaten per day. Sixty-four percent eat 3 meals a day and 30% eat two meals a day. One percent of respondents eat one meal per day.

g. Water resources

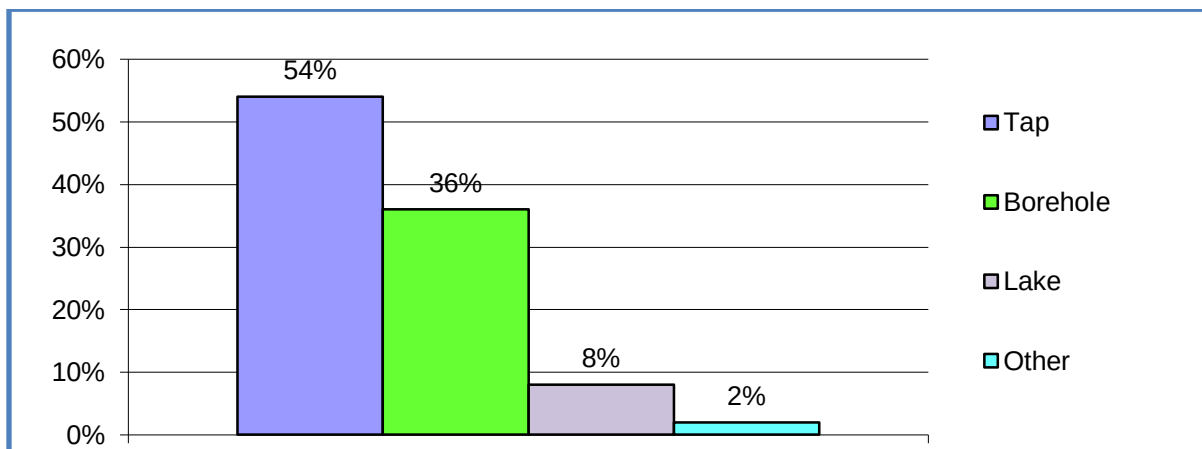


Figure 4.33: Access to drinking water

Households have access to drinking water by means of taps (54%), boreholes (36%) and 8% get water from the lakes. Sixty percent of the population in Mozambique has access to safe water, although it requires long walks for households to the source (Nhantumbo, 2009:66).

h. Collection of wood

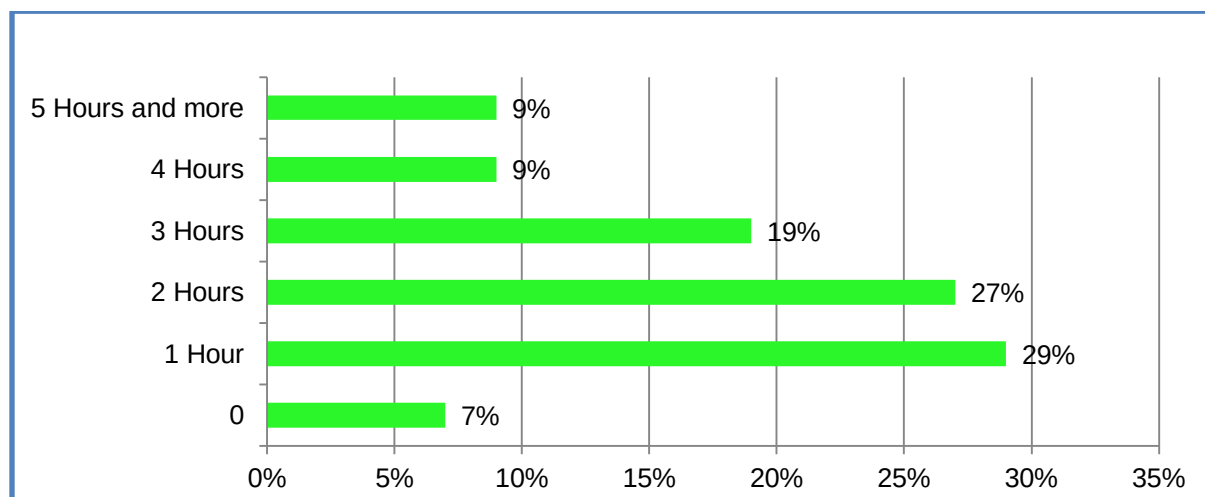


Figure 4.34: Number of hours spent on collecting wood

Twenty nine percent of the respondents need 1 hour to collect firewood and 27% need 2 hours per day for collecting wood for cooking. Nineteen percent spend 3 hours and 18% spend more than 4 hours per day to collect wood as fuel for their cooking.

i. Housing

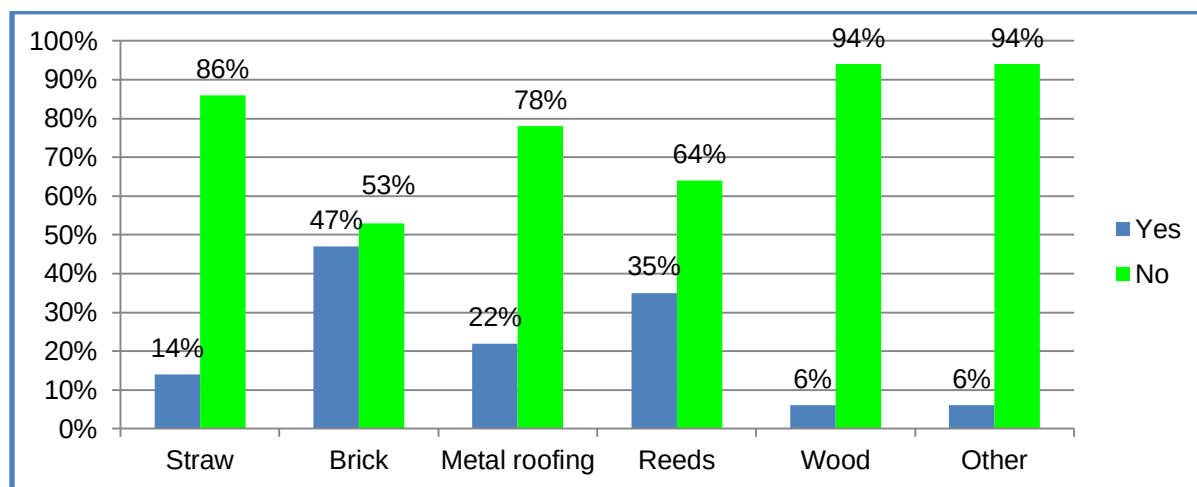


Figure 4.35: Building material used for housing

Bricks (47%) and reeds (35%) are the most used as building materials for housing of respondents and 22% use metal roofing.

j. Mode of transport

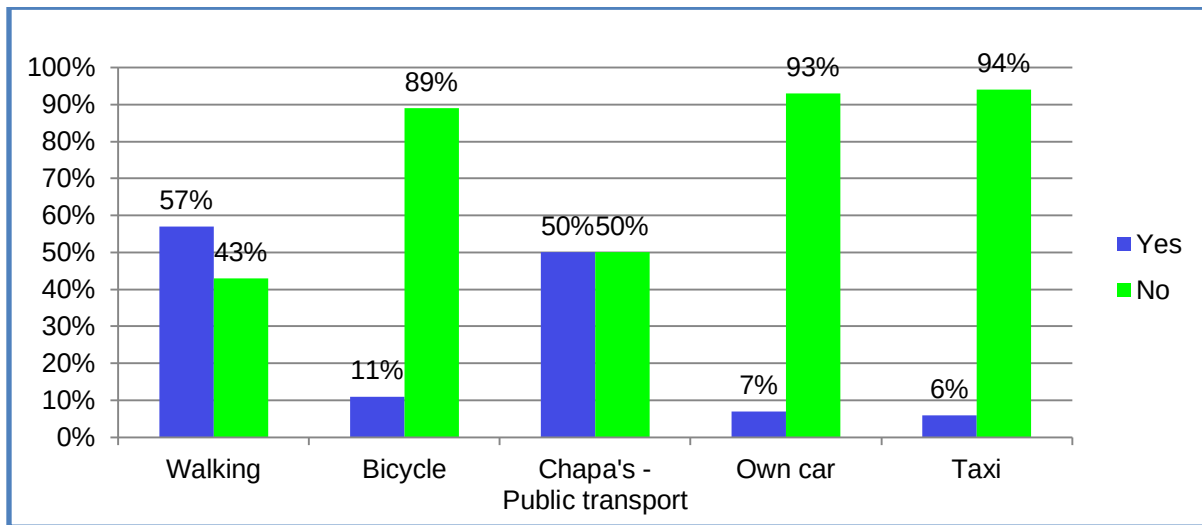


Figure 4.36: Mode of transport used by respondents

Those travelling by their own car represented 7%, by bicycle 11%, Chapa's 50%, and most of the respondents walked (57%) to where they need to be.

k. School attendance

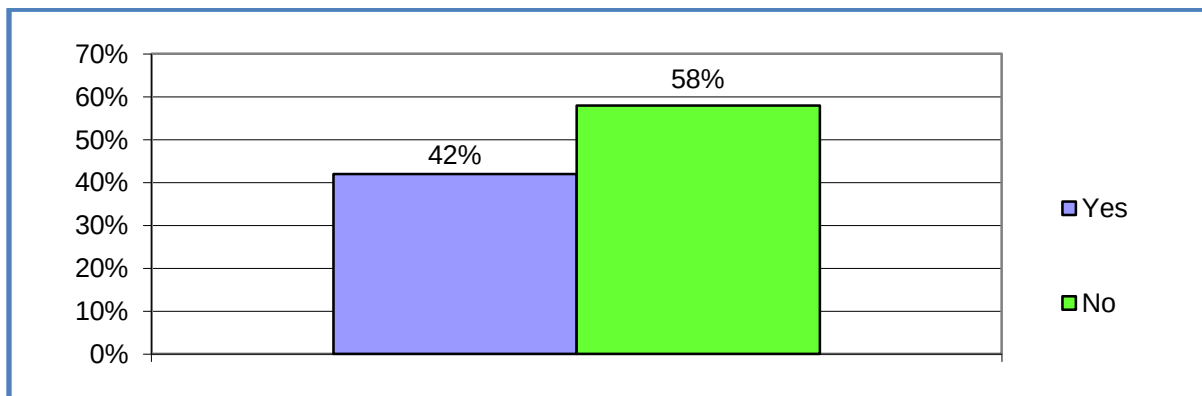


Figure 4.37: School attendance by children in household

Respondents indicated that 42% did attend school and 58% had reasons for not attending school in the last year. Some of the reasons reported were that children are still under age, no school facilities close to homes and the lack of money.

I. Safety

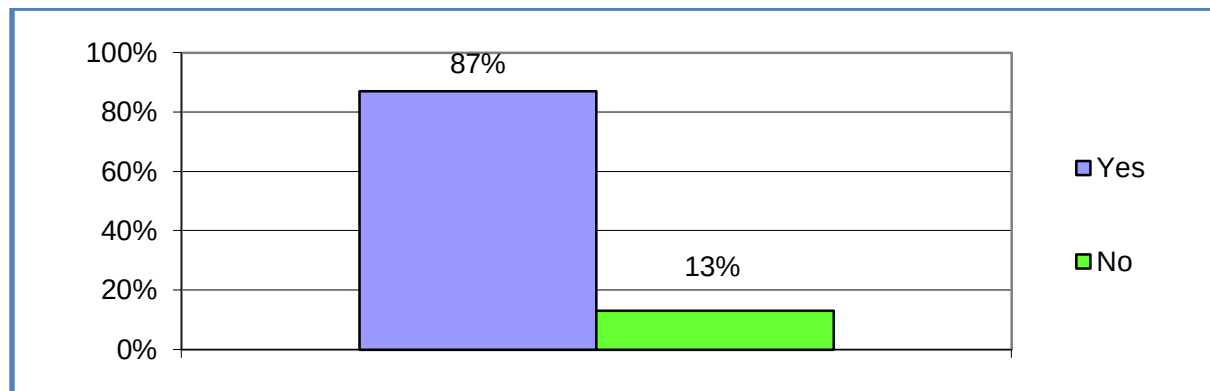


Figure 4.38 Respondents indication of feeling safe in their communities

Mozambican people feel safe in their communities, with 87% feeling safe and only 13% not feeling safe.

4.3 EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

The purpose of this section is to review the results of the factor analysis pertaining to the impacts of tourism on the community and explore the effect of selected variables on the identified factors. Collecting preliminary information that will assist in defining problems and suggesting hypotheses is the main objective of exploratory research.

