
By

Gabriel Musasa
201107514

Dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of: Master of Philosophy in Social Science (Development Studies, University Of Fort Hare)

Supervisor: Dr G. Shaw

Co-Supervisor: Dr P. B. Monyai

Department of Development Studies
Faculty of Management and Commerce
University of Fort Hare
Republic of South Africa

January 2013
Declaration

I, the undersigned Gabriel Musasa, certify that the thesis herein is my own work and has not been taken from someone else. The sources used in this thesis have been acknowledged for the enhancement of this study. This thesis has not been and will not be submitted to another university or institution of learning for the attainment of another degree, diploma, fellowship or other similar titles.

Signature: ........................................... Date: ....../ .............../ 2013
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents Robert and Loice. I love you all.
Declaration on Research Ethics Clearance

I Gabriel Musasa Student number 201107514 hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare’s policy on research ethics and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations. I have obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the University of Fort hare’s research ethic committee and my reference number is: SHA011SMU01

Signature ..........................
Declaration on Plagiarism

I Gabriel Musasa 201107514 hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare’s policy on plagiarism and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations.

Signature……………………….
Acknowledgements

Firstly I would like to thank the Almighty God who gave me and my supervisors the life and zeal to work on this thesis. It is a pleasure to acknowledge those who have helped in the preparation of this thesis. I am so grateful to my supervisor Dr Gordon Shaw and Co-supervisor Dr Priscilla B. Monyai who worked tirelessly to the success of this dissertation.

I would also like to acknowledge University of Fort Hare Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre (GMRDC) who contributed immensely to my study by providing me with financial support for data collection as well as a fee waiver for the entire study. Many thanks to a precious friend Professor Dr. Antonel Olckers of DNAbiotec for providing me a laptop at the most crucial time of my studies for the success of this thesis.

I would like to acknowledge my research assistants Joseph Daitai, Edward Chatikobo and Mr. Ngundu. I am also grateful to the people who have remained a source of support and love during the time of this research. My beloved family, my father Robert, my mother Loice, my brother Eliseus, and my sister Eunice. I am so grateful for them for their constant support and prayers.

Many thanks to my friends, Zepheniah, Brave, Sei, Salome and extended family Steven and Shamiso Mago are also thanked for their endless support with encouraging phone calls and emails that gave me hope. God bless you all.
# Table of Contents

Declaration............................................................................................................................. i

Dedication............................................................................................................................... ii

Declaration on Research Ethics Clearance........................................................................ iii

Declaration on Plagiarism..................................................................................................... iv

Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................. v

Abstract ................................................................................................................................. xii

Acronyms ............................................................................................................................... xiv

Abbreviations ......................................................................................................................... xvi

Chapter 1: Problem Statement and Purpose of Study ......................................................... 1

1.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 1

1.2 Statement of the Problem ............................................................................................... 5

1.3 Objectives of the Study .................................................................................................. 7

1.4 Significance of Study ...................................................................................................... 7

1.5 Delineation of the Study ................................................................................................ 9

1.6 Conclusion ..................................................................................................................... 10

Chapter 2: Concepts and Theories for Sustainable Rural Tourism .................................... 12

2.1 Introduction ..................................................................................................................... 12

2.2 Defining Rurality ............................................................................................................. 12

2.3 Conceptualising Rural Tourism ...................................................................................... 14

2.4 Rural Tourism and Policy Issues ................................................................................... 19

2.5 The Growth of Rural Tourism ....................................................................................... 21

2.6 The Potential Role of Tourism and Possible Impacts ................................................... 22

2.7 Challenges of Sustainable Rural Tourism Development ............................................. 26

2.7.1 Resident attitudes toward tourism development ......................................................... 26

2.7.2 Marketing .................................................................................................................. 27
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.7.3 Rural Tourism Governance</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Theoretical Issues</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.1 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach: Principles and Concepts</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.2 Rural Tourism as a Sustainable Alternative</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.3 Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.4 Capital Assets</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.5 Transforming Structures and Processes:</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.6 Vulnerability context</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.7 Livelihood Outcomes</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.8 Livelihood Strategies</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.9 The Transformative Approach</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Conclusion</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3: Background of Great Zimbabwe area</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Introduction</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Zimbabwe Background</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Tourism in Zimbabwe</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.1 The Tourism Policy</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.2 Community Based Tourism</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.3 Campfire</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 Study Area: Great Zimbabwe</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.1 Livelihood Strategies</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2 Wealth</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.3 Source of Food and Cash</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4 Health</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 The Monument History</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C: The Herald Zimbabwe
Appendix F: Interview Guide for Tourism Business Owners
Appendix G: Interview Guide for Governmental Organizations
Appendix H: Translated Interview Guide for Household Participants
Appendix I: Translated Interview Guide for Tourism Business Owners
Appendix J: Translated Interview Guide for Governmental Organizations
Appendix K: Picture of One on One Interview
Appendix L: Letter from the Department
Appendix M: Letter from the District Administrator
Appendix N: University Ethical Clearance Letter
List of Figures

Figure 1: Relationship between Sustainable Development, Rural Development and Tourism.... 17

Figure 2: The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework .......................................................... 36
Abstract

The main focus of this study is the challenges of rural tourism development in Zimbabwe. The study identified that there is a lack of sustainable interventions in the development of rural tourism which is catalyzed by the absence of rural tourism promotion strategy to support the sustenance of livelihoods through socio-economic transformation. Meaningful socio economic transformation in the African rural areas through tourism remains a major development challenge. Development initiatives through different forms of tourism in the rural communities, has to a less magnitude benefited the rural communities and have negatively impacted the socio–economic environment. A qualitative research methodology and case study design was employed in order to have a deeper understanding of the experiences of the society around this project. Face to face interviews and focus group discussions guides were used to collect primary data. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques was employed to select respondents. Data was analysed using the transformative theory and sustainable livelihoods theory and was organized into categories and themes. The study established that the absence of a strategy is caused by political instability, community conflict, lack of finance, marketing, poor communication, and limited knowledge of tourism. All the aforementioned reasons complement each other and poise a challenge to the sustainability of rural tourism development. For Zimbabwe to effectively transform its economy through tourism, the government needs to plan the process, formulate and implement relevant economic and social development strategies and policies.
Although this dissertation is a case study of sustainable rural tourism in Zimbabwe, it can be used to appreciate the role of tourism in bringing about socio-economic transformation and sustaining livelihoods in developing countries.
### Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBT</td>
<td>Community Based Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDF</td>
<td>Campfire Development Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPRM</td>
<td>Common Property Resources Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>District Administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department of International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTRSAR</td>
<td>The Department of Tourism Republic of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLC</td>
<td>Enterprise and Lifelong Learning Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMMZ</td>
<td>National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPT</td>
<td>Pro – Poor Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDC</td>
<td>Rural District Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Sustainable Livelihoods Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDZ</td>
<td>Tourism Development Zones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[xiv\]
TFCAs  - Trans-frontier Conservation Areas
TNP    - Trans-frontier National Park
UNDP   - United Nations Development Program
UNMDG  - United Nations Millennium Development Goals
UNWTO  - United Nations World Tourism Organisation
WCED   - World Commission on Environment and Development
ZAC    - Zimbabwe Arts Council
ZTA    - Zimbabwe Tourism Authority
Abbreviations

CAAZ - Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe

CAMPFIRE - Communal Areas Management Program for Indigenous Resources

CARE - Cooperation for Assistance and Relief Everywhere

IFAD - International Fund for Agricultural Development

LEADER - Liaisons Entre Actions de Development de l'Economic Rurale

ST-EP - Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty

UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USAID - United States Agency for International Development

ZIMCORDER - Zimbabwe Coalition on Debt and Development

ZIMRA - Zimbabwe Revenue Authority
Chapter 1: Problem Statement and Purpose of Study

1.1 Introduction

Rural Tourism has become an internationally recognised activity and has been considered by the greater portion of the world as a panacea for economic and social development of the rural communities. It is also seen as real and sustainable support to the socio-economic problems in the rural areas and an important source of livelihood for the rural population (Tchetchik, Fleischer, & Fleischer, 2008). Globally, international bodies and national governments, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO’s), policy makers and institutions in the field of development see tourism as a viable tool for the development of rural areas. As a result, tourism has become the key word in rural development initiatives, in projects to alleviate poverty and in the conservation of cultural diversity of indigenous communities.

Traditionally, rural communities rely on agriculture as a major economic base but Roberts and Hall (2001) note that these communities are likely to be incapable of being sustainable without a diverse economic base. Thus tourism and recreation have been viewed and adopted as integral components in the diversification of the rural economic base.

Unlike agrarian change, the concept of tourism in rural areas originates from the developed countries (Hall and Page, 2002). In developed countries, rural tourism is a favoured means of regenerating the rural economy whilst in the developing countries it
is seen as an option to diversify the rural economy in order to create a new perspective for rural populations and to reduce poverty and land abandonment (Sharpley, 2006).

Tchetchik et al (2008:553) support the concept of rural tourism as a livelihood intervention in Europe and North America by indicating statistics related to the phenomenon. Such statistics include the annual proceeds from rural tourism in England which amount to 14 billion US dollars and provide 380 000 jobs; the Canadian rural tourism which accounts for 3% of the rural labour force; and the fact that in the United States in the years 2002-2004 a reported 90 million adults took trips to rural destinations. Tchetchik et al further indicate that success for rural tourism in the European Union (EU) and in Israel has been catalysed by direct support policies such as the EU proposed budget of 17 billion for 2007-2013 in support of tourism related projects in rural areas and, in Israel, government land policies of special zoning ordinances have enriched the rural ambience and encouraged rural tourism.

At the international level, the acknowledgement of rural tourism and ecotourism as an important development intervention was initiated by the Commission for Sustainable Development which encouraged international organisations and governments to support it (Petroman, et al. 2010). Consequently, in response to the poverty-oriented development trend, a more poverty focused form of tourism development has been promoted in the context of Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) and Sustainable Tourism - Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP). PPT refers to tourism that increases the net benefits for the poor (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003). PPT is not a specific product or niche sector but an approach to tourism development and management (Ashley, 2002). The
PPT can be any tourism segment, but one common ground is to improve the linkage between tourism business and the poor and to expand benefits to the poor.

ST-EP is an initiative of the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and its objective is to fund, implement and promote projects and programs of sustainable tourism aimed at achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UNMDG). According to this program, sustainable tourism should be a primary tool for eliminating poverty in the world’s poorest countries (United Nations World tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2002). Irrespective of the fact that the definitions of the ST-EP and PPT are different, the key theme is to unlock opportunities to the poor with the focus on poverty alleviation.

Given the view of the Economic Report on Africa (2011) that meaningful economic transformation remains a major development challenge in Africa, sustainable rural tourism development strategies can contribute to rural development because they are economically feasible. International case studies show that efforts to conserve and restore rural areas have created a better environment and opportunities for rural tourism (Keyser 2002).

In Zimbabwe, the tourism industry in general, contributes about 6,5% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and is expected to contribute 15% by 2014 (Mwaruta, 2011:1). Most tourism attractions in Zimbabwe are located in rural areas, thus creating an opportunity for the rural communities to identify tourism opportunities and utilise them in a sustainable manner. “Tourists have visited Zimbabwe rural areas for many years although the local communities were rarely involved (or benefited) from tourism until a
few pilot projects were set up by the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resource (CAMPFIRE) in the early 1990s” (Munyeza, 2009:19).

CAMPFIRE programs have been identified through the selling of hunting licenses within certain quotas, keeping wildlife numbers at sustainable limits and selling meat and skins of animals. The proceeds from the sales would be ploughed back into the local communities to build new schools, wells and health clinic (Metcalfe, 1993).

The Great Zimbabwe Area has immense growth potential if only there would be a proper rural tourism development strategy. Rural Tourism has the potential of bringing the concomitants of economic development such as health and economic infrastructure, including communication services to underdeveloped areas. Its promotion can fill the gap of the phenomenal downturn in tourism which the country has been experiencing since 2000 due to negative publicity after the Land Reform Program. It can also contribute to the economic development of the country. Conversely, it needs to be noted that these tourism strategies are not the only instruments of rural development and rural tourism does not survive in isolation but relies on other economic sectors such as agriculture which are important drivers of development.

However the challenge remains whether rural tourism development initiatives can effect meaningful socio-economic transformation in Zimbabwe. This study seeks to contribute to knowledge on the development of rural tourism that brings about socio economic transformation that is sustainable ecologically, institutionally, socially and economically and be able to produce genuinely positive livelihoods outcomes as advocated by Cleary (2003).
1.2 Statement of the Problem

The major problem in Zimbabwe in general, and Masvingo Great Zimbabwe Area in particular, is the lack of sustainable interventions in the development of rural tourism. The reason is the absence of a rural tourism promotion strategy to support the sustenance of livelihoods in the area through socio-economic transformation. The implication of tourism for sustainable livelihood has been largely neglected by tourism and development policy makers in Zimbabwe.