4.3.1 Tourism impacts

To examine the factors underlining the impacts of tourism, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was undertaken. The 33 impact statements yielded 9 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field, 2005:633). Six of these factors were considered to be valid due to Cronbach Alpha Values above 0.5 and were labelled as Economic impacts, Negative social impacts, Negative personal impacts, Destination impacts, Positive personal impacts and Development impacts (see table 4.10)

These factors explained 51.8% of the variance and all aspects had factor greater than 0.20 which is acceptable for exploratory research. Sample size and the

recommendation that it should be greater than 0.162 influence the significance of a factor loading (Stevens, 1992:378-380). Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each of the nine factors.

Table 4.10: Factor analysis for the impacts of tourism

Because of tourism.....	Factors								
	Economic impacts	Negative social impacts	Negative personal impacts	Destination impacts	Factor 5	Positive personal impacts	Development impacts	Factor 8	Factor 9
businesses only doing well at certain times of the year	.643								
there are more opportunities for local businesses	.589								
tourism developments has increased in the area	.433								
more jobs are created in the area	.418								
the community earns more money	.242								
vandalism has increased		.619							
there has been a rise in crime		.531							
cultural traditions are fading		.455							
my environment looks dirty/ugly		.236							
there are more traffic problems			-.492						
the price of properties and homes has increased			-.437						
the total cost of living has increased			-.434						
I am proud to stay in Mozambique				.668					
there are too many visitors in the area				.657					
Mozambique's environment has improved				.514					
Mozambique has become well-known				.290					
the natural environment of Mozambique is protected				.245					
developed respect and understanding for visitors				.229					
my environment is noisier					-.611				
the lives of residents are disrupted					-.494				

Because of tourism.....	Factors								
	Economic impacts	Negative social impacts	Negative personal impacts	Destination impacts	Factor 5	Positive personal impacts	Development impacts	Factor 8	Factor 9
I can provide for my family						-.450			
I have a business						-.431			
I am employed						-.420			
there are opportunities for me to learn more about my community						-.284			
my everyday lifestyle has improved						-.251			
acquired more knowledge or a new skill						-.208			
new infrastructure has developed							-.651		
local areas, services & infrastructure are improving							-.454		
I learn more about other cultures							-.337		
there are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning								-.490	
there is more pollution in Mozambique								-.253	
the local cultures are protected									.483
community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes									.462
Cronbach Alpha Value	0.65	0.54	0.57	0.68	0.46	0.54	0.57	0.35	0.42
Inter-item Correlation	0.27	0.23	0.31	0.26		0.17	0.31		
Mean and Standard Deviation	3.4 (±0.83)	2.9 (±0.87)	3.5 (±0.92)	3.6 (±0.77)		3.3 (±0.76)	3.4 (±0.91)		

Source: Own compilation

Factors with a Cronbach Alpha Value above 0.54 were considered to be adequate for the purpose of this exploratory study. Six factors had Cronbach Alpha Values above 0.5 and 3 factors below 0.5. These three aspects can therefore not be considered factors and will be analysed individually in future analyses: Factor 5 at 0.46, Factor 8 at 0.35 and Factor 9 at 0.42. These aspects have to be re-evaluated and considered for inclusion in similar future research. The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling

adequacy (KMO) was 0.783 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$), which were deemed adequate.

Factor 1 was labelled ***Economic impacts*** and included aspects such as businesses only do well at certain times of the year, there are more opportunities for local businesses, tourism developments have increased in the area, more jobs are created in the area and the community earns more money. The mean value of economic impacts is 3.4 (SD ± 0.83).

Factor 2 was labelled ***Negative social impacts*** and includes aspects such as the increase of vandalism, a rise in crime, fading of cultural traditions, the environment that looks dirty/ugly. The mean value of this factor is 2.9 (SD ± 0.87) which is the lowest mean of all the factors but thereby showcasing that residents feel tourism is not contributing to the negative social impacts.

Factor 3 was labelled as ***Negative personal impacts*** and includes aspects such as an increase in traffic problems, an increase in the prices of property and homes and an increase in the total cost of living. The mean value for this factor is 3.5 (SD ± 0.92) which is the second highest mean value of all the factors. Respondents therefore agree that tourism led to an increase of these negative personal impacts.

Factor 4 was labelled ***Destination impacts*** and consists of aspects such as pride, number of visitors in the area, the improvement of the environment, the aspect focusing on Mozambique becoming well-known due to tourism, the protection of the natural environment of Mozambique and the development of respect and understanding for visitors. The mean value for this factor is the highest of all the factors (M 3.6, SD ± 0.77) thereby highlighting the importance of these positive aspects to residents.

Factor 6 was labelled as ***Positive personal impacts*** and included aspects such as provision for the family, owning a business, being employed, opportunities to learn about the community, improvement of everyday lifestyle and acquiring more knowledge or

skills. The mean value for Positive personal impacts is 3.3 (SD ± 0.76) and therefore respondents agree that tourism contributes to these positive personal impacts.

Factor 7 was labelled ***Development impacts*** and consisted of aspects such as the development of new infrastructure, development of local areas and services as well as learning about other cultures. The mean value for this factor is 3.4 (SD ± 0.91).

It is clear from the discussion above that residents experience tourism to be positive and contributing to their quality of life with the most important impacts related to specific tourism impacts. The following section highlights the aspect influencing tourism impacts to be seen as more positive or less positive.

4.3.2 Aspects influencing tourism impacts

ANOVAs and T-Tests were done to assess the aspects that might influence the evaluation of tourism impacts (as determined in the factor analysis). A Comparison was done on aspects including employment, gender, home language, marital status, owning property, owning a house, owning a business and so on.

The ANOVA analyses the differences in the groups on these factors. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is defined by Howell (2008:375) as “a statistical technique for testing for differences in the means of several groups”. *t*-tests were done to determine the differences between two means and the way that these two groups responded to tourism impacts on the different factors measured. The *t*-test involves the analysis of data involving two related samples, looking at the effect size (Howell, 2008:321).

Formula: $t_{1 - samp} = \frac{M - \mu}{\sigma_M}$

The differences between the means are a standard deviation and are called the standard error of the difference between the means (Steinberg, 2011:228). A meaningful difference is not guaranteed by statistical significance, measuring the clinical

or practical significance of an effect, present use with the real effect size (Steinberg, 2011:395).

The following guidelines are given by Cohen (quoted by Steinberg, 2011:396) for the explanation of the effect sizes in this study:

- Small effect: $d=0.2$
- Medium effect: $d=0.5$
- Large effect: $d=0.8$

a. Comparison by employment

Table 4.11: Comparison by Employment

ANOVA for Employment	Permanent /Full-time N = 182	Temporary/ Part-time Casual N = 213	Contract N = 79	F-value	P-value
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.3 (±0.87)	3.55 (±0.78)	3.46 (±0.78)	2.72	0.067
Negative social impacts	3.0 (±0.85)	2.85 (±0.85)	2.91 (±0.87)	2.22	0.11
Negative personal impacts	3.37a (±0.88)	3.65b (±0.89)	3.70b (±0.89)	6.11	0.002*
Destination impacts	3.56 (±0.83)	3.73 (±0.70)	3.66 (±0.71)	2.59	0.76
Positive personal impacts	3.22 (±0.77)	3.45 (±0.77)	3.34 (±0.66)	4.52	0.11
Development impacts	3.35 (±0.93)	3.5 (±0.92)	3.47 (±0.92)	1.52	0.22
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS					
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.26(±1.39)	2.99(±1.39)	2.97(±1.36)	2.09	0.125
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.27(±1.35)	3.36(±1.33)	3.23(±1.32)	0.348	0.706
My environment is noisier	2.87(±1.34)	2.89(±1.34)	2.87(±1.25)	0.013	0.987
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	3.1a (±1.41)a	3.0a(±1.31)	2.45b (±1.41)	6.415	0.002*
The local cultures are protected	3.27(±1.34)	3.39(±1.27)	3.18(±1.17)	0.862	0.423
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.70(±1.32)	2.72(±1.34)	2.75(±1.23)	0.035	0.966

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.11 that two significant differences ($p < 0.05$) exist on employment (permanent/full-time, temporary/part-time, contract) and the impacts of tourism (factor analysis) on the community. Respondents in temporary, part-time and casual employment positions ($M = 3.65$; $SD = \pm 0.89$) as well as those in contract employment positions ($M = 3.7$; $SD = \pm 0.89$) rated the Negative personal impacts more important than those in permanent employment positions ($M = 3.37$; $SD = \pm 0.88$).

In terms of the individual aspects, differences were found for “Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes”. Respondents in permanent and full time positions ($M = 3.1$; $SD = \pm 1.41$) and those in temporary, part-time and casual employment positions ($M = 3.0$; $SD = \pm 1.31$) rated this item more important than those in contract positions ($M = 2.45$; $SD = \pm 1.41$).

b. Comparison by gender

This t-test investigated the views of male and female respondents on tourism impacts.

Table 4.12: Comparison by gender

t-test by Gender	Male N = 336	Female N = 162	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.47(± 0.83)	3.36(± 0.83)	0.160	0.13
Negative social impacts	2.90(± 0.86)	2.98(± 0.89)	0.387	0.08
Negative personal impacts	3.58(± 0.90)	3.40(± 0.93)	0.039	0.20
Destination impacts	3.65(± 0.78)	3.63(± 0.74)	0.737	0.03
Positive personal impacts	3.38(± 0.74)	3.20(± 0.79)	0.018	0.22
Development impacts	3.51(± 0.90)	3.30(± 0.93)	0.017	0.23
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.15(± 1.43)	2.97(± 1.32)	0.157	0.13
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.24(± 1.35)	3.43(± 1.26)	0.139	0.14
My environment is noisier	2.84(± 1.32)	2.91(± 1.33)	0.615	0.05

Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.93(±1.39)	3.03(±1.33)	0.427	0.08
The local cultures are protected	3.30(±1.27)	3.34(±1.33)	0.781	0.03
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.69(±1.31)	2.83(±1.35)	0.277	0.11

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.12 that three significant differences exist between the impacts of tourism and gender. Firstly, the results show a significant difference for the Negative Personal Impacts of Tourism on gender ($p=0.039$) where the men ($M=3.58$, $SD= \pm 0.90$) rated these impacts as more important than the women ($M= 3.40$, $SD= \pm 0.93$). Secondly, men rated the Positive Personal impacts of tourism as more important ($M= 3.38$, $SD= \pm 0.74$) than women ($M= 3.20$, $SD= \pm 0.79$) and, thirdly, men ($M= 3.51$, $SD= \pm 0.90$) rated the Development impacts of tourism as more important than women ($M= 3.30$, $SD= \pm 0.93$). In all three cases small effect sizes exist indicating small significant differences. No significant differences were found for the individual items in relation to the impacts of tourism. It is thus evident that men rated all the significant aspects higher than women.

c. Language

Two major language groups participated in this study and this t-test analyse the influence of language on tourism impacts.

Table 4.13: Comparison by language

t-test for Language	Shangaan N = 336	Portuguese N = 140	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.39(±0.88)	3.55(±0.73)	0.034*	0.19
Negative social impacts	2.86(±0.86)	3.08(±0.85)	0.009*	0.27
Negative personal impacts	3.40(±0.94)	3.80(±0.81)	0.000*	0.42*
Destination impacts	3.63(±0.80)	3.68(±0.69)	0.470	0.07
Positive personal impacts	3.25(±0.78)	3.49(±0.70)	0.001*	0.31
Development impacts	3.40(±0.94)	3.54(±0.87)	0.113	0.15

INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	2.95(±1.36)	3.48(±1.40)	0.000*	0.37*
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.15(±1.32)	3.68(±1.29)	0.000*	0.40*
My environment is noisier	2.88(±1.31)	2.85(±1.37)	0.835	0.02
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.98(±1.36)	3.03(±1.39)	0.693	0.04
The local cultures are protected	3.31(±1.25)	3.41(±1.37)	0.448	0.08
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.72(±1.34)	2.74(±1.28)	0.866	0.02

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.13 that six significant differences exist between the impacts of tourism and language. Firstly, the results show a significant difference for Impacts with a significant p-value ($p < 0.05$) where Portuguese speaking respondents rated the Economic Impacts ($M=3.55$, $SD \pm 0.73$), Negative social impacts ($M= 3.08$, $SD=\pm 0.85$), Negative personal impacts ($M= 3.80$, $SD= \pm 0.81$) as more important than the Shangaan speaking respondents. Medium effect sizes were identified in all cases.

Two significant differences exist for the individual aspects when comparing language groups. As for the factors, Portuguese speaking people rated the increase in pollution ($M=3.48$, $SD=\pm 1.40$) and opportunities to be part of planning higher ($M= 3.68$, $SD=\pm 1.29$) than Shangaan speaking people. Medium effect sizes were also identified in all cases. This concludes that Portuguese speakers identify the impacts of tourism more than Shangaan speaking people.

d. Marital status

Table 4.14: Comparison by marital status

t-test for Marital status	Married N = 101	Single N = 348	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.57±0.77)	3.42(±0.84)	0.089	0.18
Negative social impacts	2.76(±0.79)	2.95(±0.87)	0.034	0.23

Negative personal impacts	3.76(±0.79)	3.48(±0.92)	0.004	0.30
Destination impacts	3.80(±0.68)	3.63(±0.76)	0.031	0.22
Positive personal impacts	3.50(±0.74)	3.27(±0.74)	0.006	0.31
Development impacts	3.58(±0.79)	3.42(±0.92)	0.101	0.17
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	2.98(±1.44)	3.17(±1.35)	0.090	0.20
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.07(±1.34)	3.32(±1.31)	0.111	0.18
My environment is noisier	2.80(±1.27)	2.88(±1.33)	0.609	0.06
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.77(±1.45)	3.02(±1.31)	0.138	0.17
The local cultures are protected	3.16(±1.29)	3.36(±1.27)	0.173	0.16
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.50(±1.20)	2.81(±1.33)	0.032	0.23

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.14 that significant differences exist between the impacts of tourism and being married or not. Firstly, the results show a significant difference for the Negative Personal Impacts of Tourism on marital status ($p=0.004$) where the married respondents ($M= 3.76$; $SD= \pm 0.79$) rated these impacts higher than the single respondents ($M= 3.48$; $SD= \pm 0.92$), with a small effect size (0.30). Secondly, Positive Personal Impacts were also rated higher ($p=0.006$) by married respondents ($M= 3.50$; $SD= \pm 0.74$) than single respondents ($M= 3.27$; $SD= \pm 0.74$) with a small effect size (0.31).

Thirdly, negative social impacts ($p=0.034$) were rated by single respondents ($M=2.95$, $SD= \pm 0.87$) than respondents who are married ($M= 2.76$, $SD= \pm 0.79$). Destination impacts ($p=0.031$), on the other hand, were rated higher by married respondents ($M= 3.80$, $SD= \pm 0.68$) than respondents who are single ($M=3.63$, $SD= \pm 0.76$). Lastly, the lives of residents are disrupted by tourism as individual item were analysed ($p=0.032$), and respondents who are single rated the impact higher ($M= 2.81$, $SD= \pm 1.33$) than respondents who are married ($M= 2.50$, $SD = \pm 1.20$). Small effect sizes were reported in all cases.

e. Owning property

The influence of owning property and the assessment of tourism impacts is analysed in this section.

Table 4.15: Comparison by owning property

t-test for owning property	Own property N = 267	Do not own property N = 213	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.48(±0.85)	3.39(±0.77)	0.218	0.11
Negative social impacts	2.84(±0.87)	3.02(±0.86)	0.026	0.20
Negative personal impacts	3.57(±0.88)	3.48(±0.93)	0.288	0.10
Destination impacts	3.67(±0.81)	3.58(±0.72)	0.180	0.12
Positive personal impacts	3.42(±0.76)	3.21(±0.72)	0.002	0.28
Development impacts	3.46(±0.96)	3.42(±0.83)	0.706	0.03
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.17(±1.41)	3.06(±1.35)	0.416	0.07
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.24(±1.41)	3.39(±1.20)	0.211	0.11
My environment is noisier	2.83(±1.36)	2.87(±1.26)	0.691	0.04
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	3.13(±1.34)	2.73(±1.37)	0.002	0.29
The local cultures are protected	3.43(±1.37)	3.15(±1.15)	0.017	0.21
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.73(±1.37)	2.71(±1.26)	0.895	0.01

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.15 that two significant differences exist between the impacts of tourism and owning property. Respondents owning property (M= 3.42; SD= ±0.76) rated the Positive Personal Impacts higher than respondents not owning property (M= 3.21; SD= ±0.72), resulting in a small effect size (0.28). A different situation is evident for Negative Social Impacts where those not owning property (M= 3.02; SD= ±0.86) rated these impacts higher than those owning property (M= 2.84; SD= ±0.87), resulting in a small effect size (0.20).

Two significant differences were also found for the individual items analysed. Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes ($p=0.002$) with owning property ($M= 3.13$, $SD= \pm 1.34$) and respondents not owning any property ($M= 2.73$, $SD= \pm 1.37$). The impact related to the protection of cultures yielded a p-value of 0.017. Respondents with property ($M= 3.43$, $SD= \pm 1.37$) rated this impact higher than those without property ($M= 3.15$, $SD= \pm 1.15$). In all cases small effect sizes exist.

f. Home-ownership

Owning your own house was tested and two indicators emerged with a very even rating between self-owned or family owned.

Table 4.16: Comparison by owning a home

t-test for home ownership	Self-owned N = 219	Family-owned N = 218	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.41(± 0.80)	3.44(± 0.86)	0.714	0.03
Negative social impacts	2.82(± 0.86)	2.97(± 0.84)	0.064	0.18
Negative personal impacts	3.55(± 0.94)	3.48(± 0.87)	0.398	0.08
Destination impacts	3.56(± 0.73)	3.72(± 0.80)	0.033	0.20
Positive personal impacts	3.31(± 0.74)	3.32(± 0.74)	0.843	0.02
Development impacts	3.42(± 0.92)	3.44(± 0.95)	0.805	0.02
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	2.98(± 1.38)	3.25(± 1.36)	0.042	0.20
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.30(± 1.36)	3.24(± 1.30)	0.600	0.05
My environment is noisier	2.77(± 1.32)	2.81(± 1.33)	0.738	0.03
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.78(± 1.41)	3.02(± 1.30)	0.062	0.18
The local cultures are protected	3.26(± 1.22)	3.36(± 1.35)	0.445	0.07
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.61(± 1.25)	2.71(± 1.38)	0.406	0.08

Source: Own compilation

In Table 4.16, two impacts were found to be significant in relation to home ownership. Respondents with Family owned property ($p=0.033$) rated the destination impacts higher ($M= 3.72$, $SD= \pm 0.80$) than respondents with self-owned property ($M= 3.56$, $SD= \pm 0.73$), resulting in a small effect size. The individual item analysis show one significant difference for the increase of pollution in Mozambique ($p=0.042$). Family owned property respondents rated this impact higher ($M= 3.25$, $SD= \pm 1.36$) than the respondents with self-owned property ($M= 2.98$, $SD= \pm 1.38$), resulting in a small effect size.

g. Owner of business enterprise

The influence of owning a business enterprise was compared to respondent's assessment of the different impacts of tourism.

Table 4.17: Comparison by owning a business enterprise

t-test for business ownership	Own business N = 157	No business N = 325	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.55(± 0.80)	3.38(0.84)	0.035	0.20
Negative social impacts	2.80(± 0.77)	3.01(± 0.90)	0.010	0.23
Negative personal impacts	3.66(± 0.82)	3.47(± 0.95)	0.031	0.19
Destination impacts	3.68(± 0.74)	3.63(± 0.77)	0.458	0.07
Positive personal impacts	3.57(± 0.78)	3.23(± 0.72)	0.000*	0.44*
Development impacts	3.46(± 0.85)	3.42(± 0.95)	0.657	0.04
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.10(± 1.39)	3.09(± 1.39)	0.963	0.00
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.25(± 1.36)	3.32(± 1.31)	0.620	0.05
My environment is noisier	2.60(± 1.25)	3.01(± 1.34)	0.002	0.30
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.87(± 1.37)	3.01(± 1.37)	0.331	0.10
The local cultures are protected	3.23(± 1.33)	3.36(± 1.26)	0.318	0.10
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.59(± 1.26)	2.78(± 1.34)	0.142	0.14

Source: Own compilation

Table 4.17 indicates that Positive personal impacts ($p=0.000^*$) were rated higher by respondents owning a business enterprise ($M= 3.57$, $SD= \pm 0.78$) compared to those not owning a business ($M= 3.23$, $SD= \pm 0.72$), resulting in a medium effect size. Secondly, the Negative social impacts ($p=0.010$) were also rated higher ($M= 3.57$, $SD= \pm 0.78$) by the respondents with a business than those without a business ($M= 2.80$, $SD= \pm 0.77$), resulting in a small effect size. Lastly, the analysis of the individual items revealed that a noisier environment ($p=0.002$) was rated higher by those without a business ($M= 3.01$, $SD= \pm 1.34$) as opposed to those owning a business ($M= 2.60$, $SD= \pm 1.25$), resulting in a small effect size.

h. Selling directly to tourists

Selling services or products directly to tourists are one of the seven ST~EP's in the World Tourism Council measures to increase the impact tourism can have on poverty.

Table 4.18: Comparison by selling directly to tourists

t-test for selling to tourists	Direct sell to tourists N = 119	No selling to tourists N = 346	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.68(± 0.76)	3.34(± 0.84)	0.000*	0.40*
Negative social impacts	2.87(± 0.79)	2.96(± 0.88)	0.290	0.10
Negative personal impacts	3.72(± 0.84)	3.48(± 0.94)	0.010*	0.25
Destination impacts	3.67(± 0.76)	3.62(± 0.77)	0.584	0.06
Positive personal impacts	3.61(± 0.82)	3.24(± 0.72)	0.000*	0.45*
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
Development impacts	3.46(± 0.92)	3.42(± 0.91)	0.646	0.05
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.24(± 1.42)	3.03(± 1.38)	0.164	0.15
There are opportunities for residents to	3.30(± 1.38)	3.29(± 1.30)	0.979	0.00
My environment is noisier	2.69(± 1.33)	2.93(± 1.30)	0.094	0.18
Community members only showcase	3.07(± 1.34)	2.91(± 1.39)	0.303	0.11
The local cultures are protected	3.24(± 1.36)	3.34(± 1.26)	0.506	0.07
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.67(± 1.28)	2.74(± 1.33)	0.639	0.05

Source: Own compilation

It is clear from Table 4.18 that three significant differences exist when analysing the influence of direct selling on the assessment of destination impacts. Those respondents that sell their goods and services directly to tourists rated the Economic impacts ($M=3.68$, $SD= \pm 0.76$), Negative personal impacts ($M= 3.72$, $SD=\pm 0.84$) and Positive personal impacts ($M= 3.61$, $SD= \pm 0.82$) higher than those not selling directly to tourists. This resulted in small effect sizes. Selling directly to tourists definitely has an impact on resident's perceptions of destination impacts.

i. Foreign language

Acquiring a skill such as learning a foreign language through tourism or contact with tourists is analysed against the impacts of tourism.

Table 4.19: Comparison by learning a foreign language through tourism

t-test for learning a foreign language	Foreign language learned N = 256	Foreign language not learned N = 225	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.53(± 0.84)	3.35(± 0.79)	0.018	0.21
Negative social impacts	2.92(± 0.88)	2.92(± 0.84)	0.991	0.00
Negative personal impacts	3.49(± 0.92)	3.57(± 0.89)	0.297	0.09
Destination impacts	3.66(± 0.84)	3.61(± 0.67)	0.514	0.05
Positive personal impacts	3.40(± 0.80)	3.25(± 0.70)	0.031	0.18
Development impacts	3.48(± 0.95)	3.40(± 0.879)	0.382	0.08
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.25(± 1.37)	2.92(± 1.38)	0.010	0.24
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.30(± 1.37)	3.31(± 1.27)	0.929	0.01
My environment is noisier	2.78(± 1.40)	2.96(± 1.23)	0.157	0.12
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	3.10(± 1.32)	2.81(± 1.42)	0.029	0.20
The local cultures are protected	3.28(± 1.33)	3.36(± 1.22)	0.552	0.05
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.67(± 1.34)	2.77(± 1.29)	0.434	0.07

Source: Own compilation

More than half of the respondents indicated that they learned a foreign language (N=256) by interacting with tourists. This could be seen as a valuable tool to improve communication and unlock opportunities. Only one significant difference was found for the factors ($p=0.018$), namely for Economic impacts where those that learned a foreign language ($M= 3.53$, $SD= \pm 0.84$) through tourism rated Economic impacts higher than those that did not ($M= 3.35$, $SD= \pm 0.79$). This resulted in a small effect size. The individual item analysis revealed two significant differences. Those that learned a foreign language through tourism ($M= 3.25$, $SD= \pm 1.37$) rated the impact of pollution on Mozambique ($p=0.010$) higher than those that did not ($M= 2.92$, $SD= \pm 1.38$). Lastly, the individual factor related to community members showcasing their culture for tourism purposes ($p=0.029$) were rated higher by respondents who acquired a foreign language ($M= 3.10$, $SD= \pm 1.32$) by interacting with tourists than respondents who did not ($M= 2.81$, $SD= \pm 1.42$).

j. Participation in community discussions on tourism

Respondents were asked whether they participate in community discussions regarding tourism in their area and their responses were assessed against their opinions of tourism impacts.