Most tourism development projects in Zimbabwe are governed by a policy which has an important thrust to use tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation and sustainable economic development, however, there is no rural tourism promotion strategy to support the sustenance of livelihoods through socio-economic transformation. While the tourism policy in Zimbabwe governs the development of Community Based Tourism (CBT), Tourism Development Zones (TDZs) and Trans-Frontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) and recognises tourism as an important land use option, there is no clear strategy to promote rural tourism for sustainable livelihood. That is, the tourism policy decisions do not reflect people’s livelihood priorities in relation to what tourism is and how to develop it as a sustainable livelihood intervention.

One of the guiding principles of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe is based on the “high value low volume tourism” principle which is highly product centred rather than poverty focused, hence sustainability of livelihoods under this principle is problematic. Thus there is need for a strategy for rural tourism development to be a sustainable livelihood intervention. Tourism development in rural areas has been assumed to benefit the poor
economically through the ‘trickle down’ process though tourism projects are not poverty-oriented (Ashley, 2002; Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). This has led Shen et al (2008), to argue that tourism sustainability mostly focuses on the tourism industry itself and destinations at the macro or meso-level, rather than the rural poor at the micro level.

Rural Tourism can be one of the few effective means to contribute to poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe if it is properly planned and managed. Although it is a livelihood strategy against poverty, rural tourism should not be isolated as Shen et al, (2008) point out. Climate change has caused drought in Zimbabwe and has rendered farming no longer a reliable socio-economic activity that can transform the rural areas in a sustainable way, neither can tourism be a sustainable approach on its own.

Furthermore, the political and economic problems in Zimbabwe have contributed to a further underdevelopment of rural areas since the advent of the year 2000 Land Reform Program. Consequently, the land reform programme led to a negative publicity for the country as an unsafe destination for tourism due to violence and other political ailments.

There is need therefore, for a strategy that supports sustainable rural tourism development. The hypothesis of this study is that rural tourism development can be a sustainable livelihood intervention to the socio-economic problems of the rural communities as long as the policies of tourism development are implemented with the right strategies that intend to transform the rural communities. This then leads to the research questions below.

- Is rural tourism a sustainable livelihood intervention in Zimbabwe?
Can rural tourism be a viable rural development strategy in Zimbabwe that can bring about socio-economic transformation?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

- The primary objective of this study is to explore the potentials and problems of rural tourism promotion activities in Zimbabwe and their role in sustaining the livelihoods of the rural communities.

- The secondary objective is to identify strategies that can be employed in the promotion of rural tourism in order to sustain the livelihoods of rural communities.

1.4 Significance of Study

Most studies in tourism development have been approached in terms of quantitative aspects of understanding the sector. However this study seeks to understand rural tourism development using a qualitative approach which brings an in-depth understanding of the socio-economic dynamics experienced by the rural people which can be problematic to identify if a quantitative approach is employed.

The practical significance of this study is that it will assist government, non-governmental organisations, policy makers and students to understand the significance of rural tourism that can sustain livelihoods and transform rural livelihoods. It contributes to knowledge about rural tourism as a tool for development in the context of sustainability, and is particularly relevant to Zimbabwe as a developing country that seeks to develop economically and socially.
The study will contribute to an understanding of how sustainable rural tourism development can promote socio-economic transformation in Zimbabwe. Many scholars accentuate that poverty reduction has not traditionally been at the heart of tourism development, although tourism is believed to be one of the few development opportunities for the poor to reduce poverty levels (Goodwin, 2002, 2006; Holland et al., 2003; Jamieson, Godwin & Edmunds, 2004). Research regarding rural tourism has centered on aspects of tourism products, marketing, planning and impacts (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Traditional and conventional approaches to tourism promotion are economical, that is, tourism is regarded as a means of generating foreign exchange or as a commercial activity where the main concern is product development, competitiveness and commercial returns (Ashley, 2000). These approaches have been criticised for assuming that communities will benefit anyhow from tourism development through the trickling down process of development. Thus, if rural tourism development is pursued based on false assumptions and without professional advice it may result in failure and unsustainability (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Other approaches to tourism promotion are that of conservation, were tourism is a form of sustainable use of wildlife resources and hence as a way to enhance incentives for conservation. However, all these approaches are important for rural development and some rural people and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) support them but none places the interest of the people at the centre, as the livelihood approach does (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).
The approach in understanding rural tourism development has limited understanding on the theoretical base that can be employed in order to understand the phenomenon of rural tourism. However, this trend has been criticised for its reduced focus on rural livelihoods and poverty reduction which can be addressed by the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) and transformative approach. Thus, the study identifies the gap of rural tourism contribution to sustainable livelihoods and meaningful socio-economic transformation.

1.5 Delineation of the Study

This study will focus on the sustainable livelihood and transformative paradigm which many studies of tourism development have not covered to bring about sustainable rural tourism development. The study was carried out in the rural areas of Zimbabwe in general and particularly the Great Zimbabwe Masvingo Area. Thus the results of the study will be relevant and significant to rural and underdeveloped areas in relation to livelihood and transformation.

This study is methodologically limited to the use of purposive and convenience sampling technique in collection of data. Simple random sampling could not be used because of political concerns and unavailability of proper sampling frame and more detail in this regard is explained in the methodology chapter. The time for data collection was also a constraint. Some government officials who could have been interviewed needed to be accessed after a cumbersome process of protocols. Thus, those that could be accessed easily were interviewed.
1.6 Conclusion

Tourism has become an internationally recognized intervention in rural economies of developed and developing countries for regeneration and diversification of rural economies. This chapter identified the problem of an absence of a rural tourism promotion strategy which supports the sustenance of livelihoods in Zimbabwe which it seeks to investigate. The chapter also highlighted the objectives and value of the study adding to knowledge through the use of the sustainable livelihoods theory and transformative paradigm, highlighting what other studies have done and haven’t done. The chapter also highlighted the limitation of the study in relation to focus as well as practical issues such as methodology and time constraints.

This chapter also concludes with the structure of the dissertation which is organised into six chapters followed by references and appendices. Chapter 1 is the introduction chapter and deal with the background study, research problem, objectives and significance of the study. Chapter 2 will deal with literature review focusing on conceptual issues, theoretical approaches used in approaching the study and an integrated empirical reflection of studies elsewhere. Chapter 3 will focus on the historical background information of tourism in Zimbabwe in general and rural tourism in particular and a synopsis background of the case study which is Great Zimbabwe area. Chapter 4 will deal with research methodology and methods used in the thesis and epistemological issues around the study. Chapter 5 will focus on presentation of findings or output from the fieldwork of the research as well as the analysis of what was reflected or given out by informants and respondents. Chapter 6 will encompass a
summary of findings, conclusion, and recommendations derived from the research output as well as areas for further research.
Chapter 2: Concepts and Theories for Sustainable Rural Tourism

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with conceptual and theoretical issues that underpin sustainable rural tourism. In the chapter, the researcher begins by conceptualizing rurality and rural tourism, and then goes on to discuss key notions that surround the rural tourism concept such as the growth of rural tourism, the impacts, policy issues and challenges. Lastly, the researcher explores theoretical approaches to rural tourism reflecting on how other scholars approach and interpret sustainable rural tourism, the sustainable livelihoods approach and transformation theory to the development of rural tourism. The view of this study is that, in order to understand the concept of rural tourism, one need to understand what the term rural means.

2.2 Defining Rurality

The concept of tourism in rural areas originated from developed countries as countryside tourism. The steadily increasing popularity of rural tourism as a tool of development in developing and developed countries, the heterogeneous nature of rural areas and the perceived conceptual understanding of rurality, have led to an intriguing debate among academics on the definition of rural tourism, the meaning of rural or countryside and its role in sustaining livelihoods (Sharpley, 2006; Holland et al 2003; Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). The urban–rural dichotomy differs from one continent to another and from one economy to another, be it a developing or developed country. However, developing countries may share common trajectories of rurality (Bryceson,
1999) but as is the case of many countries such as Zimbabwe or South Africa there is no clear or legal definition of ‘rural’.

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) developed a framework for understanding the concept ‘rural’ in their 2000/2001 Rural Poverty Report by defining its two main characteristics. The first characteristic is that rural people usually live on farmsteads or in groups of houses containing perhaps 5000-10000 persons, separated by farmland, pasture, trees or scrubland and secondly, the majority of the rural people spend most of their time on farms (IFAD, 2001). This notion by IFAD points to the aspect of availability of space and occupation. The is true and evident in Zimbabwe were every rural homestead area has a lot of space and considerable amount of land to farm as well as keeping domestic animals such as cattle, goats, donkeys, lambs and chickens.

Porteus and Nabudere (2006:34) identify rurality in the South African context as a condition where the “dispossessed, exploited, marginalised and in many cases brutalised people live in the rural space”. Thus the urban rural dichotomy in South Africa is not basically identified as the physical space but as a space where the oppressed live whether they were in towns such as Soweto or in villages such as the Valley of a Thousand Hills (ibid).

It appears, therefore, that useful definitions of rurality depend not upon particular combinations of functional elements such as population density or land use for example, (Lane, 1994) but rather on other socio-cultural constructs that reflect people’s learned perceptions of that which represents rurality, and which are therefore culturally bound
(Sharpley and Roberts, 2004). Although problems with definition and conceptualisation of rurality persist, this study understands rurality in the Zimbabwean context as an area which is sparsely populated and much of the land use is natural and/or agrarian and remains in a relative state of wilderness (Keyser, 2002).

2.3 Conceptualising Rural Tourism

The lack of a concise definition of what ‘rural’ or ‘rurality’ is, has contributed to the intriguing debate about the definition of the term rural tourism today without reaching a consensus (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003, Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). This argument is explained by (Gopal, Varma and Gopinathan 2008:513) who states that:

Rural areas where rural tourism occurs are difficult to define since criteria used by different nations vary enormously; secondly not all tourism which takes place in rural areas is strictly ‘rural’ it can be urban in form and merely be located in a rural area; thirdly different forms of rural tourism have developed in different regions and hence it is hard to find characteristics that are common to all the countries; fourthly rural areas are in a complex process of change due to the impact of global markets communications and telecommunications that have changed market conditions and orientations for traditional products. Besides though some rural areas have experienced depopulation there are many of them that are experiencing an inflow of people to retire or to develop new non-traditional businesses.

Lane, (1994) in his article ‘What is Rural Tourism’ suggests that rural tourism exists as a diverse concept and is largely a domestic phenomenon with a desperate nature across
countries and continents. Lane further iterates that pure rural tourism is tourism that is located in rural areas, rural in scale, character and function, reflecting the different and complex patterns of rural environment, economy, history and location.

A study in India by Subhash, (et al. 2010) depicts that any tourism that will involve rural people, benefit them economically and socially, showcase the rural life and allow the rural people to interact with tourists for a more enriching experience would be regarded as rural or village tourism. Similarly, in South Africa any activity such as community based tourism, ecotourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism, guest farms, backpacking riding and Agro tourism can be regarded as rural tourism if it is carried out in rural areas (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). This is a notion that regards rural tourism as a manifold phenomenon and is supported by Pender and Sharpley (2005) who contend that an idea of single rural tourism does not exist and that is the reason why it is a complex concept to define.

Arahi (1994:1) states that the Western Europe's concept of rural tourism is strongly ecological. In Europe, tourism has long been considered as a tool of regeneration of rural areas, especially in areas where traditional agrarian industries are in decline, whilst in developing countries such as South Africa with existing rural tourism, policy makers focus more on diversifying the rural economy for it to be sustainable (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003). The reason for diversifying the rural economy is enshrined in the insufficiency of agricultural livelihoods, hence the need to search for new sources of growth and economic opportunity. It is for this reason that this study explores whether rural tourism can be a socio-economic diversity intervention in Zimbabwe that can bring significant transformation in rural areas.
This study conceptualises rural tourism as any form of tourism showcased in rural areas (Sharpley and Roberts, 2004; Page and Conwell, 2009; Lane, 1994; OECD, 1994). The reason for subscribing to this generic concept in this study is that tourism is considered rural when the rural life, norms and values are the key components of the tourism product on offer. Additionally, it is of paramount importance to recognise the diverse needs of locals and to provide the appropriate form of tourism or tourism development within a sustainable context. For example, the notion of ‘farm tourism’ is evident across Europe, New Zealand and North America, and the establishment of ‘rural inns’ is being developed in Japan (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Rural areas’ special features and unique folk traditions can lead to different policies and guidelines, as well as differences in stakeholder participation and business models. However, rural tourism is marginalized as a somewhat secondary adjunct to rural development and its pursuit is dependent upon agrarian activity and a great deal of community involvement and participation (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005). In other words, different societies have different types of rural tourism models.
**Figure 1: Relationship between Sustainable Development, Rural Development and Tourism**

Adopted from (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008:23)

Figure 1 above shows a framework of relationships in rural development, tourism development and sustainable development and how these are embedded together in the wider development context. Rural tourism is a convergence of rural development and tourism development, likewise sustainable rural livelihoods is a convergence of rural development and sustainable development (Shen, Hughey and Simmons 2008).