Table 4.20: Comparison by participation in community discussions on tourism

t-test for comparison by participation in community discussions on tourism	Participate N = 165	No participation N = 303	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.61(± 0.70)	3.38(± 0.86)	0.001	0.27
Negative social impacts	2.86(± 0.76)	2.97(± 0.89)	0.197	0.11
Negative personal impacts	3.72(± 0.83)	3.45(± 0.91)	0.002	0.29
Destination impacts	3.84(± 0.65)	3.54(± 0.77)	0.000*	0.39*
Positive personal impacts	3.47(± 0.69)	3.27(± 0.77)	0.005	0.26
Development impacts	3.62(± 0.82)	3.39(± 0.91)	0.005	0.26
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				

There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.01(±1.53)	3.17(±1.30)	0.254	0.11
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.75(±1.12)	3.10(±1.34)	0.000*	0.48*
My environment is noisier	2.94(±1.25)	2.82(±1.35)	0.325	0.09
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.91(±1.45)	3.02(±1.32)	0.404	0.08
The local cultures are protected	3.44(±1.20)	3.27(±1.31)	0.178	0.13
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.66(±1.26)	2.7(±1.34)	0.733	0.03

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.20 that six significant differences ($p < 0.05$) exist between the impacts of tourism and participating in discussions regarding tourism. Economic impacts ($p = 0.001$) were rated higher by respondents who participate ($M = 3.61$, $SD = \pm 0.70$) than those who did not ($M = 3.38$, $SD = \pm 0.86$). Negative personal impacts ($p = 0.002$) were also rated higher by the respondents who participated ($M = 3.72$, $SD = \pm 0.83$) than those who did not ($M = 3.45$, $SD = \pm 0.91$). Positive personal impacts ($p = 0.005$) and Developmental impacts were respectively also rated higher by the respondents who participate ($M = 3.47$, $SD = \pm 0.69$; $M = 3.62$, $SD = \pm 0.82$) as opposed to those that do not participate ($M = 3.27$, $SD = \pm 0.77$; $M = 3.39$, $SD = \pm 0.91$). In all these cases, small effect sizes were evident.

In the analysis of the individual items it was found that respondents that participate in tourism discussions ($M = 3.75$, $SD = \pm 1.12$) rated opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning higher than those that did not participate ($M = 3.10$, $SD = \pm 1.34$). It is evident from the number of differences reported here that participation in community discussion is extremely important.

k. Safety in communities

In this section the influence of feelings of safety is assessed against respondents' assessment of the impacts of tourism.

Table 4.21: Comparison by feelings of safety

t-test for comparison by feelings of safety	Safe in communities N = 388	Not safe N = 60	P-value	Effect size
FACTORS	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic impacts	3.44(±0.82)	3.25(±0.89)	0.126	0.21
Negative social impacts	2.87(±0.85)	3.10(±0.88)	0.058	0.27
Negative personal impacts	3.58(±0.89)	3.30(±1.04)	0.047	0.27
Destination impacts	3.69(±0.74)	3.39(±0.83)	0.011	0.36
Positive personal impacts	3.37(±0.75)	3.07(±0.71)	0.003	0.40*
Development impacts	3.46(±0.89)	3.28(±0.88)	0.153	0.20
INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS				
There is more pollution in Mozambique	3.10(±1.38)	3.05(±1.35)	0.810	0.03
There are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning	3.26(±1.33)	3.33(±1.33)	0.710	0.05
My environment is noisier	2.83(±1.33)	3.01(±1.23)	0.300	0.14
Community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	2.89(±1.35)	3.23(±1.27)	0.070	0.25
The local cultures are protected	3.32(±1.26)	3.21(±1.30)	0.563	0.09
The lives of residents are disrupted	2.69(±1.29)	3.12(±1.30)	0.024	0.33

Source: Own compilation

In Table 4.21 it is indicated by 388 respondents that they feel safe living in their respective communities and only 60 did not feel safe. Positive personal impacts ($p=0.003$) were rated higher by respondents who feel safe in living in their communities ($M= 3.37$, $SD= \pm 0.75$) than respondents who do not feel safe ($M= 3.07$, $SD= \pm 0.71$). Secondly, destination impacts were also rated higher by respondents who feel safe ($M= 3.69$, $SD= \pm 0.74$) than those who do not ($M= 3.39$, $SD= \pm 0.83$). Lastly, in the analysis of the individual aspects it was found that the impact of tourism disrupting the lives of residents were rated higher by those who do not feel safe in living their communities ($M= 3.12$, $SD= \pm 1.30$) than respondents who do feel safe ($M= 2.69$, $SD= \pm 1.29$). It seems that respondents who feel safe living in their communities are generally more positive towards destination impacts.

4.4 MULTI-POVERTY INDEX

The Multi-Poverty Index (MPI) uses micro data from a household survey to identify multiple deprivations at the individual level in education, health and standard of living. Figure 4.39 showcases the 10 indicators that are combined in the 3 dimensions of the MPI.

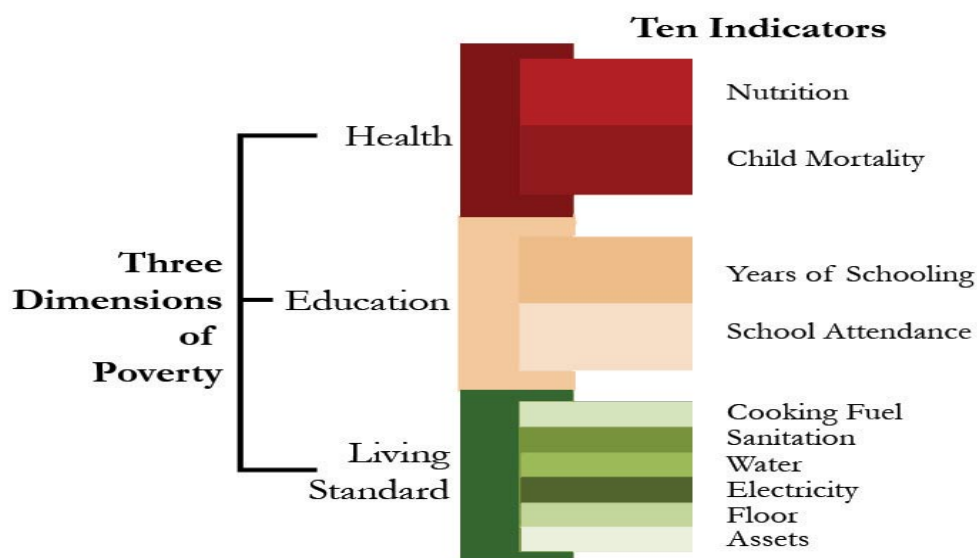


Figure 4.39: Multi poverty index

Source: OPHI (2013:1)

This data was collected through surveys distributed in the selected communities that are known for the role tourism plays in these areas. In analysing the MPI, a deprivation score is assigned to each respondent according to 10 components. The main dimensions with a score of each 33% total the 100% maximum score. The Education and Health dimensions have 2 indicators which are worth 16.7% and the Standard of living dimension has 6 indicators, each worth 5.6%. For this study, the following information was gathered based on the opinions of respondents and captured and analysed through Excel®.

- **Education dimension:**
 - What is your highest qualification? No schooling.
 - Any children in household not attend school in past year.

- **Health dimension:**
 - Number of meals per day.
 - Did any child in the family die in the past year?
 - Distance to health centre.
 - Number of times visited by household to health centre in last year.
- **Standard of living dimension:**
 - Access to electricity.
 - Not having access to clean drinking water, water source.
 - Not having access to adequate sanitation (indoor or outdoor toilet facilities).
 - Using “dirty” cooking fuel (wood or charcoal).
 - House made of which materials.
 - Not owning a car, truck or similar motorised vehicle while owning at most one of these assets: bicycle, motorcycle, radio, refrigerator, telephone or television (Malik, 2013:7).

Severely multi-dimensionally poor refers to a household with a deprivation score of 50% and higher. The deprivation scores are summed for each household obtain the household deprivation, **c**. A score of 33% or greater indicates that a household is multi-dimensionally poor.

Table 4.22: Example of hypothetical data in calculating the MPI

Household size	4	7	5	4	
Education					
No schooling or other – less than 5 years	0	1	0	1	$1/3 \div 2$ or 16.7%
Any of the children in household not attend school in past year	0	1	0	0	$1/3 \div 2$ or 16.7%
Health					
Number of meals per day	0	0	1	0	$1/3 \div 2$ or 16.7%
One or more children have died in the past year	1	1	0	1	$1/3 \div 2$ or 16.7%
Living conditions					
Access to electricity	0	1	1	1	$1/3 \div 6$ or 5.6%
Where do you get your drinking water	0	0	1	0	$1/3 \div 6$ or 5.6%

Indoor toilet facilities	0	1	1	0	$\frac{1}{3} \div 6$ or 5.6%
Which fuel is used for cooking (firewood or charcoal)	1	1	1	1	$\frac{1}{3} \div 6$ or 5.6%
Own no car and owns at most one of: bicycle, motorcycle, radio, refrigerator, telephone or television	0	1	0	1	$\frac{1}{3} \div 6$ or 5.6%

Household deprivation score, c (sum of each deprivation multiplied by its weight)

22.2% 72.2% 38.9% 50.0% is

The household poor ($c > 33.3\%$)?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	45.5%
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Two measures are used to express the MPI value for the population: the multidimensional headcount ratio (H) and the intensity of poverty (A).

4.4.1 Headcount ratio

The proportion of the population who are multi-dimensionally poor is called the headcount ratio, H . With the number of people who are multi-dimensional poor as q and the total population as n .

$$H = \frac{q}{n}$$

The incidence of poverty (H) is 46% of people live in poor households in these two case studies. Statistics from the OPHI (2013:5) indicate a 44.3% for Maputo Cidade and a 52.2% incidence in Maputo province where the two communities are situated. This information is based on data collected in 2009 by Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) for the Instituto Nacional de Saúde (INS) (INSIDA, 2009:1). **Incidence of poverty:** the percentage of multi-dimensionally poor people or headcount ratio (H).

4.4.2 Intensity of poverty

The intensity of poverty, A , is reflected in the number of the weighted indicators in which individuals are deprived. Deprivation score (c) is that which the poor experience, totaling the poor households which have a score of 33% or greater and divided by the total number of poor individuals.

$$A = \frac{\sum_1^q c}{q}$$

The average poor person in this study is deprived in 44.11% of the weighted indicators. According to the OPHI (2013:4) Mozambique has a 79.3% **Intensity of poverty**: the average number of deprivations poor people face at the same time (A). Maputo Cidade intensity of deprived (A) is 43.9% and Maputo province at 56.5% (OPHI, 2013:5).

$$MPI = H \cdot A$$

The MPI for this study is calculated at 0.20%, with the Maputo Cidade MPI at 0.194 and Maputo province at 0.295 (OPHI, 2013:5).

4.4.3 Contribution of deprivation

Contribution of dimension j to multi-dimensional poverty is calculated, deprivation score c is that which the poor experience, derived from a sum of deprivations in each dimension j ($j = 1, 2, 3$), $c = c_1 + c_2 + c_3$. Calculating the contributions of deprived in every dimension: education, health and living conditions. This provides information that could be used by a country to reveal its configuration of deprivation and assist in policy making (Malik, 2013:8). **Composition of poverty** is calculated by each of the 10 indicators and their weighted contributions (OPHI, 2013:7).

$$Contrib_j = \frac{(\sum_1^q c_j)/n}{MPI}$$

The perception of respondents' poverty and the impact of tourism were measured in this study. Respondents were deprived 34.3% in the dimension of **Education**, containing the calculations of no schooling or less than 5 years and any children in household who did not attend schooling in last year. Mozambique statistics collected in a Development and Health Survey in 2009, 15% year schooling and 9% on school attendance, totaling to a 24% deprived in the Education dimension (OPHI, 2013:3).

The dimension of **Health** was at 18.11% calculated by the question on number of meals a day and if any children in household died in the past year. In the DHS survey no information was used for nutrition and 36% child mortality was indicated (OPHI, 2013:3).

The respondents were deprived at 47.59% in their **Standard of living conditions** in this study. Using information from questions on access to electricity, water source, indoor toilet facilities, cooking fuel, no car but at least one bicycle, motorcycle, radio, television, telephone or refrigerator. According to the OPHI statistic available from 2009 data, this shows 7% on sanitation, 5% on drinking water, 7% on house flooring, 8% on dirty cooking fuel and 5% having assets (OPHI, 2013:3).

4.5 INFLUENCE OF TOURISM ON POVERTY

With the availability of the deprivation scores which are significantly close to a study done in Mozambique recently (2009 Development and Health Survey on Poverty in Mozambique as presented in the OPHI, 2013:1) it is necessary to determine the influence of tourism on the poverty levels of respondents. This was done by analysing selected tourism participation patterns and perceptions of destination impacts in relation to the deprivation score. The intensity of poverty is the percentage of deprivations that poor people experience at the same time in health, education and living standards indicators.

4.5.1 Relationship between tourism variables and poverty levels

The purpose of this section is to link poverty levels (deprivation score) with selected tourism variables such as employment in the industry and selling goods to tourists. This was done by means of t-tests.

Table 4.23: T-tests for comparison of deprivation score and selected variables

T-test by employment in the industry	Yes N=178	No N=308	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Deprivation Score	28.28 (±14.95)	28.56 (±17.43)	0.855	0.02
T-test by selling goods to tourists	Yes N=121	No N=347	P-value	Effect size
Deprivation Score	29.40(±17.63)	28.12(±16.00)	0.462	0.07
T-test by learning a foreign language through tourism	Yes N=258	No N=226	P-value	Effect size
Deprivation Score	28.60(±16.20)	27.86(±16.56)	0.622	0.04
T-test by participation in community discussions	Yes N=166	No N=304	P-value	Effect size
Deprivation Score	26.28(±15.47)	29.57(±17.07)	0.040	0.19

Source: Own compilation

It is clear from Table 4.23 that no significant differences were found for employment in the industry, selling goods to tourists or for the benefit of learning a foreign language through tourism when analysing these against the deprivation scores. However, a significant difference ($P=0.040$) was found between those that participated in community discussions on tourism and those that did not participate. Those that took part in community discussions on tourism ($M=26.28$; $SD=15.47$) were less deprived (education, health and living conditions) than those that did not participate ($M=29.57$; $SD=17.07$). Besides the one incidence of difference it is clear that in the opinions of the residents participation in the tourism industry of Mozambique does not contribute to them being more or less poor.

4.5.2 Relationship between tourism impacts and poverty levels

Spearman rank order correlations have been used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, namely, to determine the relationship between the deprivation scores and the tourism impact factors with one another.

Table 4.24: Spearman correlations for deprivation score and tourism impact factors

		Economic impacts	Negative social impacts	Negative personal impacts	Destination impacts	Positive personal impacts	Development impacts
Deprivation Score	Correlation Coefficient	.021	-.068	-.070	-.040	-.022	-.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.636	.127	.118	.370	.631	.397
	N	500	500	500	498	501	497

Source: Own compilation

It is evident from Table 4.24 that there are no correlations between the deprivation scores and residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism. Again, it shows that residents' perceptions of tourism do not influence their deprivation scores (education, health and living conditions) in a negative or positive manner. This might show that although tourism is functioning in these areas of Mozambique the real benefits do not filter to the communities and this needs attention. According the respondents in this study, tourism is not currently contributing to addressing deprivations.

4.6 CONCLUSION

There is an assortment of definitions and indicators in poverty. It is important to define the link between tourism and poverty. This contributes to the complexity of measurement, leaving no clear common ground as to how to assess, exactly what to access, especially with the link to tourism. More practical methods are important to capture this link as well as the development of more standardised methods and criteria.

Given that limited information is available on poor people's perceptions regarding these issues, this study provides more insight and perceptions of poverty and tourism of poor people. One should therefore regard this information important in terms of product development, participation in community planning and meetings regarding tourism and possible training in tourism related fields.

Governments in most developing countries rely heavily on the growing economic support provided by tourism. In this study, it was determined that tourism did not reduce poverty levels. It is clear that there is a missing link that should be found. GoM and communities need to work more closely with decision making, policy development and efforts to help the communities capitalise on this tourism potential directly or indirectly.

Confirmation remains largely unconvincing regarding tourism impact on the poverty condition. Confirming this finding, Gartner & Cukier, (2012:559-560) have shown that tourism employment holds no guarantees of poverty reduction in Nkata Bay - Malawi study, validated that tourism is making a very limited contribution to poverty reduction amongst the poor in Elmina – Ghana (Holden, Sonne & Novelli, 2011:331). According to Zapata, Hall, Lindo & Vanderschaeghe (2011:746) tourism development may provide economic results and visitor numbers in the short term, but does not provide the structural changes needed in the long term to make community-based tourism (CBT) sustainable. Rediscovering indigenous knowledge from locals is needed to make tourism development a success in reducing poverty, based on the bottom-up CBT approach in tourism projects (Zapata *et al.*, 2011:747) and answering the question what would really change/impact on their livelihood. The perceptions of poor people and their experiences are generally ignored and very little is known about their views (Holden *et al.*, 2011:332). Truong *et al.*, (2014:7) propose that to measure poverty, one needs to comprehend poverty causes at local level and develop an deep understanding the complexity of poverty, including the perception and experiences of that specific location.

Words like **may** produce monetary benefits for the poor, (Frenzel, 2013:127; Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010:160) it **can** be used to target poverty (Holden *et al.*, 2011:332), more **likely** to succeed (Truong *et al.*, 2014:17), **no guarantees** toward poverty reduction (Gartner & Cukier, 2012:560), **short-term** results, under **certain** circumstances (Zapata *et al.*, 2011:746-747), tend **not** to influence changes in poverty rate (Deller, 2010:201) indicate the lack of true benefits through tourism on poverty alleviation.

Deteriorating economic conditions were not favoring the community, as they suffered from few job opportunities. This also did not improve the condition of poverty for people in the community and Nicaragua (Usher, 2010:746). Tourism appears as a key factor in the economic well-being of a community of Las Salinas in Nicaragua (Usher, 2010:iii), indicating that income did not really improve but other factors contribute to the perception that tourism is a positive force (Usher, 2010:75).

Tourism impacting on poverty was recorded in a study done in Brazil using the CGE model, the results showing that the lowest income sector benefitted from tourism and that it has the potential to reduce income disparities between rich and poor (Blake, Arbache, Sinclair and Teles, 2008:124). Confirming this trend on the Pacific Coast of Costa Rica has established that tourism growth enhanced employment opportunities, directly and indirectly and that extreme poverty has declined (Honey *et al.*, 2010:78). The importance of employment offered by tourism is emphasised by the 98 million people who are directly employed by travel and tourism in 2011 (WTTC, 2012:3).

“Thanks to tourism that we have now electricity, running water and better conditions” were responses to the open question on changes caused by tourism in the last five years, with 396 had positive comments against 97 that were negative.

“Tourism helped local communities with job opportunities” was a general example given on the question of the effect of tourism on the local economy, confirmed by 324 positive remarks and 106 negative. In a study done in Tofo in the Inhambane district of Mozambique, 95% of respondents believed that tourism has increased the opportunities for local business (Hedberg & Hedberg, 2011:35).

The effect of tourism on poverty over the last five years produced answers like, *“Has reduced poverty in terms of increase of job opportunities for local people”* and *“Reduced poverty because it brought improvement in terms of infrastructure”* was confirmed by 305 positive to 70 negative on this question. Showing a perception that the local population used in this survey has a positive perception about the impact of

tourism, **contradicting** the analysis of MPI deprivation poverty levels and tourism impact factors of this study.

Reducing poverty through tourism is a mammoth task, containing an array of variables and indicators, specific to different community characteristics and environments and destinations, influenced by GoM and other stakeholders, internal and external factors. The need to shift mindsets to a wider view and thinking of the value chain and tourism's part in it is crucial (Mitchell & Ashley, 2009:4).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of the study was to determine the contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation in Mozambique with specific reference to Praia do Bilene and Macanetta.

The following objectives were formulated to attain this goal:

- To describe and understand the link between tourism and poverty. This was achieved in Chapter 2 and the following aspects were discussed:
 - Poverty and the global picture of poverty.
 - Primary causes of poverty.
 - Poverty and tourism.
 - The effects of tourism on the poor.
 - Pro-poor tourism: (PPT) A poverty reduction strategy and approach.
 - Poverty indicators.
 - Methods for assessing the impacts of tourism on poverty.
- To analyse the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique. This was achieved in Chapter 3, with an in-depth literature discussion on this matter. It focused on the following aspects:
 - History of tourism development in Mozambique.
 - Tourism policies, laws and strategies in Mozambique.
 - Poverty in Mozambique.
 - Multidimensional Poverty Index.
 - Growth in Mozambique Tourism.
- Impacts of tourism.
- To determine the perceptions of two Mozambican communities on tourism impacts and the impact of tourism on their poverty status by incorporating the Multi-

dimensional Poverty Index. Chapter 4 discusses the empirical results of this study, with emphasis on the following:

- Descriptive results:
 - Demographic profile of respondents.
 - Socio-economic information.
 - Impacts of tourism.
 - Poverty indicators.
- Exploratory research:
 - Tourism impacts by means of a factor analysis.
 - Aspects influencing tourism impacts by means of ANOVAs and t-tests.
 - Multidimensional Poverty Index.
 - The link between tourism and poverty levels.

Various conclusions can be drawn concerning the research objectives. The purpose of this chapter is thus to make conclusions and formulate recommendations with regard to this study and potential future research. Based on the data that has been obtained the subsequent conclusions are evident.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions are made with reference to:

- The link between tourism and poverty (Secondary Objective 1).
- The analysis of the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique (Secondary Objective 2).
- The survey focusing on the descriptive and exploratory results (Secondary Objective 3).

5.2.1 Conclusions with regard to the link between tourism and poverty

The following conclusions can be drawn, based on the literature study:

- Poverty is a complex phenomenon and difficult to define due to various conditions, views, array of indicators and dimensions. However, poverty can be seen as a condition characterised by severe deprivation of the basic needs/rights of a human being on all levels, not just economic. It is apparent that poverty is a global phenomenon and that every country or region has definite social, cultural, economic and environmental criteria that influence the perceptions and vulnerability of the poor and how poverty is experienced and perceived by the poor (see 2.2).
- Measurement of poverty therefore remains a challenge resulting from various aspects such as flaws, traps, lack of statistics and the absence of standard indicators (see 2.3).
- The Human Poverty Index (HPI, 2012:1) indicated that 1.4 billion people are living below the international poverty line of US\$1.25 a day or less, illustrating the magnitude of poverty worldwide (see 2.4).
- Various causes of poverty were identified and include lack of income or assets, sense of powerless and vulnerability to disasters and shocks (see 2.5).
- To understand the link between poverty and tourism, it is necessary to know the ways that poor households are influenced by tourism, the flows of income and other economic factors and the impact of tourism on the poor (see 2.6).
- Poverty alleviation is underlined by strategies and goals such as the Millennium goals, Global code of Ethics for Tourism, approaches to world trade agreements and the Sustainable Tourism ~ Elimination of Poverty initiative (ST~EP) (see 2.7).
- The effects of tourism on the lives of the poor could be observed in three ways - direct, indirect and induced (dynamic) contributions or effects (see 2.8):
 - o Direct positive effects of tourism on the poor are increased income, employment, conservation, investment, infrastructure, prestige, developing SMMEs, with possible leakages or spill overs, social impacts and environmental impacts that can have a less desirable or negative impact (see 2.8.1).
 - o Indirect or secondary effects of tourism on the poor are linked to the supply chain, like capital investments on infrastructure and government spending. It is

interesting to note that most indirect effects or benefits are not economic but rather social in nature (see 2.8.2).