Research shows that for rural tourism development to be able to sustain livelihoods, it should not be an externally tailored development plan and process whilst the local community is being rendered as passive recipients. As observed in Slovenia by (Verbole, 2000), rural tourism development should be a negotiated process, as different actors interact in the on-going development process which is planning, implementing and controlling rural tourism.
It needs to be noted that local people or rural communities are not passive recipients of the consequences of rural tourism development projects, interventions or policies, but they are capable of making the most out of a given situation that is to transform plans and policies through interactions and negotiations (Verbole, 2000). The organising practises, strategies, power relations and decision making processes of communities are different because of the fact that communities are not homogenous entities. It is often argued that successful sustainable rural tourism development is that which is supported by the local community, therefore, development should not be a trickle down approach but a bottom-up approach.

The uniqueness and speciality of rural tourism such as living in ethnic minority homes, sharing the family life and discovering the peculiarities of the territory, environment and landscape make rural tourism difficult to be circumscribed within the concept of accommodation only (Keyim, Yang and Zhang, 2005). In turn, golf courses, big hotels and large holiday developments are also difficult to integrate into the concept of rural tourism because they lack that speciality (Gopal, Varma and Gopinathan, 2008).

A study in Turpan, China, by (Keyim, Yang and Zhang, 2005) indicates that long term government support is an essential element of rural tourism development. It further indicates that it is unlikely that rural tourism can be sustained without government support and relatively high levels of investment relative to its returns. The study asserts that rural tourism can be an effective vehicle for socio-economic development in rural areas in China. Much success in tourism development in the rural areas has been accredited to national planning and policy but there has always been a gap between policy and the reality of what happens at the local community level. Thus there is need
for government policy on rural tourism development that speaks to the livelihoods and transformation of the rural areas.

2.4 Rural Tourism and Policy Issues

Tourism is an industry that thrives on the environment, hence it is not enough to have state of the art facilities that are not backed by sound tourism and environmental policies. Many scholars subscribe to the certitude of almost a universal lack of policy and support strategies for rural tourism (Page and Getz, 1997). There are a number of reasons for this apparent marginalisation of rural tourism based on its characteristics which include, low capital and employment generation capacity, poor statistical base and the belief that it is led to have often low inward investments, limited employment opportunities and poor business development (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Significantly, in many and perhaps most European countries, tourism policies do not distinguish rural tourism as a distinct sector for strategic, statistical and other purposes (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005). The reasons behind this reality have been related to the fact that firstly, it is difficult to ascertain and identify the number of people involved in the specifically ‘rural’ tourism industry and secondly, it is troublesome to calculate the income it generates. Thus in this respect alone, the relationship between rural tourism and rural development and ‘sustainability’ is not easy to establish empirically, with the result that claims and counter claims are neither easy to prove and disprove.

Middleton (1998) cited in (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005) asserts that rural tourism business in Europe tends to be pursued within a policy vacuum. It is usually suggested that, for a range of reasons, including an apparent lack of tourism development policy
direction within the EU, the most important impacts on the sector are often derived from generic policies and measures directed at business generally, rather than from tourism-specific strategy (Roberts and Hall, 2001).

Within the European Union (EU) for example, rural tourism initiatives receive support from a wide variety of structural funding sources, the most proactive projects being the LEADER (Liaisons Entre Actions de Developpement de l'EconomicRurale) programme (Roberts and Hall, 2001). This programme was born in Brussels after a growing realisation in the 1990s by governments for a need to fully respect the diversity of rural Europe, complement narrow agricultural policies with others more comprehensively ‘rural’ in their scope, and give local actors and agencies more responsibilities for devising and managing the national agencies with which the commission had normally worked hitherto (Light, 2004).

At the national level, a notable example of rural tourism policy is that of Finland published in 2000 specifically as part of a wider national rural development policy (Nylander, 2001) while in the USA, some 30 states have developed tourism policies specifically targeted at rural areas (Luloff et al, 1994). Nevertheless, as Page and Getz (1997) observe, national rural tourism policies are the exception rather than the rule.

In South Africa, the Department of Tourism (DTRSA) formulated a rural tourism strategy in response to policy mandate in alignment with government strategic priorities which aim to address the need for creating decent employment through economic growth and developing vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities (DTRSA, 2011). Accordingly, the South African government pledges to support any initiative that seeks
out other forms of economic potential of rural areas including tourism, and cultural work to ensure that rural areas utilise their unique assets, basic resources and characteristics (ibid). Thus, it is evident that rural tourism can be an element of overall rural development policy.

Since tourism is widely considered as an effective tool to many of the socio-economic problems facing peripheral rural areas in developing countries, policies for the support of rural tourism development should be evident at both the national and regional levels and be of great help for its sustainability (Pender and Sharpley, 2005).

2.5 The Growth of Rural Tourism

Rural tourism is a well-developed phenomenon in developed countries and a new phenomenon to developing countries that seek to diversify their economic base and reduce poverty. In developing countries tourism emerged as an agent for rural economies diversification and a way of valorising conservation and preservation of natural resources especially wildlife through the (CAMPFIRE) programme in Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia (Lane, 2005). Thus tourism has become a rural development strategy in developing countries.

The growth of the rural tourism concept has been most noticeable in Europe, where sophisticated economic diversification agencies have been hard at work promoting new uses for the countryside, influencing both potential providers of tourism facilities, and the markets for rural tourism through press and media contacts. The cause for the growth of rural tourism is credited to market forces where there was a rapid growth in demand for, and supply of, rural activities seeking different kinds of holiday, and partly
as a result of government initiatives (Lane, 2005). A more outstanding fact for the growth of rural tourism is that rural holidays are a cheap alternative to resort holidays (Page and Conwell, 2009).

The reasons for the recent emergence of tourism as an important rural economic activity in North America, the EU and Israel are two fold, firstly, continuous growths in income and leisure consumption, combined with a sharp reduction in transportation cost have increased the demand for rural tourism. Secondly, rapid technological advances in agriculture, declining agricultural incomes for both individual and commercial farmers, accompanied by a sharp decline in the terms of trade have induced exit from farming and, in the past 50 years, about 60% of the farmers in all the other regions have left agriculture (Tchetchik, Fleischer and Fleischer 2008:553). Thus rural tourism grew from a ‘grassroots’ phenomenon aimed at supplementing the declining agricultural business.

Entrepreneurial businesses that occurs in rural areas (which can be non-traditional tourist areas) may attract visitors, thereby generating the demand for tourism related activities to which the local entrepreneurs respond. However, Gopal, Varma and Gopinathan (2008:1) state that the development of tourism in a rural area is not simply a matter of matching tourist demands with local product supply but a matter of evaluating local sustainability and acceptability.

### 2.6 The Potential Role of Tourism and Possible Impacts

The general aim for developing tourism in rural areas of developing countries is to provide opportunities for economic and social development. With regard to policy motives, strategies to use tourism as a motor of growth in rural areas have emerged in
different contexts with different impacts and challenges (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). These strategies are about enabling rural producers to reduce reliance on agriculture and engage in new economic opportunities that are competitive in more globalised markets because agriculture alone does not hold the key to rural development (Verbole and Cottrell, 2002). Tourism activities are making increasingly important contributions to rural areas.

In Eastern Europe, the emphasis has been on tourism as a tool for rural regeneration not because of the collapse in agriculture but because of the insufficiency of agricultural livelihoods and the search for new sources of income and economic opportunity, while in developing countries the emphasis is more on diversification of underdeveloped areas in order to eliminate poverty (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003).

Within Africa, many countries are positioning themselves to take advantage of newer trends and alternative forms of tourism that can protect natural resources and stimulate cultural diversity while generating economic growth (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). For example, in South Africa, rural tourism promotion is viewed as a means to eliminate poverty and to create employment opportunities in rural areas. However, if tourism in rural areas is to be effective as an economic tool, it must be part of a portfolio of strategies which together contribute to successful rural development and are also cognisant of the fact that the promotion of tourism is not appropriate in all rural areas as opportunity costs and factors affecting comparative advantage vary considerably from one area to another (ELLC, 2002).
Udovč and Perpar, (2007:227), in their study in Slovenia on the influence of tourism in rural areas on the resilience of the region in two protected areas, state that rural tourism proved to be one of the most important factors for securing sustainable rural development. Nonetheless, they could not find firm evidence which indicates higher stability, resilience, robustness and integrity of the region with more diversified tourist offer whilst in some cases the less diverse area proved to be better off. The reason could be that there are other factors that may influence the outcome of developing rural tourism such as size of the area, diversity of factors involved, and type of governance (Udovč and Perpar, 2007).

Any form of tourism development has an impact on the host community’s quality of life. These impacts can either improve or threaten the livelihood of host communities. However, communities are not homogeneous hence the impacts are not uniform but vary widely within and between communities (Ashley, 2000). A synopsis of literature shows that there are a number of unlimited impacts, both positive and negative, associated with rural tourism development. Nevertheless, the goal in developing tourism is to “maximise the positive impacts while minimising the negative impacts on the host community” (Ritchie and Inkari, 2006:28). The study discusses these impacts in three categories, namely economic, socio-cultural and environmental respectively as these are the main concerns of various studies.

Firstly, positive economic impacts are listed as, but not limited to, creation of employment, attraction of inward investments and spending, assisting viability of existing tourism and non-tourism businesses, creation of new markets for agricultural products and increasing residents living standards (Page and Conwell, 2009; Egbali,
There are also negative impacts which may include encouraging dependency on industry prone to uncontrollable change, creating part-time, seasonal and low grade employment, increasing development costs and public service costs leading to local land and house price inflation (Page and Conwell, 2009; Chuang, 2011).

Secondly, the socio-cultural positive impacts include assisting in viability of local services, creating a sense of pride, revitalising local cultural traditions, events and crafts; and leads to opportunities for social and cultural change (Page and Conwell, 2009; Egbali, Nosrat and Ali pour, 2010; Chuang, 2011). The negative socio-cultural impacts include creating a feeling of invasion by tourist; overcrowding and traffic congestion; increase in crime; reduction in local services for example, food shops replaced by gift shops; import of new cultural ideas thus changing the existing way of life and distorting culture through commodification (Page and Conwell, 2009; Egbali, Nosrat and Ali pour, 2010; Chuang, 2011).

The third category is environmental impacts. Its positive impacts can be listed as, but not limited to, environmental improvements; provision of income for conservation of buildings and natural environment, and fostering awareness of conservation of natural and man-made resources as a worthwhile activity (Page and Conwell, 2009; Egbali, Nosrat and Ali pour 2010; Chuang 2011). The negative aspects of environmental impacts include the increase of wear and tear on landscape features which creates needs for new developments that may not be in keeping with the local area; increasing pollution (that is noise, visual, air, water litter) and impacts on local biodiversity.
It is argued that an assessment of the negative and positive impacts of sustainable rural tourism development can help to shape the future policies as well as creating models of rural tourism development that are internationally recognised (Chuang, 2011). Although governments generally believe that tourism development will generate new jobs, enhance community infrastructure, and assist with the revitalisation of the flagging economies of rural areas, tourism as a development option has come under increasing censure due to the alleged paucity of revenues, the inequality of benefit distribution, and the perceived social costs to resident communities (Simpson, 2007).

2.7 Challenges of Sustainable Rural Tourism Development

There are a number of challenges that are common to rural tourism destinations in relation to development which are discussed below. The challenges are by no means exhaustive but are important and unique for different rural societies.

2.7.1 Resident attitudes toward tourism development

 Sometimes the disadvantages of rural tourism may outweigh the potential benefits in the eyes of the community leading to resistance. If the development of rural tourism is not perceived to be of benefit to livelihood, rural communities may not support it, and if it is developed without their consent or objective there is likely to be conflict. A lot of literature has been published in relation to resident attitude towards tourism development (Smith and Brent, 2001). In Slovenia attitudes are very important and rural tourism development programs are negotiated with the local community thus without that process, implementing tourism program becomes difficult.
2.7.2 Marketing

Marketing of rural tourism especially in Europe exists at many destination levels, namely nationally, regionally and locally. It exists not only for destinations but also for specific product sectors, such as farm accommodation, cycling or museums and then again at the different product sector levels, nationally, regionally, locally and for the individual (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Research shows that there is a positive correlation between business market orientation and its performance. If rural tourism is to be viewed as a business, better use of marketing can reduce the isolation of small rural business and enable them to use resources more effectively (Roberts and Hall, 2004). However, the marketing of tourism faces special challenges for many rural areas and the major problem being the lack of identity as compared to other renowned areas (Brown, 2008). Developed counties have improved and are a way ahead in the use of Information Communication Technology (ICT’s) for marketing as compared to African countries. Thus marketing of rural areas in Africa is probably under-resourced and needs a proper strategy (Hall, Kirkpatrick and Morag, 2005).

Limited resources for the marketing of rural areas make the idea of a regional marketing strategy to make sense (Brown, 2008). One essential ingredient for this marketing strategy is the establishment of networks between business suppliers and other businesses that may combine to provide the total tourism experience. These networks should identify common themes within and across communities so that tourism is appropriate to the region (Knowd, 2001). In Taiwan the use of e-commerce has become
a strategic marketing tool for many leisure farms to supplement rural tourism development (Huang, 2006).

2.7.3 Rural Tourism Governance

The management of sustainable rural tourism is complex but yet very crucial if it is to be successful. The complexity comes about as a result of trying to balance the need for conservation and that of commercialising the tourism product within a set of rural tourism development objectives (Pender and Sharpley, 2005). Not only that, but rural communities are not homogeneous entities, such that no singular tourism development strategy may benefit all rural areas. Rural tourism is also dependent on attractions which are natural, cultural or environmental and where there is no attraction tourism may not be feasible (Page and Conwell, 2009). The other complexity is that tourism is interdependent with rural activities and sectors such as agriculture and forestry and thus any policy change in one sector may impact on rural tourism (Pender and Sharpley, 2005). However, the onus for successful governance has been vested in partnerships of relevant stakeholders.

Although it may be possible to govern beyond the control of formal structures of government, it is strongly argued that it’s impossible to “divorce the rural governance process from the influence of central government and national policy making” (Pender and Sharpley, 2005:185). Thus in the case of Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) is responsible for managing tourism development as a tool for rural socio-economic transformation within its framework of policy and guidelines of rural tourism management.
2.8 Theoretical Issues

Rural development initiatives and strategies should be constructed and implemented within a framework of understanding what development is. The inquiry into sustainable rural tourism development in Zimbabwe is drawn from a sustainable livelihood theory and transformation perspectives. These two theoretical paradigms are going to be discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.8.1 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach: Principles and Concepts

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach is interpreted in a variety of ways which include being seen as a tool for development, an operational objective with a mission to improve the sustainability of livelihoods, a set of principles that can be applied in almost any situation; and a call for specific sustainable livelihoods projects and/or programs (Ashley and Carney, 1999). However, many view it as an approach to development, combining the various aforementioned interpretations above.

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) is supported in relation to tourism development because it offers a holistic thinking and understanding of the complexities of tourism and related developmental issues against poverty (Ashley, 2000; Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). The SLA approach is a participatory approach that has been widely accepted and acknowledged by the World Bank as an important instrument for improving the quality, effectiveness, and sustainability of projects and strengthening the ownership and commitment of stakeholders (World Bank 1994 & 1996).
Overtime, professionals have tried to improve rural conditions through approaches to soil fertility improvement that raise crop production, land reform, external aid and advanced technology but these approaches did little to alleviate rural poverty. However, the SLA “emphasizes holistic and integrated thinking about poverty reduction and rural development” and may bring the understanding of the complexity of tourism and related developmental issues against poverty (Shen, Hughey and Simmons 2008:19).

Sustainable Livelihood is a way of thinking about rural development and aims “to promote development that is sustainable not just ecologically, but also institutionally, socially and economically and to produce genuinely positive livelihoods outcomes” (Cleary, 2003:4). Its notion can be traced back to the first proposition of sustainable development in the Brundtland Commission Report of 1987 were it was first proposed (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008:20). It draws on the main factors that affect the poor people’s livelihoods and typical relationships between these factors and can be used in planning new development activities, and in assessing the contribution that existing activities have made to sustaining livelihoods. Chambers and Conway put forth their definition for Sustainable Livelihoods as:

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in short and long term (Chambers and Conway, 1992:6) cited in (Shen, Hughey and Simmons 2008:20).
It is evident that the above definition of Chambers and Conway emphasises the importance of capabilities, assets, ability of recognizing and recovering from potential shocks and stress as key elements of sustainability (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). However, the SLA becomes an improved way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities of development that will better meet the needs of the poor, both at project and policy level (DFID, 2000a).

The Sustainable Livelihoods work of Chambers and Conway (1992) was considered fundamental and led to a number of government departments, international agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO), for example UK Department of International Development (DFID), United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Oxfam and Cooperation for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE), adopting their own related understanding of SL and employing SL approaches to facilitate and help rural development practices (Carney et al, 1999; DFID, 1999). Shen, Hughey and Simmons (2008:23) are of the opinion that “as a rural livelihood choice, tourism needs to be understood in comparison with other traditional rural livelihoods (e.g. crops, fishing and forestry). In this sense, tourism is a livelihood opportunity and its peculiarities can be examined from the angle of production to consumption”.

### 2.8.2 Rural Tourism as a Sustainable Alternative

It is often argued that sustainable rural tourism development cannot be achieved without the full support of the rural community where it is based. This argument emanates from the fact that communities are not homogenous entities, neither are local people just passive recipients of externally tailored development plans and their impacts. Hence
rural tourism becomes a negotiated process as different actors who are involved in the ongoing development process see it from genuinely different perspectives.

A widely accepted and adopted definition of ‘sustainable development’ is from the Brundtland Report by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) which presents sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Roberts and Hall, 2001). The ideology of sustainable development in rural areas through tourism has become a strong one. The reason emanates from the fact that rural environments are fragile and are likely to be “changed or damaged (or both) by rapid changes of any sort” (Lane, 2005:13).

Appendix A of this study depicts a sustainable tourism model. The model shows that sustainable tourism aims to reconcile the tensions between the three partners namely, social, environmental and economic factors in the model and in order to keep the equilibrium in the long term (Lane, 2005). Lane further suggests that the concept of sustainability in rural areas must be a multi-purpose one if it is to succeed. Thus it should aim to sustain the culture and character of host communities; the landscape and habitats; rural economy; and a tourism industry which will be viable in the long term; this in turn will mean the promotion of successful and satisfying holiday experiences.

Rural areas in Zimbabwe and in many nations play as repositories of both natural and historical heritage with special intrinsic qualities (Lane, 2005:13) hence the concept of rural tourism has “achieved almost universal acceptance as desirerable and (politically) appropriate approach to, and goal of tourism development” (Sharpley, 2006). Despite
the wide-spread support for the principles and objectives of sustainable rural tourism
development, it remains a contested concept because it does not represent a
universally applicable framework for developing tourism. The principles of sustainable
tourism are increasingly viewed as a development ‘blueprint’ that is unable to
accommodate the almost infinite diversity of tourism development contexts (Southgate
development cannot be achieved without the full support of the rural community that it
will affect”. This view is also supported by the golden rule in India that rural tourism
development should be “of the rural people, by the rural people, and for the rural
people” (Subhash, et al. 2010:3). This form of tourism development should sustain
livelihoods of rural communities and bring about socio-economic transformation.

Rural diversification through tourism can be a sustainable livelihood approach if it is well
integrated. Rural tourism development strategies can contribute to rural development
because they are economically feasible even though they are not the only instruments
of rural development. The Foot and Mouth disease outbreak in 2001 in UK which led to
an instant collapse of the rural tourism industry, both in the areas worst affected by the
disease more generally around the countryside, was evidence of not only the
interdependence between tourism and the wider rural economy and society but also the
inherent lack of sustainability of rural tourism. In short the industry was brought to its
knees by events beyond its control (Hall, Roberts and Morag, 2003).

Egbali, Nosrat and Ali pour, (2010) identify three critical issues in the development of
rural tourism that have been recognized in Europe. Firstly, the socio and cultural
heritage quality that is threatened by tourism activity. Secondly, training for rural tourism
provision is often not available to assist in the improvement of the quality and appropriate rural tourism products. Thirdly, the benefits of rural tourism products from collaboration and networking in promotion and marketing.

In Namibia, (Ashley, 2000:6) studied the impact that tourism had on the livelihood of rural residents and indicates that “a focus on livelihoods offers a useful perspective on tourism for enhancing local benefits and tourism contribution to livelihood can be enhanced by adjusting decisions on what is developed and how, in a way that reflects peoples livelihood priorities”. This has serious implications on all stakeholders involved in the development of tourism in rural areas. These stakeholders are government, non-governmental organisations, tourism planners, and policy makers and communities.

It is argued that livelihood sustainability may sometimes conflict with tourism sustainability, for example, in allocating water rights, tourism may seek to preserve water as a tourist attraction while livelihood use may advocate the allocation of water for crop irrigation purposes (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). Hence the relationship between tourism and other livelihood strategies in an area such as agriculture should be well managed effectively so that there is limited competition by properly allocating resources.

Shen, Hughey and Simmons (2008) are of the opinion that the sustainable livelihoods approach is neither possible nor appropriate but that what is important is the context in which it is applied. An examination on the use of the SLA in India points out that there is need for the SLA to incorporate politics as an endogenous asset within the livelihoods framework (Cleary, 2003). This lack of political capital has been regarded as the
Sustainable Livelihoods weakness. The inclusion of politics within the framework would allow a clearer distinction between operational and technical factors (resolved through institutional innovations within the current political system), those that are legislative, and those that are political (where political induced constraints are preventing the successful working of projects). This is seen as of central importance in terms of ensuing local participation and empowerment.

The sustainable livelihoods framework which will be discussed in the next section has been adopted in this study as an analytical tool for rural tourism development programmes. The framework is a structure that can assist in building an understanding of livelihoods and it is necessary to ensure that external support is congruent with people’s livelihoods strategies and priorities (Ashley and Carney, 1999). The objective of adopting the SLA by the researcher in this study is to explore rural tourism development programmes in the Masvingo Great Zimbabwe area in terms of their effectiveness in strengthening or improving the rural livelihoods, and their contribution towards assisting vulnerable populations and ensuring that there is equitable access to resources.

2.8.3 Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism

The adoption of the SL framework in the rural tourism development indicates that rural tourism should be embedded within a particular set of linkages and relationships which make up the components of (rurality) and contribute to rural development.
The framework above provides a way of thinking through the different influences constraints and opportunities on livelihoods and ensuring that important factors are not neglected (Ashley and Carney, 1999). However, the framework cannot and does not attempt to capture everything that is important in poverty elimination. Ashley, (1999) points out that users of the framework must employ a range of other tools such as the stakeholder analysis, social analysis, and institutional analysis.

2.8.4 Capital Assets

Capital assets are fundamental to the poor and they are at the heart of the SL framework. (Ashley, 2000:13) regards them as building blocks on which people develop their activities. These capital assets are divided into five elements in this framework.
which are human, social, natural, physical and financial. These will be discussed in the order in which they are presented.

Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, capacity to work, capacity to adapt, education, nutrition and health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies to achieve their livelihood objectives (Shen, Hughey and Simmons 2008; Serrat, 2008). This is a very important asset needed for sustainable rural tourism development.

Social Capital refers to the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihoods (Ashley, 2000). Examples of this capital asset are, networks and connections, relations of trust and mutual understanding and support; formal and informal groups; shared values and behaviours; common rules and sanctions; collective representation, mechanisms for participation in decision making; leadership (Serrat, 2008; Ashley, 2000; Ashley and Carney, 1999).

Natural Capital refers to the natural resources such as land and produce; water and aquatic resources; trees and forest products; wildlife; wild food and fibres; biodiversity and environmental services. These are useful because that is where livelihood is derived and very important components are needed for tourism development in rural areas (Serrat, 2008; Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008).

Physical Capital is sometimes referred to as the economic capital and entails resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). These mainly are infrastructure (transport, roads, vehicles, secure shelter and buildings, water supply and sanitation, energy, communications), tools and technology
(tools and equipment for production, seed, fertilizer, pesticide and traditional technology (Serrat, 2008).

Financial capital tends to be the least available livelihood asset of the poor (Serrat, 2008). Because they lack finance the other capitals are of great importance to them. Financial Capital examples are savings, credit and debt (formal, informal, remittances, pensions and wages.

2.8.5 Transforming Structures and Processes:

Transforming structures and processes play important roles in shaping livelihood assets and outcomes. For any development intervention and strategy to be successful and sustainable, there is need for institutions that act as mediators to harmonise the development process. Thus in the tourism context, institutions can be an interaction between individuals, government, NGOs and enterprises. These institutions can be private and public sector organisations responsible for implementing policy and legislation, delivering services, purchasing, trading as well as performing all manner of other functions that affect livelihoods (Serrat, 2008).

2.8.6 Vulnerability context

Vulnerability is a key to livelihood sustainability. It is characterised as insecurity in the well-being of individuals, households, and communities in the face of changes in their external environment (Serrat, 2008:3). It includes shocks, trends and seasonality (Ashley and Carney, 1999). It can adversely affect the poor’s assets and their choice of livelihoods, although not all vulnerabilities are negative. Shocks can refer to human
health for example disease epidemics such as the cholera outbreak of 2008 in Zimbabwe and natural shocks, for example, the Tohoku earthquake in Japan 2011, and conflicts such as wars and terrorism. Shocks may also mean opportunities for tourism development at the destination level. A barrier lake formed after an earthquake can itself become a major tourist resource (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008).