- o Dynamic effects are even less tangible than direct or indirect effects. These induced effects are the alterations made to economic activity by citizens spending earnings and salaries that are directly or indirectly sustained by tourism activities (WTTC, 2012:2) (see 2.8.3).
- Pro-poor tourism is defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor, used as a poverty reduction strategy and although still misunderstood and contested (see 2.9) it involves numerous stakeholders. The three fundamental areas are increased economic benefits, positive non-economic impacts, and policy/process reform (see 2.9.2).
- The World Bank measures for poverty focus on the incidence of poverty (headcount index), the depth of poverty (poverty gap), poverty severity (squared poverty gap) (see 2.10) and these are widely used.
- On the other hand, multidimensional poverty indicators are divided into three major dimensions - education, health and living standards (see 2.10).
- Measuring poverty is a major challenge given the different methods and measures that exist to determine poverty levels.
- An overview of the different approaches to measure the benefits of tourism and poverty reduction shows that it is necessary to progress past the different poverty lines, the language of multipliers or the trickle-down theory and to classify and quantify specific benefits to the poor (see 2.11):
 - o The livelihood analysis, as a method, focuses on financial, human, natural & cultural, physical and social capital (see 2.11.1).
 - o The Sustainable livelihood analysis provides a better understanding and holistic view of the complex nature of tourism and interrelated developmental issues against poverty (Ashley *et al.*, 2000:6; Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:26) (see 2.11.2).
 - o Sustainable tourism – Elimination of poverty (ST~EP), contains seven mechanisms and refers to the following: Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises, supply of goods and services to tourism by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor, direct sales of goods and services to visitors by

the poor, establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor, tax and levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor, voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists, investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support from other sectors (see 2.11.3).

- o The Multi-dimensional poverty index and range of indicators is incorporated in the index to reveal the complexity of poverty. MPI includes a number of indicators that aspire to capture people's experience of deprivation, such as lack of education, poor health, inadequate living standard, low income, disempowerment and threat of violence (Smith, Mashhadi & Capra, 2013:3).

5.2.2 Conclusions with regard to the analysis of the current status of the tourism industry in Mozambique

Regarding Secondary Objective 2, the following conclusions are made:

- Mozambique has a growing tourism industry with beautiful beaches, natural and marine life divided in three geographical regions - north; centre and south (see 3.2).
- The economy and the tourism industry have recovered remarkably after the war with tourism spending contributing to over 25 billion metical to the country's GDP, indicating its impact and potential to the development and growth of the country (see 3.3).
- Several policies and strategies were adopted by Mozambique to address poverty and specifically the Action Plan for Reduction of Absolute Poverty PARPA (2001-2005), Strategic Plan for the Development of Tourism in Mozambique 2004-2013, PARPA II (2006-2009) and PARP (2011-2014) achieving very positive growth and poverty reduction. Despite all the apparent growth half of the population still reside in extreme poverty (see 3.4).
- Poverty in Mozambique branded the country in 1992 as the "poorest country" in the world but due to growth and related strategies a 7.5% growth rate was achieved leaving them third last on the HDI in 2013 (see 3.5).

- The Multidimensional poverty index confirms that 54% of Mozambican people live below the national poverty line, with 81% living under the US\$2 a day threshold set by the World Bank (see 3.6).
- Mozambique has experienced a major growth in the economy with an average of 7% growth in GDP from 2009 to 2011. Travel and tourism contributed a total of 32.7 billion Mozambican metical in 2013 to the GDP (WTTC(Moz), 2014:1). WTTC indicates the economic impact of tourism, with growth in direct, indirect and induced impacts, emphasising the positive role of the GoM and the multiplier effect of tourism in Mozambique (see 3.6).
- Various barriers hinder the development and expansion of tourism. These are: costly air travel, unqualified staff, poor infrastructure, land rights and language constraints (see 3.6.1).
- Infrastructure development is still taking place and the lack thereof in the rest of the country is impacting on development and functioning of the country and services delivered by businesses (see 3.6.2).
- South Africa plays an increasingly important role in the supply of resources and services, with local Mozambicans coming to South Africa to purchase and South African tourists developing and using Mozambique as a tourist destination (see 3.6.3).
- Impacts of tourism could be negative or positive and can be categorised as Economic, Social/Cultural and Environmental impacts on individuals, communities, countries and their resources (see 3.7).
- Economic impacts are the most common and important motivator for tourism development, containing direct and indirect benefits, economic flow of income, employment, multipliers, economic growth, foreign exchange, containing economic leakages. Influence such as seasonality, dependency, increased prices and vulnerability could be more negative as positive (see 3.7.1).
- Social/Cultural impacts are addressing different norms, consumption patterns and even behaviour of all parties involved. The interaction between stakeholders can cause changes in society and in cultures (see 3.7.2).

- Environmental impacts address issues in the construction and development of infrastructure and their impact on nature and ecosystems (see 3.7.3).

5.2.3 Conclusions with regard to the survey analysing the perception of tourism on poverty in Bilene and Macanetta

Regarding Research Objective 3, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- In the 2013-survey, 33% of respondents were female and 67% were male (see 4.2.1.2).
- Most of the respondents were under 40 years of age (83%) with the average age being 31.63 years (see 4.2.1.3) speaking mostly Shangaan (68%) and Portuguese (28%) (see 4.2.1.4).
- Forty-four percent have secondary education, 37% primary schooling and 9% no schooling (see 4.2.1.6). Despite the progress in education, nearly 80% of the workforce has not completed primary school and only 13% completed secondary school. Mozambique has a 54% literacy rate which is below African standards (64.8%) set in 2008 (African and Development Bank Group, 2011:9).
- Occupation resulted in informal employment (with fishing, agriculture and construction being the major sectors) (53%), informal employment (with cleaning services as the main sector) (47%) and unemployed (6%) (see 4.2.1.7).
- Most of the respondents (45%) were permanently employment; whilst 38% were part-time; and 17% were employed on a contract basis. Sixty-one percent have only one job, whereas 20% have two and 14% have three or more jobs. Only 37% are working in the tourism sector, more specifically food and beverage (28%) and accommodation (24%) (see 4.2.2.1).
- The respondents (42%) indicated an increase in income over the last five years where some of them work six days per week (43%) and others work seven days per week (24%) (see 4.2.2.1).
- The analysis of data indicated that 57% had a bank account, 69% had some financial debt and only 23% receive grants from Government. In 9% of the

households there was no financial support, with 35% that had one person and 34% that had two people contributing financially to the household. Forty-five percent of respondents make their own decisions about money in the household (see 4.2.2.2).

- It was determined by the analysis of data that 54% of the respondents stayed their whole life in the relevant area. Property is owned by 56% and 84% use it as residence (see 4.2.3).
- The descriptive statistics confirmed that 43% have more than four children per household. Thirty percent of households have two adults but 62% have more than two with 16% that have more than six adults forming part of the household (see 4.2.3.2).
- Living conditions were firstly determined by access to resources. Access to electricity was the highest with 73% of the respondents having access (see 4.2.4). Mozambique country strategic paper 2011-2015 (African and Development Bank Group, 2011:6) indicated that only 17% of the population currently have access to electricity in Mozambique.
- Seventy-eight percent do not have access to indoor toilet facilities, opportunities for harvesting reeds, grass or wood (71%), fishing (69%) and the ocean (68%). Half of the respondents indicated that they do not have access to health and education facilities, which are a main indicator of poverty levels (see 4.2.4).
- Cooking fuel used was wood (75%) and charcoal (62%), with 88% owning cell phones, 70% owning radios and 65% owning televisions as assets (see 4.2.4). This is linked by statistics from South African Tourism (SAT, 2012:31) indicating that 88% of people who are willing pay for a cell phone, have secondary education.
- The analysis indicated that 53% acquired a new language skill by interacting with tourists; with 65% who participated in community discussions regarding tourism (see 4.2.5).
- Only 26% of the respondents sell directly to tourists, with 52% of those who sells on a daily basis to tourists (see 4.2.5).
- Open ended questions indicated that changes caused by tourism in the last five years, had 396 positive comments against 97 negative comments. Respondents

confirmed by 324 positive remarks and 106 negative, that tourism has an effect on the economy. The effect of tourism on poverty over the last five years was confirmed by 305 positive statements to 70 negative on this question. These displays the positive perceptions of the local population about the impacts of tourism (see 4.2.5).

- Poverty indicators were collected on health, water source, cooking fuel used, number of meals, type of housing, modes of transport, school attendance and safety of respondents (see 4.2.6).
 - o Distance to healthcare facilities varied, with 21% that live less than 1 km from a health care facility, 19% that need to travel between 6-9 km to these facilities and 21% that need to travel over 9.1 km and further. Sixty-two percent of respondents visit healthcare facilities 1-5 times per year.
 - o Twenty-two percent of respondents reported the death of a child in the household in last year.
 - o Contracting malaria at 79% was the highest reported sickness, with 83% receiving medication.
 - o Thirty percent of respondents have only two meals a day and 64% have three meals.
 - o Main water sources reported by respondents were 54% from tap and 36% from borehole.
 - o Sixty-four percent spend more than two hours collecting firewood for cooking as wood (75%) and charcoals (62%) are the main fuels used for cooking (see 4.2.4).
 - o Building material used in the construction of houses - 35% used reeds and 47% bricks with only 22% that have metal roofing.
 - o Fifty-seven percent of respondents walked as their mode of transport and only 7% own a car.
 - o Forty-two percent of children did not attend school in the last year due to a variety of reasons.
 - o Eighty-seven percent of respondents feel safe in their respective communities.

- A factor analysis on the impacts of tourism determined *destination impact* to be the most important with a mean value of 3.6. This refers to pride; Mozambique becoming well-known, improvement and protection of the natural environment and the development of respect and understanding of visitors (see 4.3.1).
- *Negative personal impacts* were rated as the second most important tourism impact with a mean value of 3.5. In this study, it is therefore determined that respondents agree that tourism led to an increase in negative personal impacts (see 4.3.1).
- By means of ANOVA, significant differences were found between ($p < 0.05$) employment (permanent/full-time, temporary/part-time, contract) and the impacts of tourism (factor analysis) on the community. Rating that *negative personal impact* was higher with part-time and contractual workers than permanent employed, while permanent and part-time employed rated “*community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes*” higher than people with contract employment (see 4.3.2). There is thus value in permanent employment in the tourism industry.
- An independent sample t-test was conducted to determine the views of males and females on destination impacts, with three small differences noted in *negative personal impact*, *positive personal impact* and *developmental impacts*. The men rated these impacts as more important than the women (see 4.3.2).
- An independent samples t-test also revealed six significant differences between the impacts of tourism and language. Portuguese speaking people rated *economic impacts*, *negative social impacts*, *negative personal impacts*, *increased pollution and opportunities to be part of tourism planning* higher than Shangaan speaking respondents (see 4.3.2, table 4.13).
- A small effect size was reported between marital status and factors. Married respondents have rated *negative personal impacts*; *positive personal impacts* and *destination impacts*, higher than single respondents. Single respondents rated the *negative social impacts* and *lives of residents are disrupted by tourism* higher than married respondents (see 4.3.2, table 4.14).
- Owning property and destination impacts resulted in those owning their own property rated positive personal impact higher than those not owning property. While

Negative social impacts were rated higher than by those not owning property (see 4.3.2, Table 4.15).

- Significant differences were found for owning a business enterprise and the impacts of tourism. Positive *personal impacts* and *negative social impacts* were rated higher by respondents owning a business enterprise compared to those not owning a business, while a noisier environment was rated by higher by those without a business (see 4.3.2, Table 4.16).
- Selling directly to tourists definitely has an impact on the residents' perception of destination impacts, rating *economic impacts*, *negative personal impacts* and *positive personal impacts* higher than those not selling to directly to tourist (see 4.3.2, Table 4.18).
- Acquiring a new language through interaction with tourists was rated a positive by half of the respondents in this study, with *economic impacts* rated higher by those who learned a new foreign language (see 4.3.2, Table 4.19).
- An independent samples t-test found significant differences between the opportunities for residents to be part of tourism discussions and planning, with a higher rating on *economic impact*, *negative personal impacts* and *developmental impacts* by those who participate to those who do not (see 4.3.2, Table 4.20).
- Eighty percent of respondents are feeling safe in their communities and showed a significant difference in terms of *positive personal impacts* and *destination impacts* which were rated higher than those not feeling safe (see 4.3.2).
- The descriptive statistics confirmed that the incidence of poverty (H) is 46% of people who live in poor households, with 44.11% deprived in intensity of poverty, amounting to a 0.20% MPI (see 4.4.1-2). These results differ from van den Boom (2011:41) who found that the poverty headcount has declined sharply from 69% in 1997 to 54% in 2003. However, this level has remained stable in the recent period from 2003 (54.1%) to 2009 (54.7%). MPI in Mozambique, according to the World Bank (2012) and OPHI (2013:2) is at 0,512, and incidence of poverty (H) 79.3% and 64.6% average intensity of deprivation (A), which is based on the HDS 2009 survey for the country, showing a higher incidence of poverty calculated in this research. Findings in this research correlate well with the Maputo province statistics given by

OPHI (2013:5) with 0.295% MPI and a 52.2% (H). The main objective of the PARP is to reduce the incidence of poverty from 54.7% in 2009 to 42% in 2014, which is on track according to this study. Therefore the poverty levels in various studies were basically the same.