Seasonality refers to the effects of tourism on prices, products and unemployment. It is regarded as a more direct risk at local level. Trends are more of a concern at the national and regional level and these refer to demographic, environment, economic, governance and technological trends (Serrat, 2008). Trends are not always negative. However, all vulnerability contexts need consideration as individual livelihood outcomes and developmental consequences of the tourism industry interact and will over time affect each other (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008).

2.8.7 Livelihood Outcomes

Livelihood outcomes are reflections of successes and objectives that livelihood strategies aim to achieve. Outcomes are always the pathway to assessing livelihood sustainability, and the scale of analysis is of paramount importance (Scoones, 1998 cited in (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). Serrat (2008:3) points out that potential livelihood outcomes includes “more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security, more sustainable use of the natural resource base, and recovered human dignity, between which there may again also be conflict”. However, SL outcomes should seek to achieve people’s livelihood objectives, especially the rural
poor’s, while sustaining tourism for the long term (Shen, Hughey and Simmons 2008:28).

2.8.8 Livelihood Strategies

The livelihood strategies of rural households vary enormously, but a common strategy is for household members to undertake a range of activities which each in some way contributes to one or more of household needs. Most households rely on a range of natural resources use and an off farm income from employment or remittances (Ashley, 2000). Thus the transformative element to development should be incorporated hence this study is going to reflect on the transformative theory in relation to rural tourism development.

2.8.9 The Transformative Approach

The transformative paradigm is characterised by placing central importance on the lives and experiences of marginalised groups, such as women, ethnic/racial minorities, people with disabilities, and those who are poor (Mertens, 1999). Rural tourism development initiatives are supposed to empower and bring socio-economic transformation to these marginalised groups. This paradigm is a people centred approach and it is supported by Subhash, et al. (2010:3) who states that rural tourism development initiatives should be “of the rural people, by the rural people, and for the rural people” otherwise rural people become performers in the hands of capitalists who will try to maximise their wealth for their economic enterprises. Thus the central questions that surround the transformative approach are the ‘how’ questions on sustainable rural tourism development that bring change and increase the ability of rural
community systems to create desirerable change. In this regard, the strategies used to deal with poverty alleviation through livelihood approaches in tourism development should have a transformative element, were ‘transformative’ refers to the need to pursue policies that relate to power imbalances in society that encourage, create and sustain vulnerabilities (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

The Economic Report on Africa (2011:83) indicates that successful economic transformation requires institutions such as a good constitution, the rule of law, an independent judiciary, representative political institutions, effective central banks and other regulatory bodies, and effective laws especially in enforcing property rights. Thus government role in in promoting and guiding transformation is very crucial. Government should plan the process of socio-economic transformation by formulating and implementing policies and strategies of social and economic development (ibid). Moreover, it is argued that developing infrastructre, attracting foreign resources and increasing productivity in a country are important elements of successful transformation. The only challenge is that African countries suffer severe infrastructure deficiencies such as accesibility which is very important in tourism, as well as communication and energy infrastructure (Economic Report on Africa, 2011).

The transformative practice assumes that the parties, and in this case, the poor and rural society and mediators which are governments, NGOs and enterprises, are better able to acknowledge and explore their concerns (Fleischer, 1996;Kollmorgen, 2010). This is supported by the premise in this approach that transformation mostly starts with individuals, situated within organisations and the wider society, and moves through the individual to impact the organisation and broader social institutions they are in.
(Sydenham, 2009). Thus the transformative approach destabilises the status quo and advocates for equal distribution of resources around the rich and the poor through the transformation of structures.

Transformative measures seek to address concerns of social equity and exclusion, such as collective action for workers’ rights, and upholding human rights for minority ethnic groups. Transformative interventions include changes to the regulatory framework to protect ‘social vulnerable groups’ (for example, people with disabilities, or victims of domestic violence) against discrimination and abuse, as well as sensitisation campaigns to transform public attitudes and behavior and enhance social equity (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

Moreover, support to trade unions may enable socially marginalized groups to claim rights to livelihood enhancing assets, sensitization and awareness-raising campaigns can transform public attitudes and behavior; and changes to the regulatory framework could protect vulnerable or minority groups against discrimination and abuse (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

2.9 Conclusion

It is evident that it is not an easy task to define rurality and rural tourism accurately because of the different ways in which these terms are perceived, understood and interpreted by individuals, nations and different continents who are at different levels of development. However different models of rural tourism have been developed to meet the needs of rural communities. Rural diversification through tourism can be a sustainable livelihood approach if it is well integrated within the broader rural
development strategies. Rural tourism development strategies can contribute to rural development because they are economically feasible even though they are not the only instruments of rural development. The adoption of the SL framework to rural tourism development indicates that rural tourism should be embedded within a particular set of linkages and relationships which make up the components of (rurality) and contribute to rural development. Rural tourism development initiatives are supposed to empower and bring socio-economic transformation to rural communities by placing people at the centred of the development process. Thus rural tourism development initiatives should be of the rural people, by the rural people, and for the rural people.
Chapter 3: Background of Great Zimbabwe area

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides background information on the study area which is Masvingo Great Zimbabwe Area in Zimbabwe. A general overview of the demographics, rurality, land use options and tourism industry will be discussed briefly. A short synopsis of the historical background of Great Zimbabwe will close the chapter.

3.2 Zimbabwe Background

Zimbabwe is a sub-tropical, landlocked country located in the centre of Southern Africa with a population of approximately 13 million. There are five major economic activities that exist in Zimbabwe which are agriculture, mining, forestry, manufacturing and tourism. The country is richly endowed with natural resources. Over 13% of the country’s total land area is set aside for national or wildlife recreational parks. The tourist attractions in Zimbabwe include Victoria Falls (one of the Seven Wonders of the World) Great Zimbabwe, Lake Kariba, Eastern Highlands, Matopos, and an abundance of wildlife (www.met.gov.zw).

The Zimbabwe Coalition on Debt and Development (ZIMCODD) estimates of 2012 indicate that approximately 80% of the country’s population resides in the rural areas and depend on smallholder subsistence farming (ZIMCODD, 2012:1). The livelihood of vulnerable smallholder farmers in Zimbabwe is a cause for great social concern. Recurrent droughts, the deteriorating economy, continued international trade distortions that Zimbabwe is not a safe destination for tourists and domestic policies that are tilted
in favor of big business continue to threaten livelihoods, and entrench poverty in the rural areas.

### 3.3 Tourism in Zimbabwe

Since independence in 1980, tourism has been one of the fastest growing economic sectors. With its vast natural and cultural resources, the potential for further rapid growth for this sector in Zimbabwe is very high. Historically, the tourism sector was a preserve of a minority (whites) of the society, focusing more on a smaller segment of the market and heavily dependent on the western traditional markets.

#### 3.3.1 The Tourism Policy

Zimbabwe's tourism industry has grown based on a guiding principle of ‘high value low volume’ tourism. It is against this background that the tourism policy envisages diversification and new initiatives towards making tourism the catalyst for economic development. The policy guides the opening up the sector to new sources of markets, diversifying the product base and above all, encouraging participation by the majority of the Zimbabweans.

An important thrust of the policy is to use tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation and sustainable economic development. The policy will guide the development of Community Based Tourism (CBT), Tourism Development Zone (TDZs) and Trans-Frontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) and will recognize tourism as an important land use option. The policy is expected to level the playing field for all players in the tourism sector, articulate the government vision for the tourism sector, define specific objectives
for tourism development and guide the preservation of Zimbabwe’s environmental and cultural resources (www.met.gov.zw).

### 3.3.2 Community Based Tourism

Community tourism is constantly becoming more and more popular as people start realizing that it is the best way to get to learn more about a certain community, culture and in general a completely different life style. It is said that community-based tourism may have the potential to revive the tourism itself in some countries and Zimbabwe is one of them.

### 3.3.3 Campfire

Tourists have visited Zimbabwe’s rural areas for many years, although the local communities were rarely involved (or benefited from) tourism until a few pilot projects were set up by the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) in the early 1990's. Most revenues from tourism in Zimbabwe’s communal lands are generated through the leasing of sites for nature tourism, although in some cases local residents run basic tourist facilities and act as guides. CAMPFIRE is a programme designed to assist rural development and conservation. It works with the people who live in these communal lands, supporting the use of wildlife as an important natural resource. CAMPFIRE is helping people in these areas manage the environment in ways which are both sustainable and appropriate (CAMPFIRE, 2012).

The CAMPFIRE movement, designed and managed entirely by Africans, began in the mid 1980's. It encourages local communities to make their own decisions about wildlife
management and control. It aims to help people to manage natural resources so that plants, animals and people - the whole ecosystem – should benefit. It helps provide legal ways for such communities to raise money by using local, natural resources in a sustainable way. As a result, many communities now actively protect local wildlife, seeing it as a valuable asset. In some areas locals have even provided wildlife with emergency food and water in times of shortage (CAMPFIRE, 2012).

In 1999 to 2003, the CAMPFIRE Association established the CAMPFIRE Development Fund (CDF) with support from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). One of the components of the CDF was the eco-tourism initiative. This consists of “low-cost, high volume” basic overnight accommodation, rudimentary camping, day visitor cultural centres and craft shops in communal lands, which were funded through infrastructure development grants, with communities providing locally available materials and labour. Fourteen out of the 18 large and small tourism enterprises funded have been completed to date and are operated mostly by community trusts and/or lease agreements with the private sector. These facilities provide a diverse product offering and target market based on wilderness experience, and specialist activities such as sport fishing and bird watching. Most of these projects cater for day visiting (hiking, cultural centres, cave paintings), basic overnight accommodation (camp sites, bashers, chalets), and crafts sales (CAMPFIRE, 2012).

The projects are designed to generate a return on investment to the communities to enhance their interest in managing and maintaining the natural environment. The projects create employment and generate income for locals through the sale of various goods and services. This has led to the improvement of standards of living by
stimulating the local economy, sharing revenues and contributing to community needs, and provision of infrastructure. Community based tourism also provides incentives for conservation (CAMPFIRE, 2012).

CAMPFIRE revenues have been steadily growing since the project's inception. At least 55% of this money has gone directly to Producer Communities where it can be reinvested in development projects, 15% goes to the Rural District Council (RDC), 26% goes to support CAMPFIRE management at the Council or Community Level and 4% comes to the CAMPFIRE Association. However, according to historical records, the economic impact of tourism in CAMPFIRE is low (5%) when compared to trophy hunting and wildlife products, although amounts vary considerably from project to project (CAMPFIRE, 2012:4).

There are many advantages to the community-based management approach adopted by CAMPFIRE as follows:

- creating jobs - local people are trained and become involved as environmental educators and game scouts;
- Prompting environmental education and promotes the benefits of wildlife conservation to communities;
- Providing an incentive for people to conserve wild species;
- Generating funds, which are used for community projects or to supplement household incomes;
• Creating more revenues for wildlife management and conservation projects in areas that would otherwise not receive adequate financial support for conservation (CAMPFIRE, 2012).

CAMPFIRE has made a real effort to diversify its revenue generating activities beyond hunting of wildlife on community land. A true diversification of income sources will truly make CAMPFIRE a sustainable development vehicle, even for communities that do not live in places with abundant mega fauna. Some of the other piloted projects include: live animal sales, meat cropping, beekeeping, crafts, fishing, crocodile eggs and mopane worms. Tourism has suffered greatly since the onset of Zimbabwe’s social and political turmoil connected to the 2000 land confiscation events, but hunting revenues have continued to pour in.

3.4 Study Area: Great Zimbabwe

In the southeast of Harare is the ancient city of Great Zimbabwe, also known as Dzimba Dzemabwe, which is the largest and most significant ancient monument south of the Sahara. In Africa, it is second in size and importance to the Egyptian pyramids. Towering Stone Houses are the remains of this city of 20,000 Shona speaking people who prospered between the 12th and the 15th centuries (NMMZ, 1998:1). This grand concept is an eloquent testament to the advance culture of its African builders (NMMZ, 1998).

Close to the monument is the Lake Mutirikwi, which is the third largest in Zimbabwe. Lake Mutirikwi has an incredibly beautiful, rugged and rocky shoreline, much of which has been designated a National Park. Its major attraction, aside from the beauty of its
flora, is its thriving population of white rhinos. The lake is also popular for water sports and excursions can be arranged to the bird rich island. Great Zimbabwe is located 28 kilometers from Masvingo which is the provincial capital with a commercial and industrial centre as well as hotels and other facilities for tourists. Masvingo is the country's oldest town and was established by the pioneer column in 1890 as Fort Victoria. One of the fort's watchtowers can still be seen in the town centre (NMMZ, 1998).

3.4.1 Livelihood Strategies

The Great Zimbabwe area is dominated by a rain-fed agricultural economy. Intensive farming of maize and ground nuts provides most households with a fairly stable source of food and income throughout the year (ZimVAC, 2005). Livelihoods of poorer households are more diverse. The locals supplement farming with local employment, brewing beer, animal husbandry, as well as craft business. However, one of the limits to crop production is land access. The land is densely populated and this limits the land available for cultivation (ZimVAC, 2005). The months from August until the harvest in March are known as the 'hunger gap'. This is when household food stocks are low, prices of food usually heist and there is limited cash earning (ZimVAC, 2005).