- In the three dimensions of the MPI, deprivation scores are as follows: **education:** 34.3%; **health:** 18.11% and **standard of living conditions:** 47.59% (see 4.4.3). Development and Health Survey in 2009 indicated a country MPI of 14.9% on years schooling and 9% on school attendance, totalling to a 23.9% deprived in the education dimension compared to this research of 34.3% in education dimension, which is considerably higher. The DHS calculated a 36.2% in child mortality (no nutrition statistics available) will in this study a low 18% were measured. The standard of living dimension a 40% were measured in the DHS with a higher 47.59% measured in this research (OPHI, 2013:3).
- Those that participate in community discussions on tourism were less deprived (education, health and living conditions) than those that did not participate (see 4.5.1).
- Comparing the relationship between the deprivation scores and the tourism impact factors by means of a t-test and Spearman Correlations, no significant differences were found. According to the respondents in this study, tourism is not currently contributing to addressing deprivations. (see 4.5).
- The use of the MPI in conjunction with tourism impacts as a measurement tool is new and provides unexpected gaps but also undeniable possibilities for future research.
- Given that limited information is available on poor people's perceptions regarding these issues, this study provides more insight and perceptions of poverty and tourism of poor people. One should therefore regard this information important in terms of product development, participation in community planning and meetings regarding tourism and possible training in tourism related fields.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations regarding the impact of tourism on poverty, as well as recommendations regarding further research will be made in the next section.

5.3.1 Recommendations regarding the perceptions of tourism impacts on the poverty status of Mozambican residents.

The following recommendations can be made with regard to the community:

- The positive perceptions of the community as analysed in the study are good and Mozambique should capitalise on these perceptions by developing more tourism enterprises. Ways to transform this perception into tangible results are needed such as more permanent employment and direct sales to tourist. More direct benefits to communities need to be created such as infrastructure, new markets, new products and small business.
- Interaction between tourists, tourism establishments and local communities is necessary to determine a better understanding of each other's needs and wants, using meetings, information sharing at info centres, the reception areas of establishments and on electronic media. Recommending too use cell phones for training and information due to easy access and high ownership.
- It is recommended that the community becomes more involved in the tourism industry by: participating in tourism related meeting and activities.
- It is also recommended that start-up capital is provided under certain conditions provided that mentors are available to assist new tourism product owners in making a success of their business.

The following recommendations can be made regarding the Government and their role in the industry:

- Provide information on new developments and plans for future projects.
- To create participation for local communities in these developments, by joint management and decision making processes.
- To provide information and training on new products needed and possible new markets.
- Removing barriers to local participation, by providing interaction on grassroots, training and skills development.
- Removing barriers to land ownership, to get full custody or ownership, to enhance permanence and long term development.
- Tourism was indicated as a major generator of employment. Strategies and policies are needed to put more pressure on the tourism sector for training and skill advancement for local staff. Strategies such as increased minimum wage, policies toward number locals employed to number foreigners employed by a tourism enterprises.
- Leakages need to be better managed and reduced, through improving local involvement and ownership of tourism amenities. Co-ownership between foreigners and local business people is needed to provide assistance, mentoring and development of tourism enterprises that are owned by local people.

The following recommendations can be made regarding the development of the tourism industry

- New product development and identification, communicating on requirements from tourism enterprises and tourists on services and products which are needed.

- Recommending that new tourism activities, like exploring water sport activities must be developed. Expanding the range of activities and especially the rules around the Maritime laws and official's implementation and corruption towards tourists and tourist enterprises are needed.

Final recommendations regarding the current poverty levels in Mozambique:

- Skills training in tourism related employment are needed, tourism and hospitality training courses such as chef, housekeeping, front office and management.
- It is determined that local people feel they do not have access to natural resources, like the ocean, lakes, education, health facilities and other natural resources. There is a need to empower people to identify new ways of using these resources and exploring the potential they hold. Entrepreneurial skills and focus need to be enhanced at school and community level.
- Interventions like skills transfer by stakeholders and even philanthropy tourists to enhance development and growth.
- Governments in most developing countries rely heavily on the growing economic support provided by tourism. GoM and communities need to work more closely with decision making, policy development and efforts to help the communities capitalise on this tourism potential directly or indirectly.
- The local people are poor and it is recommended that the tourism industry is further developed to alleviate poverty by: employing locals on a permanent basis, assisting locals to product development such as adventure activities, fishing, water sports, tour guides, providing entertainment to tourist, and cleaners for tourism camp and accommodation sites.

5.3.2 Recommendations regarding further research

- Although this study made significant progress with regard to the influence of tourism on poverty alleviation, there are unsolved issues and a need for common ground on standardised and measurement indicators. This topic should therefore be researched continuously to monitor progress in this regard.
- Research on the effective management and use of tourism benefits should be modelled in future research to identify a win-win situation in the various communities. The value chain and its impact need to be determined.
- The widely differing definitions and indicators of poverty make it difficult to find a common thread in the search for a true and accurate assessment of poverty. This also holds true for the linkage to tourism. Common ground on indicators, targets and measurement instruments needs to be agreed upon. Standardisation to a formula or toolkit needs to be developed to enable comparable research and findings.
- It is recommended that future researchers simplify the questionnaire so that all members of the community could easily understand the content. In particular, the Likert scale where the terms strongly agreed and agreed were not fully understood by respondents should be simplified. Portuguese is not the first language of most respondents, although used as the education medium; respondents are not as fluent in it as anticipated, and therefore the language of the questionnaire needs to be further simplified. During further research, the user's education and language profile should be kept in mind because it can affect the interpretation and answering of questions. Academic measuring scales like the Likert scale need to be simplified for rural poor people. It is suggested that an anthropological assessment of the questionnaire would not be remiss.
- A recommendation is made that the correlation between tourism income and donor funded expenses be determined. GoM and role-players in Mozambique should focus on recruiting more investments for big developments and business, harvesting the

potential of the resources in Mozambique, creating new products, business and employment. This is especially so for activities and responsible tourism development on the beautiful 2700 km coast line.

- Future researchers might even consider a qualitative approach to receive more in-depth research results on the challenges and problems experienced, with terminology, language and quantifying benefits.

5.3.3 Limitations experienced in this research

- Language and terminology did have an impact on the communication and interpretation of certain questions included in the questionnaire. The concepts as defined in the English terminology often did not exist in the framework of a multi-linguist where none of the languages were English. Most of the respondents were schooled in Portuguese with Shangaan as their home language, which made the Portuguese questionnaire a challenge.
- Education levels contributed to communication as a challenge but it is not possible to address this issue without an increase in the nationwide level of education.
- Fieldwork was a challenge due to language and educational difficulties as well as logistics, thick sand, rudimentary roads in some parts, a tiresome ferry crossing for fieldworkers and the replenishment of supplies.
- The measurement of perceptions is limiting but provided insightful results for the population that can be further developed.

In a personal reflection, the poverty level was higher than expected. Due to a very tropical climate and sustainable living people do not seem to be so poor. The realization that most people have to walk to get anything or to do was an eye opener. The saddest was the realization that 68% do not see themselves to having access to the ocean, not

seeing the potential of the resources and their environment. Personal reports to how tourism has changed their lives, giving them new opportunities, opened doors due to new language and skills learned thru tourism was encouraging. Unfortunately the vulnerability of the local's poor position was clearly observed.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH) BILENE - MOZAMBIQUE

PLEASE TICK OR CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK

COMMUNITY QUESTIONNAIRE 2013

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender

M	1
F	2

2. When were you born?

19

3. What is your home language?

Shangaan	1
Portuguese	2
Other (Specify)	3

4. What is your occupation/job?

5. How many jobs do you have?

--

6. What is your marital status?

Married	Divorce	Single
---------	---------	--------

7. How many people live in your household?

Number of children younger than 18	
Number of adults	

8. Do you work in the tourism industry?

YES	NO
-----	----

If yes in which sector?

Accommodation	1
Food and Beverage/Restaurant	2
Transportation	3
Artisan/Carver	4
Tour Guide	5
Indirect Service (e.g., Cleaner)	6

9. What is the nature of your employment?

Temporary	1
Permanent	2
Part-time	3
Full-time	4
Contract	5
Casual	6

10. What is your highest qualification?

No schooling	1
Primary school	2
Secondary school	3
Further education	4
Degree	5
Other (Specify)	6

11. How long have you been living in Bilene?

Number of years

--

12. Do you own property in Mozambique?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, indicate what it is used for

13. Home-ownership?

Self-owned	1
Rented	2
Family-owned	3
Other (Specify):	4

14. How has your income changed in the past 5 years?

Decreased a lot	1
Slightly decreased	2
No change	3
Slightly increased	4
Increased a lot	5

15. How many hours do you work every:

Day	1
Week	2
Month	3

16. How many days do you work every week?

Number of days

--

17. How many people in your household are unemployed?

Number of people

--

SECTION B: HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION

18. Do you have access to the following:

Electricity	YES	NO
Running water	YES	NO
In-door toilet facilities	YES	NO
Out-door toilet facilities	YES	NO
Farming land/fields	YES	NO
Harvesting of reeds, wood, gra	YES	NO
Fishing	YES	NO
Ocean	YES	NO
Health care facilities	YES	NO
Education facilities	YES	NO

19. Which of the following fuels do you mainly use for cooking?

Wood	YES	NO
Gas	YES	NO
Electricity	YES	NO
Paraffin	YES	NO
Solar power	YES	NO
Charcoal	YES	NO

21. Do you have your own business? ☐ YES ☐ NO

22. Do you sell goods to tourists? ☐ YES ☐ NO

23. How often do you sell these goods?

20. Which of the following assets do you own?

Cell phone	1
Your own business	2
Own transport - car	3
Motorcycle or quad bike	4
Bicycle	5
Boat	6
Own house	7
Fishing equipment	8
Fishing rod and reel	9
Fishing nets	10
Fish traps	11
Agricultural fresh products	12
Livestock	13
Radio	14
TV	15
Appliances - fridge, stove	16
Own stall on street	17
Own business premises	18

Specify:

Type of goods:

☐ daily ☐ every week ☐ every month

24. How (where) do you get these goods?

25. Do you have a own bank account?

Yes	NO
Yes	NO

26. Do you have debt?

27. Do you or family members receive government grants or pension?

☐ YES ☐ NO

28. How many people financially support your household?

29. Did you learn a foreign language by interacting with tourists?

☐ YES ☐ NO

30. Do you participate in community discussions regarding tourism?

☐ YES ☐ NO

31. How has tourism changed in Bilene over the past five years?

32. How has tourism affected the local economy of Bilene over the past five years?

33. How has tourism affected poverty in Bilene over the past five years?

34. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following impacts of tourism.

BECAUSE OF TOURISM	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
2. there are opportunities for me to learn more about my	1	2	3	4	5
3. there is more pollution in Mozambique	1	2	3	4	5
4. there are more traffic problems	1	2	3	4	5
5. the price of properties and homes have increased	1	2	3	4	5
6. the total cost of living has increased	1	2	3	4	5
7. the community earns more money	1	2	3	4	5
8. there has been a rise in crime	1	2	3	4	5
9. cultural traditions are fading	1	2	3	4	5
10. vandalism has increased	1	2	3	4	5
11. my everyday lifestyle has improved	1	2	3	4	5
12. the natural environment of Mozambique is protected	1	2	3	4	5
13. there are too many visitors in the area	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am proud to stay in Mozambique	1	2	3	4	5
15. Mozambique environment has improved	1	2	3	4	5
16. there are opportunities for residents to be part of tourism planning.	1	2	3	4	5
17. my environment is noisier	1	2	3	4	5
18. I learn more about other cultures	1	2	3	4	5
19. new infrastructure has developed	1	2	3	4	5
20. Mozambique has become well-known	1	2	3	4	5
21. local areas, services & infrastructure (such as roads) are improving	1	2	3	4	5
22. more jobs are created in the area	1	2	3	4	5
23. there are more opportunities for local businesses	1	2	3	4	5
24. businesses only doing well at certain times of the year	1	2	3	4	5
25. tourism developments has increased in the area	1	2	3	4	5
26. community members only showcase their culture for tourism purposes	1	2	3	4	5
27. the local cultures are protected	1	2	3	4	5
28. I developed respect and understanding for visitors	1	2	3	4	5
29. the lives of residents are disrupted	1	2	3	4	5
30. my environment looks dirty/ugly	1	2	3	4	5
31. I acquired more knowledge or a new skill					
32. I am employed					
33. I have a business					
34. I can provide for my family					
SECTION C: QUALITY OF LIVING					

35. How far is the nearest health centre from home?

kilometres?