3.4.2 Wealth

The amount of wealth each household possesses is dependent on various factors, namely, size of land cultivated, access to agricultural inputs such as plough, seeds and labour, and the type of supplementary income received. The poor cultivate their land by hand and their areas of production are relatively small hence they have to get
alternative livelihood strategies such as working in other farms in order to meet their immediate needs (ZimVAC, 2005). Better off households receive remittances sent by relatives in urban areas and diaspora’ and have a more diversified food and cash crop production. Demographic pressure and concentrated cereal cropping are two factors that limit the availability of grazing land in this zone and consequently animal herds are quite small. Poor households own mainly chickens while rich households typically own no more than 5 cattle as well as 10 to 15 smaller animals such as goats (ZimVAC, 2005).

### 3.4.3 Source of Food and Cash

Households meet most of their annual energy needs from their own crop production. Poorer household’s production may not be enough for the whole year thus they rely more on purchasing food or on receiving food aid especially in dry years. All households consume wild foods such as mushrooms, fruits and small animals such as mice, cricket, termites and flying ants but these only improve the quality and variety of the diet but do not necessarily contribute to annual energy needs (ZimVAC, 2005).

### 3.4.4 Health

HIV/AIDS is a chronic problem in Great Zimbabwe, which has a negative impact on the economy. The effect of this disease trickles down to impact the household capacity to access food. When a household has a member with the disease the implication is that there is a rise in health cost and a drop in labour supply and making the household vulnerable to shocks such as droughts which are not related to HIV (ZimVAC, 2005).
3.5 The Monument History

Great Zimbabwe, the country’s premier national monument, covers an area of 720 hectares in approximation. The Great Zimbabwe which was built by the Shona people evolved from a small settlement around 13th century and flourished into a powerful religious and a political centre up to the 17th century. This historical site which was declared a national monument and a world heritage site in 1986 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), was once ruled by successive kings (NMMZ, 1998).

3.5.1 The Hill Complex

The hill complex provides a panoramic view of the whole complex. Historical and archaeological evidence suggest that kings resided in the hill complex. The choice of site on the hill was very strategic and is traditionally associated with elevation and veneration given to kings. The enclosures are set in the midst of the borders with some of the walls built on the edge of the cliffs. There are two main enclosures on the hill complex which are the western and eastern enclosures. The rulers of great Zimbabwe are believed to have been staying in huts evidenced by stratified hut floors discovered during excavations within the western enclosures. Within the eastern enclosure most of the Zimbabwean birds were found. These birds are now housed in the site museum. Other highlights include the cave, smelting, recess and cleft rock enclosures (NMMZ, 1998)
3.5.2 The Great Enclosure

The Great enclosure is the biggest pre-colonial structure in Africa south of the Egyptian pyramids. The outer walls have the circumference of 200m and the highest part of the wall is 13m. The width ranges from 4m to 6m in some parts (NMMZ, 1998). It attracts eyes of many people with its extensive and quality masonry style that baffles all visitors and burdens the minds of whosoever tries to interpret it. The eastern side of the great enclosure with its finest architecture bears the chevron patter. Evidence of grains bins found inside suggest its purpose was more residential than religious, as many visitors would think. The colonial towers that feature on most tourism brochures, is one of the difficult pieces of work to interpret. Its symbolic meaning which is conjuring to beliefs may symbolise a granary after it takes shape (NMMZ, 1998).

3.5.3 The valley enclosures

The valley enclosures can be divided into upper and lower enclosures. The 1987 excavations in the lower valley revealed a close relationship between stone walls and Dhaka huts. It is within the same enclosures where archaeologists found another Zimbabwean bird which is today used as a national emblem (NMMZ, 1998). On exhibit are some fine artifacts recovered from the monument.

3.5.4 Accommodation Services

Well positioned within the monument, next to the main entrance, there is a campsite which provides overnight accommodation to campers. Facilities include lighting, clean ablution block, hot and cold baths and firewood is on sale. Situated after the campsite
are dormitories which cater for school parties and large groups. There are two blocks that can accommodate self–catering facilities. Moreover, located in the shadows of Great Zimbabwe, there are rondevels which provide a visitor with a friendly relaxed, low cost accommodation. There are six twin bedded rondavels. Facilities include bedding, separate hot showers and a toilet (NMMZ, 1998).

3.5.5 Guided Tours

To help visitors appreciate the historical background of the monument, comprehensive guided tours are conducted from the information centre every day. Knowledgeable and experienced guides take visitors on a two dimensional tour. Physically tourists will be climbing up while they track down memory lane into pre-historic times (NMMZ, 1998).

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter focused mainly on tourism and livelihood strategies in Zimbabwe in general and Great Zimbabwe area in particular. Tourism is one of the five major economic activities in Zimbabwe and can be a sustainable rural development strategy that can sustain livelihoods as well as transform the lives of rural people. The Great Zimbabwe area is dominated by a rain-fed agricultural economy but since this economy is seasonal, livelihoods of poorer households are more diverse ranging from local employment, brewing beer, animal husbandry and tourism. Better off households receive remittances sent by relatives in urban areas and diaspora and have a more diversified food and cash crop production. Tourism as evidenced above can be a major livelihood strategy because of the museum and monument of Great Zimbabwe.
Chapter 4: Methodological Considerations

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology, methods and design that were used in order to answer the research questions and to address the problem identified by the study. The target population and units of analysis will be discussed in detail in one of the sections of this chapter. Convenience sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used in the choice of respondents and interviews and focus group interviews were used to obtain an in-depth understanding of the rural tourism phenomenon. The chapter also discusses how data was organized into logical categories during analysis and an overview of reliability and validity issues. This chapter concludes with the ethical considerations that are relevant for consideration in this study.

4.1 Research Methodology

The study defines methodology as the appropriate choice of approach in planning and executing the research in terms of the methods of data collection and forms of data analysis. A qualitative approach was used in this study because the topic under study appears to defy simple quantification hence by applying qualitative research the researcher could recognise nuances of attitude and behaviour that might escape researchers using other methods such as surveys and experiments. Rubin and Babbie (2011:270) state that “qualitative researchers attempt always to study human action from the perspective of the social actors themselves”.

55
The qualitative research methodology has long been used in the field of social sciences and it employs methods of data collection and analysis that aim towards the exploration of social relations, and describes reality as experienced by the respondents (Adams, et al. 2007). In other words, it is any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures.

The strength of this method lies in the depth of understanding it permits towards a phenomenon, whereas other research methods may be challenged as ‘superficial’ but this charge is seldom lodged against field research. Flexibility is another advantage of field research. Field research may allow the researcher to modify the field research design at any time. Moreover, the researcher is always prepared to engage in field research, whenever the occasion arises, but cannot easily initiate a survey or an experiment. Although, the topic under study appears to defy simple quantification, the researcher may need to borrow some general statistical techniques.

Babbie (2010:327) points out that “Qualitative field search seems to provide measures with greater validity than do surveys and experimental measurements, which are often criticized as superficial and not really valid”. Observing the Great Zimbabwe Area, is a powerful technique for gaining insights into the nature of human affairs in all of their rich complexity. The kind of comprehensive measurements available to the field researcher tap a depth of meaning in concepts which may be unavailable to surveys and experiments. Qualitative field research is a potential reliable powerful tool for social scientists, one that provides a useful balance to the strengths and weakness of experiments and surveys (Babbie, 2010).
4.2 A Case Study Research Design

A case study design is an in-depth examination of a large amount of information about a unit or case over a period of time (Neuman, 2011). It helps to tell a story through the lens of a small case. It is believed that certain variables that may be present in the case, for example cultures, individuals, resources, conditions and market that are unique to the case can assist in the creation of new theories or reshaping old ones because they will showcase intricate details of social processes and cause effect relations which allow academics to develop richer and more comprehensive explanations for social reality as has been aptly pointed out by Myers (2009) and Neuman (2011). This design can help the researcher to link abstract ideas and concepts to actual lived experiences and widely accepted standards of evidence.

A case study design was used in this research, with Great Zimbabwe Area as the case study. Great Zimbabwe is an ancient city which has given the modern nation of Zimbabwe its name and it is a repository of the nations’ cultural and historical resources. It was chosen because it is a major tourist attraction in Zimbabwe and it is located in the rural areas. The purpose of a case study research in this study is to “explore or test theories within the context of real life situations for rural tourism and to use empirical evidence from peoples in a real environment” to make an original contribution to knowledge (Myers, 2009:73).
4.3 Population and Sampling

The target population in the study was all households in Great Zimbabwe Area in Masvingo that directly and indirectly benefit from rural tourism. The Great Zimbabwe area consists of 16 villages and only four villages were selected for the study.

A purposive sampling technique was used to select the four villages which are under study and these are villages under the leadership of village heads, namely, Nemamwa, Charumbira, Mugabe and Murinye. These are closely located to the tourism monument and museum and have a significant level of participation in tourism. It is from these four villages that the museum committee members were selected thus making it ideal for collecting a sample of respondents from the same place.

There were two categories of respondents namely, expert informants and village informants. Expert informants are those who are well informed in tourism activities and business such as business owners and or managers of tourist establishments like lodges hotels, campsites, bed and breakfast establishments, rural district councilors, municipality and the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) officials. These were selected using purposive sampling too. A sample of four government officials and 16 business owners was interviewed. Purposive sampling, also known as ‘judgmental sampling’, is appropriate for selection of unique cases that are especially informative (Neuman, 2011). This type of sampling is appropriate for in-depth investigation to gain a deeper understanding from respondents such as managers and directors of companies.

The use of Sustainable Livelihoods approach often occurs at the individual or household level. Therefore, for village respondents named in the study as household respondents,
convenience sampling technique was used. This sampling technique is also referred to as ‘accidental sampling’ where respondents that are readily available are interviewed (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010).

The reason for using the convenience sampling technique is that a sampling frame could not be put together from any of the villages because of the prevailing political conflicts between the four village leaders who were selected in the study. A week before primary data collection was carried out, there was an article published in the herald newspaper with the details of the conflict which is attached in Appendix C of this study. These conditions almost made the study challenging but after careful negotiation and explanation of the purpose of the study to Rural District councilor Mr Togarepi permission to carry out research was granted by Headman Nemamwa. The letter of permission is attached in the appendix section of this study as Appendix D. The permission was granted on condition that the research team travels with one of the village policemen as a research assistant to assist in research as well as guide the research team in ethical principles of the communities. Examples of these ethical principles are, speaking to the headman through a middle man and not directly as well as following correct greeting procedures.

A sample of 33 household respondents was interviewed and most of the interviewees took advantage of village meetings and/or gatherings. After every meeting, willing respondents would be interviewed. Thus a total of 53 respondents were interviewed for the study. Twenty three (23) respondents were male and thirty (30) respondents were female. The level of education of respondents was not emphasized. Three focus group discussions were conducted to validate data obtained from the face to face interviews.
Each group consisted of seven members and was administered by the researcher whilst a research assistant was taking notes. The sample of participants in the focus group was chosen using purposive sampling.

### 4.4 Data Collection and Instruments

The data collection instruments that were used to answer the research questions are face to face interviews and focus group discussions as primary sources of data. The interviews were conducted between the months of June and July 2012. Two research assistants were employed and trained before data collection. One assistant was an undergraduate student and the other was a masters student.

#### 4.4.1 Interviews

The researcher used a set of predetermined questions called an interview schedule and the interview was guided by the schedule. The interview schedules were categorized in terms of three types of respondents namely, households, business owners and government representative. The questions in the interview guide were organised in relation to the subject area, the problem, objectives and theory base being employed whilst considering flexibility in scope and depth and had an average of 10 questions each. The questions were open–ended because they allowed respondents to express themselves freely. The interview schedule was also translated by an expert into the vernacular language of Shona that is spoken in the area. The English and Shona translated interview guides are attached in the appendix section of this study as appendix E, F, G H, I, and J.
The interview technique is reliable in obtaining in-depth comparable data and gives a detailed picture of a respondents belief about, or perceptions of sustainable rural tourism development challenges in Zimbabwe. The strengths of using interviews to find out about individual lives lies in its capacity to allow individuals to answer in their own words. Interviews are a useful way of gathering large amounts of data quickly and are an effective way of obtaining depth in data (Vos de, et al. 2011). Interviews are flexible and in this sense help the researcher to be able to follow up particular interesting avenues that emerge in the interview and the respondent is able to give a full picture.

One of the limitations of using an interview schedule is that respondents may not be willing to share information and sometimes the interviewer may ask questions that do not elicit the desired responses from respondents. However, careful explanation of the importance of the study and its implications to the benefit of the community was expressed to the respondents. Rephrasing of the questions was practiced in order to obtain the require responses. Appendix K of this study shows a picture of the face to face interview process conducted.

4.4.2 Focus groups

A focus group is an in-depth research technique also referred to as ‘group interviewing’ where respondents are interviewed together in a guided discussion forum (Babbie, 2010; Neuman 2011). Respondents were interviewed systematically and simultaneously in a face to face format. Although these group interviews are now adopting new communication modalities as such as online focus groups and telephone focus groups this study engaged in a face to face analogy. Myers (2009:125), states that “the
purpose of a focus group interview is to get collective views on a certain topic of interest from a group of people who are known to have certain experiences”.

One of the advantage of focus group interviews is that they are flexible, low in cost as compared to experiments, has high speedy results and high face validity (Babbie, 2010). Focus groups are essentially qualitative and essentially critical for this study to validate constructs from inter-subjective experience shared within the Great Zimbabwe community. This technique assisted this study in obtaining insights into a multitude of perceptions and attitudes of people in a dynamic group interaction atmosphere which could have been ignored or skipped in individual interviews.

Respondents in every group interview were moderately homogeneous and this is a very important key principle in forming focus groups. Among the three groups one focus group was only for business owners and the other two groups were for household respondents who seemingly were at the same level of engagement and/or interaction. Neuman (2011) denotes that, it is unwise to mix people of different status during group interviews. If respondents perceive each other as fundamentally similar, they will spend less time explaining themselves to each other and more time discussing the issues at hand yet ideally they should not be familiar with one another (Vos de, Strydom, et al., 2005).

The researcher also used secondary sources of evidence besides the primary sources stated above, such as peer reviewed development studies and tourism journals, tourism annals, textbooks, annual reports from government representative organisations, such as the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), newspapers and internet which can be
extremely valuable as they often provide evidence for things which people sometimes have difficulty in remembering.

4.5 Data Analysis

The study organised the data into logical categories that summarises and bring meaning to the text. This led to the identification of themes derived from the ideas, concepts and phrases used in the interview guides, and theoretical base (Powell and Renner, 2003). Because all respondents were asked the same questions, responses were coded into themes and discussed.

4.6 Methodology challenges

Some of the respondents of the government such as representatives of the Rural District Council (RDC) could not be interviewed because of the many inflexible protocols that needed to be followed. The representatives could not be interviewed because of time limit as well as unavailability of the responsible authorities to give permission to the release of information. This was a limitation to the study because the researcher feels that some new valuable data could have been obtained that could have been beneficial of the study.

4.7 Ethical Considerations of the Study

A researcher’s moral and professional obligation in any study is to be ethical even when the research respondents are unaware of or unconcerned about ethics. This study followed a fundamental ethical principle of obtaining an ethics clearance from the University of Fort Hare Ethics Committee which indicates the intent of the research.
Appendix N of this study shows the ethical clearance certificate granted to the researcher by the university. A letter of support for data collection was also granted by the department of Development Studies and is attached in appendix L of this study.

Another clearance was obtained from the Masvingo District Administrators (DA) in order to get permission to reach respondents and carry out research in the district of Masvingo. The letter from the DA is shown in appendix M. The DA permitted the researcher to go and see Chief Charumbira who also referred the researcher to the district councilor Mr Togarepi to get permission to carry out the study with the support of village heads. The letter from the councilor on behalf of the chief is shown in appendix D of this study.

Before the process of collecting information from the respondents could begin, the researcher followed the principle of voluntary consent. The researcher made sure that the respondents had clearly consented to participate in the study. Thus the objective of the study was achieved through informed consent. Myers (2009:48) states that “informed consent is an important ethical principle in qualitative research”. The researcher clearly explained to the respondents what the purpose of the study was and gave them an opportunity to decide whether to participate or not.

The respondents were also assured of their identity protection. This is because some of the information on livelihood strategies that the respondents practice may be private to respondents and could not be discussed without their consent. The confidentiality principle was also employed in this study whereby respondents’ names were not attached to their responses. The researcher did not release information in a way that
links it to certain individuals but presented results in an aggregate form such as themes and categories.

Materials from journals articles, textbooks and other sources of information used in the study were acknowledged in order to prevent plagiarism. Documents that are prohibited to be cited or published were not used. The study employed the principle of honesty about the data, findings and research methods on the claims of creating original knowledge or discovering important insights. Thus the study did not fabricate any results in the production of knowledge.

During field work the researcher was sensitive and showed respect to the local people’s traditions, customs, norms and values, and meaning of privacy in the area of study with the assistance of the village policemen. Many protocols and traditional values were learnt especially in approaching chiefs and village heads. For instance, the researcher was not allowed to speak directly to the village head but conveyed the message or conversation through a third party and vice versa.

4.8 Conclusion

This study used qualitative methods to gather and analyse data. It adopted a case study design where the Great Zimbabwe area was the case. Two research instruments, namely face to face interviews and focus group interviews were used to acquire valuable primary data. Purposive and convenience sampling were found appropriate for different respondents who were household respondents, business owners, and government representatives. This chapter outlined how samples of the population were obtained and the justification for it. The chapter also elaborated on the moral obligation
of the researcher regarding observance of the ethical considerations of the study. The following chapter will deal with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data obtained from the field. The sustainable livelihoods framework and transformative paradigm will be used for analysis.
Chapter 5: Data Presentation and Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data that was collected from interview respondents and the analysis of this data. Data is presented and analysed in the form of themes and categories that emerged from the interview questions. The analysis of the findings suggested the following five main contexts for rural tourism development: tourism and livelihood, rural tourism strategy, networks and relationships, marketing and microfinance.

5.2 Rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe

Business owners, household and government respondents listed the following rural tourism activities as key in the Great Zimbabwe Area.

- Craft work

This activity includes basketry, batik styled sheets and cloth which are handmade or printed, sculptures of wood and carved soap stone as well as crocheting. Batik and crocheting material is said to be used for table cloth, bed spreading, traditional clothing, curtains and decorations. Wooden sculptures make animals, fruit bowls, toys, hangers, spice racks, basketry, clay pots and necklaces. The products are made at the craft centre and sold there and other products are sold in a curio shop at the museum and nearby hotel. Soap stone is said to be too heavy to be carried on flights thus international tourists do not buy it.

- Scenic Tours
The main reason why people visit is because of the Great Zimbabwe monument and any other activities related to tourism are complementary. Moreover, the nation got its name from this wonder of houses built with stone without mortar. Other scenic tours include the Lake Mutirikwi view and Kyle dam view as well as bird and game viewing. Nevertheless, the respondents indicated that there is a decline in tourist visits because tourists do not believe Zimbabwe is a safe destination.

- Water activities

Boat cruising and fishing are the main water activities engaged by tourists. Tourists come to fish for vacation, trophy and competition. Some of the fish is said to be given to the local communities as donations. Tourists always need assistance in one way or the other from the locals.

- Traditional dances and Cultural villages

There is a group called the Nezvigara group which is composed of locals that offers entertainment to visitors. There is also a mbira group called the Great Zimbabwe mbira group. The traditional village is located inside the world heritage site and is owned by locals. The dances are performed in the traditional village. The dancers are given tokens in places to perform and paid for services. A government official pointed out that the cultural village and traditional dances are a form of Community Based Tourism (CBT). These tourist attractions suffer from lack of funding as well as internal conflicts within the groups which led to the failure of these CBT’s. Thus crafts business is operated by individuals.

- Village tours
Village tours are organised by tour guides. Since visitors want to visit a real authentic rural place or village, a guide organises a visit to the village and informs the villagers in advance and bring the tourist to a real and living culture. In turn, tourists get an appreciation and a good understanding of the host culture. The tourists pay the hosts.

- **Kyle Recreational Park and Accommodation**

There is plenty of flora and fauna and part of the Gonarezhou Park which is a Trans-frontier National Park (TNP). There are more than 10 organisations around Great Zimbabwe that offer accommodation services which are in the form of campsites, lodges and a hotel.

- **Entertainment and Education.**

Visitors come for entertainment and education. Students come for knowledge gathering, academic quiz and historians and archaeologist for research. The entertainment aspect is not very welcomed by the local traditional respondents who iterated that there should be strict visitation procedures to be implemented. The entertainment is in form of beauty parlours such as Ms Tourism, music galas, parties. Some of the entertainment was regarded as promoting dressing that does not show respect to ancestors who made the monument and that they should remain sacred and respected in that regard. Entertainment facilities are also found at the accommodation facilities such as the Great Zimbabwean hotel where there is swimming, volley ball and tennis. These accommodation facilities also have conference facilities and for weddings and parties.

Despite all the aforementioned activities found in the Great Zimbabwe Area, about 6% of household respondents surprisingly claimed that although they see tourists coming to
the area and they do not know what they are coming for. This is a sign that the respondents are not knowledgeable and/or are ignorant of tourism activities in the area.

5.3 Individual benefits from rural tourism activities

Household respondents indicated that rural tourism benefits them in terms of uplifting their livelihood since tourism brings new knowledge such as the best farming practises that improve yields in agriculture. Moreover, pest control measures to protect their produce which they obtain during interaction whilst at the same time tourists learn their traditional ways. As tourists buy products such as crafts and farm produce, they get foreign currency which helps them to meet their needs such as food, clothing paying of school fees and purchasing of farm equipment. Locals also benefit from donations and gifts form tourist which are in form of clothes, medication as well as money for livelihood improvement.

During a household group interview, the notion of employment was added as an individual benefit. Almost all general jobs such as tour guides, waiters, grounds persons, security, and housekeeping were occupied by locals. Thus employment helps the locals to earn a better living. A government official indicated that it is a deliberate policy to employ local community members and strategic if the government wants to survive well in that community. The reason is that it makes them feel that they are part of the on-going activities. Moreover, respondents believe that networks and relationships benefit and promote local business.
5.3.1 Community role and benefits from rural tourism activities

Locals help enthusiastically in the promotion of rural tourism projects. They are ready to hear how they can assist better and are prepared to showcase their products. Individual household respondents noted their involvement in tourism projects as guarding the traditional heritage of their culture and tradition. About 85% of the household respondents indicated that they get temporary employment for thatching huts in the monument, making fire guards around the monument and hotel establishments, conducting traditional dances and mbira playing whilst 15% do not know the role the community plays in rural tourism activities. A very important notion is that they believe they have the authentic information about the historical monument which they tell to tourist and this is a significant involvement in tourism projects. They also indicated that they limit and monitor the movement of people around the area as well as disallowing poaching.

During focus groups the notion of selling farm produce such as fruits and vegetables was regarded as part of the involvement in rural tourism projects. One official said “it is rare to hear that the locals attacked a tourist and that is helping to promote tourism”. The community has a committee dealing with tourism called the ‘museum committee’ and they are taught to conserve the area. For example, no animals are allowed in the museum area, fires are not allowed and they are taught how to avoid fires. The community is the source of labour for renovating dilapidated places and fireguards. Hosting of galas helps to attract people to the place. School children pick up papers to keep the tourist areas clean after functions. A notable comment by one household
respondent was that those who benefit from tourism mostly will advocate for tourism but the rest do not care.

Households and business owners agreed that there was little benefit to the community from tourists activities. The few things they pointed to include the benefit of 20 underprivileged children who get bursaries from the Museum which is aggregated as 10 from Chief Nemamwa and 10 from Chief Mugabe. This is part of Great Zimbabwe monuments corporate social responsibility. The fund for these bursaries are directed and authorised by the government, one government representative said. One household respondent who is a health practitioner indicated that they benefit as a community from donations from tourists in terms of drugs and from the hotel establishment in terms of linen that does not meet hotel standards but is usable in surrounding clinics. She also indicated that other donations are in the form of painting work done at establishments, utensils, services and fabric such as sheets and towels from the nearby hotel.

Moreover, on the 18th of May which is also an international museum day is a free day for all locals to get into the monument. However, many households indicated that they were not aware of this privilege. Moreover, the community also benefit through their involvement in the management of the monument. The community has a committee which is consulted for issues related to respect and religious significance of the monument. This was regarded as a livelihood benefit since keeping the sacred place sacred would ensure rain and prevent drought.
5.3.2 Organisational benefits from rural tourism activities

An average of 67% of household respondents and 38% business owners did not know much about organisations that are involved in tourism except a Non-governmental Organisation called RUDOO which tried to play a part in providing funding and training to crafts entrepreneurs but stopped for an unknown reason by the respondents. In the same vein, CARE which is not directly involved in support of rural tourism but assists the poor with food and clothes to relieve poverty and Zambuko Trust was coined as an organisation that supports tourism business to crafts people through micro finance or loans to assist small and medium scale entrepreneurs but the business owners indicated that they just fill in forms and nothing happens and its long gone.

Rural District Council (RDC), Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), Zimbabwe Arts Council (ZAC). National Park and Wildlife, National Museums and Monuments, Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA), Ministry of Tourism, Great Zimbabwe Hotel are organisations pointed out by a government respondent who had knowledge on tourism. Hotel and lodges buy commodities or farm produce from locals to enhance livelihood.