36. Did any of the children in your household not attend school in the past year

☐ YES ☐ NO

If yes, why not?

37. Did any child in the family die in the past year?

☐ YES ☐ NO

38. How many times have you and your family members attended the health clinic in the past year?

39. How many meals does your family eat in a day?

Times

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4

40. Where do you get your drinking water?

Tap	
Borehole	
Lake	
Other	

42.a) How much Metical's do you spend on energy sources per day?

42b). How much time do you and your household members spend collecting wood every day? (hours)

45. What mode of transportation do you use?

Walking	
Bicycle	
Chappa (Public transport)	
Own Vehicle	
Taxi	

46. Who makes decisions about money in your household?

48. What is your dream?

41. What sicknesses, ailments have been diagnosed within your family in the past year?

Malaria	
Bilharzia	
Cholera	
HIV/AIDS	
TB	
Other	

43. Did you receive the necessary medication for these illnesses? If not, why not?

44. Your current house is made of:

Straw	1
Brick	2
Metal roofing	3
Reeds	4
Wood	5
Other	6

47. Do you feel safe living in this community? Why or why not?

YES	NO
-----	----

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE (PORTUGUESE) BILENE – MOZAMBIQUE

O objetivo desta pesquisa é entender as opiniões da comunidade sobre o turismo e a influência de turistas nas vidas dos residentes. Agradecemos a sua colaboração colaboração neste projeto que irá contribuir para um grau de mestrado em turismo.

SEÇÃO A: INFORMAÇÃO DEMOGRÁFICA

1. Sexo	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>M</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>F</td> <td>2</td> </tr> </table>	M	1	F	2	10. Qual é a sua qualificação superior	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Sem ensino ou educação</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Escola Primária</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Escola Secundária</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Educação Superior ou Ensino Superior</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Graduado</td> <td>5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Outro(-a) (especifique)</td> <td>6</td> </tr> </table>	Sem ensino ou educação	1	Escola Primária	2	Escola Secundária	3	Educação Superior ou Ensino Superior	4	Graduado	5	Outro(-a) (especifique)	6
M	1																		
F	2																		
Sem ensino ou educação	1																		
Escola Primária	2																		
Escola Secundária	3																		
Educação Superior ou Ensino Superior	4																		
Graduado	5																		
Outro(-a) (especifique)	6																		
2. Data de nascimento	19																		
3. Qual é a sua língua materna	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Changana</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Português</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Outro(-a) (especifique)</td> <td>3</td> </tr> </table>	Changana	1	Português	2	Outro(-a) (especifique)	3	11. Á quanto tempo moras em Bilene?											
Changana	1																		
Português	2																		
Outro(-a) (especifique)	3																		
		Numero de anos																	
4. Qual é a sua Profissão/Profissão?		12. Você tem propriedade em Moçambique?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Sim</td> <td>Não</td> </tr> </table>	Sim	Não														
Sim	Não																		
5. Quantos trabalhos tem?		Se sim, indica para que é utilizado																	
6. Qual é o seu Estado Civil?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Casado</td> <td>Divorciado</td> <td>Solteiro</td> </tr> </table>	Casado	Divorciado	Solteiro	13. Casa própria?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Próprio proprietário</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Arrendado</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Propriedade familiar</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Outra (Especifiq</td> <td>4</td> </tr> </table>	Próprio proprietário	1	Arrendado	2	Propriedade familiar	3	Outra (Especifiq	4					
Casado	Divorciado	Solteiro																	
Próprio proprietário	1																		
Arrendado	2																		
Propriedade familiar	3																		
Outra (Especifiq	4																		
7. Quantas pessoas vivem em sua casa?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Número de crianças menores de 18</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Número de adultos</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	Número de crianças menores de 18			Número de adultos			14. Como o seu vencimento mudou nos últimos 5 anos?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Decresceu bastante</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Decresceu ligeiramente</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Nenhuma mudança</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cresceu ligeiramente</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cresceu bastante</td> <td>5</td> </tr> </table>	Decresceu bastante	1	Decresceu ligeiramente	2	Nenhuma mudança	3	Cresceu ligeiramente	4	Cresceu bastante	5
Número de crianças menores de 18																			
Número de adultos																			
Decresceu bastante	1																		
Decresceu ligeiramente	2																		
Nenhuma mudança	3																		
Cresceu ligeiramente	4																		
Cresceu bastante	5																		
8. Trabalhas em uma Indústria de Turismo?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Sim</td> <td>Não</td> </tr> </table>	Sim	Não	15. Quantas horas trabalha em cada:	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Dia</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Semana</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mês</td> <td>3</td> </tr> </table>	Dia	1	Semana	2	Mês	3								
Sim	Não																		
Dia	1																		
Semana	2																		
Mês	3																		
Se sim em que setor?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Acomodação</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Comida e Bebida/Restaurante</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Transportação</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Artesão/Escultor</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Guia Turístico</td> <td>5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Serviços Indiretos (exp. Faxineiro(-a))</td> <td>6</td> </tr> </table>	Acomodação	1	Comida e Bebida/Restaurante	2	Transportação	3	Artesão/Escultor	4	Guia Turístico	5	Serviços Indiretos (exp. Faxineiro(-a))	6	16. Quantos dias trabalha por semana?					
Acomodação	1																		
Comida e Bebida/Restaurante	2																		
Transportação	3																		
Artesão/Escultor	4																		
Guia Turístico	5																		
Serviços Indiretos (exp. Faxineiro(-a))	6																		
		Numero de anos																	
9. Qual é a natureza do seu Trabalho?	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Temporário</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Permanente</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>De meio expediente</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>De tempo completo or integral</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Contrato</td> <td>5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Eventual</td> <td>6</td> </tr> </table>	Temporário	1	Permanente	2	De meio expediente	3	De tempo completo or integral	4	Contrato	5	Eventual	6	17. Quantas pessoas estão desempregadas na sua casa?					
Temporário	1																		
Permanente	2																		
De meio expediente	3																		
De tempo completo or integral	4																		
Contrato	5																		
Eventual	6																		
		Numero de pessoas																	

SECTION B: HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION/SEÇÃO B: INFORMAÇÃO CASEIRA

18. Vocês tem acesso ao seguinte:

Electricidade	SIM	NÃO
Água corrente	SIM	NÃO
Instalações sanitárias dentro de casa	SIM	NÃO
Instalações sanitárias fora de casa	SIM	NÃO
Cultivo de terra / Campos	SIM	NÃO
Colheita de cana / madeira / capim	SIM	NÃO
Pesca	SIM	NÃO
Oceano	SIM	NÃO
Serviços de saúde	SIM	NÃO
Serviços de educação	SIM	NÃO

19. Qual dos seguintes combustíveis você usa principalmente para cozinhar?

Lenha	SIM	NÃO
Gaz	SIM	NÃO
Electricidade	SIM	NÃO
Parafina	SIM	NÃO
Painel Solar	SIM	NÃO
Carvão	SIM	NÃO

21. Você tem seu próprio negócio?

☐ SIM ☐ NÃO

22. Você vende mercadorias para turistas?

☐ SIM ☐ NÃO

23. Quantas vezes você vende esses produtos?

20. Quais dos seguintes bens possui?

Telefone celular	
Seu próprio negócio	
Transporte ou carro pessoal	
Motociclo ou motos usadas nas praias	
Bicicleta	
Barco	
Casa própria	
Equipamento de pesca	
Vara de pesca	
Redes de pesca	
Emboscada de pesca	
Produtos frescos de agricultura	
Gado	
Radio	
TV	
Aparelho-geladeira(geleira),fogão	
Barraca própria.	
Local de negócio próprio	

Especifique

Tipos de artigos(bens)

☐ diários ☐ todas semanas ☐ todos meses

24. Como (onde) você obtém esses produtos?

25. Você tem conta bancária?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

26. Tem alguma dívida?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

27. Você ou algum dos membros da família recebem subsídios do governo ou pensão?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

28. Quantas pessoas apoiam financeiramente a sua casa?

29. Aprendeste alguma língua estrangeira por interagir com os turistas?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

30. Participas nos discursos Comunitarios com relação a turismo?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

31. Como o turismo mudou em Bilene, nos últimos cinco anos?

32. Como o turismo affectou a economia local de Bilene, nos últimos cinco anos?

33. Como que o turismo tem afetado a economia de Bilene nos ultimos cinco(5) anos?

34. Por favor indique até que ponto concorda ou não concorda com as seguintes impactos de turismo:					
POR CAUSA DO TURISMO	DISCORDO FORTE- MENTE	DISCORDO	NEUTRAL	CONCORDO	CONCORDO FORTE-MENTE
2. há muitas oportunidades de lazer para a comunidade	1	2	3	4	5
3. há mais poluição em Moçambique	1	2	3	4	5
4. há mais problemas de tráfico	1	2	3	4	5
5. o preço de propriedades e residências têm aumentado	1	2	3	4	5
6. o custo total de vida aumentou	1	2	3	4	5
7. a comunidade ganha mais dinheiro	1	2	3	4	5
8. houve aumento de criminalidade.	1	2	3	4	5
9. as tradições culturais estão desaparecendo.	1	2	3	4	5
10. vandalismo aumentou	1	2	3	4	5
11. meu estilo de vida diario tem melhorado.	1	2	3	4	5
12. o ambiente natural de Moçambique está protegido	1	2	3	4	5
13. existem muitos visitantes na área	1	2	3	4	5
14. eu tenho orgulho de estar em	1	2	3	4	5
15. o ambiente de Moçambique parece melhor	1	2	3	4	5
16. há oportunidade para os residentes fazerem parte do planeamento do turismo	1	2	3	4	5
17. meu ambiente é barulhento	1	2	3	4	5
18. aprendo mais sobre outras culturas	1	2	3	4	5
19. novas infra-estruturas desenvolveram	1	2	3	4	5
20. Moçambique tornou-se bem conhecido	1	2	3	4	5
21. áreas locais, serviços e infra-estrutura (como estradas) estão melhorando	1	2	3	4	5
22. mais empregos ou trabalhos estão a ser criados na area	1	2	3	4	5
23. há mais oportunidades para negócios locais	1	2	3	4	5
24. negócios só estão fazendo bem em determinadas épocas do ano	1	2	3	4	5
25. desenvolvimentos turísticos têm aumentado na área	1	2	3	4	5
26. membros da comunidade só exibem ou demostram as súas culturas para propósito turístico.	1	2	3	4	5
27. as culturas locais estão protegidas	1	2	3	4	5
28. eu desenvolvi respeito e compreensão para com os visitantes	1	2	3	4	5
29. ás vidas dos moradores é barrulhenta	1	2	3	4	5
30. o meu ambiente é sujo e feio	1	2	3	4	5
31. eu adquiri mais conhecimento ou uma nova habilidade	1	2	3	4	5
32. eu estou empregado	1	2	3	4	5
33. eu tenho um negócio	1	2	3	4	5
34. eu posso fornecer / providenciar para minha família	1	2	3	4	5

SECÇÃO C: QUALIDADE DE VIDA

35. Até que ponto é o centro de saúde mais próximo de casa?

Quilómetros?

36. Algum dos filhos em sua casa, não frequentou a escola no ano passado

☐ Sim ☐ Não

Se sim, por que não?

37. Alguma criança na família perdeu a vida no ano passado?

☐ Sim ☐ Não

39. Quantas refeições a sua família tem por dia?

1 2 3 4

38. Quantas vezes você e seus membros familiares foram a clínica de saúde no ano passado?

Vezes

41. Que doenças, incômodos de saúde foram diagnosticados no seio da sua família, no ano passado?

Malaria	☐
Bilharziose	☐
Cólera	☐
HIV/SIDA	☐
Tuberculose	☐
Outro	☐

40. De onde você tira sua água potável?

Torneira	☐
Poço	☐
Lago	☐
Outro	☐

42.a) Quanto gastas de energia por dia?
Se a resposta for 0 de custo, então complete 42b

43. Você recebeu a medicação necessária?
Se não, por que não?

42b). Quanto tempo você e a sua família leva colher lenha?

45. Que meio de transporte usas?

Caminhas	☐
Bicicleta	☐
Transporte público(chapas)	☐
Carro pessoal	☐
Taxi	☐

44. A sua casa actual é feita de:

Palha	1
Tijolo	2
Telhado de zinco	3
Caniço	4
Madeira	5
Outro	6

46. Você recebeu a medicação necessária Se não, por que não?

47. Quem faz as decisões sobre dinheiro no seu agregado familiar?

48. Qual é o seu sonho?

Agradecemos pela vossa colaboração !