Business owners respondents indicated that general tourism can benefit individuals and their businesses when foreign currency is received. Foreign currency assists organisations to import equipment such as special grinding motors for wood carvings, as well as, assist in business growth. Currently, organisations and businesses see no major livelihood benefit because tourism is very low and rentals are high such that
people cannot get money from the business, thus life is difficult. Nothing new was said during a group interview of business owners.

One major role that is played by the government as highlighted by respondents is infrastructure development. For example, making a wider road thus making the place accessible, marketing the Great Zimbabwe as a major tourist product, registration of facilities or organisations in the tourism industry, enforcing local and international standards through the grading system in the hotels and lodges and other accommodation and tourism related service organisations so that people get a great experience and make repeat business. Moreover, government is also responsible for training practitioners on how to maintain standards and this training is related to customer care, supervision training, food and beverage service, cooking only to mention but just a few. Apparently in Great Zimbabwe government assists the community with a curio shop that sells and showcases goods from local people. The government does not exhibit locally produced clothing material in the curio shop because the local people do not have the skill and technology to make clothes.

Individual household respondents indicated that the benefits of tourism should be used to develop more schools as well as new blocks or learning rooms, provide job opportunities for local people, build roads to chiefs houses, build wells for safe water resources for the community at large, assist in building bridges, take care of school children, build clinics and also provide electricity.

Notably, an interesting and important concern raised by household respondents was that community leaders, government and business owners should put people at heart in
issues of development and tourism otherwise the community will be angry with them. Traditional ways must be preserved such as a modest dress code around the monument. Also that there is need for serious intervention in marketing and advertising in terms of putting clear sign posts that show the location of things and places.

A government official said that the government should promote the Community Based Tourism (CBT) concept because CBTs have people at heart. The respondent further noted that both private and public organisations should be involved in the promotion of tourism because apparently, there is a lot of individualism. Great Zimbabwe should be accessible both physically and socially. Furthermore, the respondent said government should organise activities by locals to make Great Zimbabwe well packaged so as to sell well. The community must be organised to enhance publicising of the products on offer either by television or internet. Thus a website for Great Zimbabwe inclusive of all activities is crucial.

5.4 Livelihood Strategies besides Tourism in Great Zimbabwe

A list of livelihood strategies besides tourism around Great Zimbabwe by household participants includes farming that is dealing in cash crops, fruit and vegetables. Other strategies include flea market business, piece jobs called (maricho in Shona) where people work for others in their own farm field for a short while, building contractor, fishing and cross border trading from Zimbabwe to neighbouring countries such as South Africa and Botswana. A focus group household interview added activities such as making bricks, cutting firewood and breeding of chickens for sale as well as working in schools and growth point. Business owners pointed out that tourism business is
seasonal thus people resort to the aforementioned strategies. Also that people survive from donations from NGOs for example, CARE which provides maize and cooking oil. However, only 10 people in the book are given per month yet there are 124 people in the group hence it is not sustainable.

5.4.1 Changes in livelihood caused by rural tourism

About 36% of household respondents showed little interest in tourism and saw no visible changes in livelihoods and 13% of business owners indicated that there is little change caused by rural tourism and that it takes place when one gets employment in the area or if their products such as crafts are bought. Thus it was indicated that changes in livelihood are only noted to those involved in the tourism business and not everyone else. Income from employment money is used to obtain basic needs such as food and education. Little changes are seasonal and only visible when tourists come for holidays.

A government official stated that the community has shifted from agriculture which is a major economic activity to making craft and other tourism jobs. Those that had a stake in the tourism business indicated that there were some changes in livelihood since they could send children to school through income from crafts. Networking through trading enhances the community to get other better opportunities such as supplying produce to bigger markets as well as crafting products or goods that are on demand or in style to meet the needs of the tourists. Networking also helps the rural people to adopt survival strategies from other people such as the use of natural herbs to control pest and preserving grain which can be an expensive endeavour if chemicals are used.
Another notable point that was raised by a health specialist was that HIV and AIDS is prevalent in the area caused by a change in life style of the local people who want to attract tourists by sex. This trigger a chain of negative reactions that undermine every form of capital available to the household, leaving households with a diminished capacity to deal with shocks which may arise that are not related to HIV such as drought, or economic decline.

Tourists donate resources to the community and this has brought a change and these donations can be medication, clothes, and finances to buy school books. Fishers and farmers benefit from tourism through the sale of their produce and enhance livelihoods.

A government respondent indicated that when tourism started it was meant to satisfy the needs of the tourists ignoring the demands and interests of the locals. Thus any tourism related development in Zimbabwe would focus on meeting the world standards criterion for tourism products without a proper strategy that addresses the livelihoods of the local people. The main reason for pursuing world standard demands is that the nation gets recognised when it possesses tourism products that are sellable.

Another reason is that the ownership of the Great Zimbabwe area is contested hence places with conflict cannot be visited. Conflict causes underdevelopment and projects that support tourism in such areas are difficult to fund as investors lose confidence in making an investment there. Thus, little development means less tourism, and in turn less income thus livelihood is threatened. Another reason for the absence of a strategy is the issue of knowledge of tourism. Many times local people make tourism initiatives but they do not have the support and resources such as finance to support their ideas.
A government official said that “we want community leaders that know what they want and are willing to lobby for that which they want”.

The strategy for rural tourism development should reform the mind-set of the local community at large in terms of their approach to tourism promotion initiatives says a government official. The strategy should encourage workshops with locals to discuss issues related to benefits of tourism, reduction of poverty, type of projects to support or implement how locals may be involved as well as the impacts associated with tourism development on livelihoods.

5.4.2 Livelihood as a major goal of rural tourism development

A government official indicated that livelihood has not been a major goal for tourism development but that it is now shifting to that direction. The major goal was to protect and conserve the monument and make it presentable for the tourists and not for the locals. Community involvement is a new development concept in government’s vocabulary, but such a thrust that benefits to the community should not be for a few individuals but for the whole community. The new concept of Community Based Tourism (CBT) has the community at heart and it focuses on livelihoods of the people. Income generated through this form of tourism goes back to the community to enhance rural development.

5.4.3 Attitude on rural tourism as a livelihood alternative

Household respondents have a good attitude towards tourism. They iterated that tourism is good because it develops their society and helps school children to get
education and they desired for there be more visitors. Respondents also pointed out that they get donations of clothes, money to survive, food stuffs, cultural education hence more and more visitors are needed. Interestingly, one respondent did not appreciate the notion of donations and indicated that “donations create a dependency syndrome”. This dependency is a condition where locals rely on aid rather than working for themselves to earn a living. Although their attitude is in support of tourism they voiced their need for free fishing places since tourism causes restriction of fishing places. They also expressed a need for assistance in infrastructure development in the community by the museum. Respondents said that tourism should go on because it lifts up the nation and peoples livelihood. One notable respondent said “tourism only benefits an individual who is clever but is not a benefit to the community”. In other words, one who is able to recognise its opportunities and potentials and has the capacity will definitely benefit.

5.5 Tourism and Community Development

In response to what is needed to be addressed by tourism in community development, respondents indicated that the local people should have projects. Tourists that visit should help facilitate projects for the livelihood of the people for it to be sustainable. The projects were pointed out as gardening, poultry, habitats sewing, carpentry and cooking. Respondents also feel that there should be a tourism fund that is managed by the community to educate the locals of the area. Notably, a business owner indicated that the government must fix the currency issue because tourists come thinking they will buy a lot but later find out that their money is not enough and regard artefacts as expensive.
Crafts people pointed out that they need shelter for their artefacts because rain and sun rays destroy their products. There should be financial support for easy business because apparently the locals operate their businesses as individuals. Furthermore, the craft market is not registered so they believe the tourists do not buy their products because they are not advertised. Tourism funds should be directed to schools development especially more classes for existing schools and as well as more schools and reading material. The respondents also pointed out to the need for safe and clean water, a hospital rather than a clinic because of population growth and electricity especially when the government forbids the locals to cut firewood around Great Zimbabwe. The community also needs development of boreholes, construction of bridges and roads, developing and maintaining communication infrastructure for internet facilities, as well as financial and technical support for irrigation projects. Moreover, tourism must support farming because without farming there is no life

5.5.1 Management and Challenges of rural tourism projects

Great Zimbabwe is a contested landscape. Four chiefs namely, Nemamwa, Mugabe, Charumbira and Murinye claim and profusely fight over the control and ownership of the landscape. Respondents believe that the conflict between the chiefs in the area is a big hindrance to tourism and thus tourists visits have reduced.

The government body responsible for the management of the monument is the National Monuments and Museums of Zimbabwe (NMMZ). This organisation finds it difficult to share the vision with the locals of presenting the monument to meet world standards. Thus stern measures have been put in place to confiscate cows straying in the
monument, and arrest locals who cut down firewood in the area. This has led the community to be in conflict with management.

Financial constraints were said to be a challenge in the management of tourism projects. Respondents indicated that there are no sponsors for CBTs hence the government’s reliance on foreign investors. Operators find it difficult to pay operating fees especially small operators such as crafts entrepreneurs. Bigger operators such as lodges do not recruit qualified people to operate and promote their businesses thus lowering the standards of the tourist experience.

Locals think there is a lot of money received from tourism revenues but government expressed that the locals are not aware of the expenses of managing the vehicles, maintaining the tourist product which is the monument, as well as, human resources expenses. An official said “If the people are busy it does not mean they are making money”. There is also a challenge of a centralised financial management system among museums in Zimbabwe. This system is practised in a way that all income generated in different areas of the nation is managed at the head office and ploughed back equally to the different provinces with the same assets. This makes it difficult for management to effect significant development back to the local community without the head office directive. Moreover, the Great Zimbabwe area is not accessible like Victoria Falls. There are no direct flights to bring Great Zimbabwe to the tourist door step.

5.5.2 Stakeholder relationship in promoting rural tourism

Sixty one per cent (61%) of household respondents stated that there is a good relationship between them and the local government. The local government advises the
people and they handle people’s problems in different ways. However, a smaller proportion of 12% of household respondents indicated that there is no respect to locals by the government as the owners of the Great Zimbabwe. Government official also name local streets with foreign names instead of Shona names of renowned heroes of the nation thus there is always a misunderstanding between government and locals when trying to share these grievances.

Interestingly, 69% of business owners indicated that there is no good relationship because they have lost privileges to fish because of restriction by the council bodies in order to preserve tourism. Cows will be taken and arrested if found straying and if the owners of the cow fail to pay a fine, the cows are auctioned. The household respondents indicated that council does not fence the monument so as to take the local people’s money and livestock. Moreover, business owners pay hefty tax rates to the local council which are just imposed rather than negotiated whilst at the same time they do not build good structures for crafts entrepreneurs in order to sell and protect their products. Too much money on the rentals by the council affects also the prices of the products too. “Council is useless and against tourism”. Thus there is no good relationship. Another significant comment was that council is helpless because of inclusive government. This type of government consists of two main opposing parties in the country namely MDC and ZANU PF and both have different political and administrative views. Thus developing a strategy for tourism in such an environment is problematic. Community members also do not have a good relationship because they contest over the ownership of the Great Zimbabwe landscape among themselves.
Discussion

5.6 Rural Tourism Strategy

There is no strategy of developing and promoting tourism activities that sustain livelihood. Analysis of findings reveals that tourism is promoted to meet the world standards as well as the needs of the tourist. The government is concerned about maintaining the monument to meet world standards as a world Heritage Site by protecting it and conserving natural resources around it without considering the lives of the people that live around the area. This is a problem because for rural tourism to be a socio-economic transformative catalyst it should place central importance on the lives and experiences of rural people and pursue policies that eliminate vulnerabilities and power imbalances in the community (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

Placing people at the centre or heart of the planning and implementation of rural tourism development is strongly advocated for by the local community. The only concept that is identified and encouraged to pursue, is the Community Based Tourism (CBT). Although it has failed recently because of the lack of financial support, it still remains an ideal program that strengthens tourism to be a sustainable livelihood intervention.

The transformative theory expresses that the state plays a central role in guiding and promoting successful economic transformation. It is evident from the findings that the government of Zimbabwe plays a role of developing infrastructure such as roads, and attracting foreign resources and/or investors through the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) in order to increase tourist visits. These are important elements of successful
transformation but the challenge is that there is still severe infrastructure deficiencies in Zimbabwe rural areas especially communication, health and energy infrastructure. Deficiencies in infrastructure have been identified as major challenges for many African countries hence they inhibit meaningful socio-economic transformation (Economic Report on Africa, 2011)

Literature shows that rural tourism development in developing countries is meant to diversify the rural economic base rather than rejuvenate rural areas as developed countries do (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003). However, rural tourism is truly a diversifying intervention in Zimbabwean rural areas but the challenge is that the “diversification experience has been volatile, with no discernable and general sustainable movements towards deepening diversification” (Economic Report on Africa, 2011:81). Examples of sustainable movements that have been volatile in Zimbabwe are CAMPFIRE and CBTs. It is evident from the African economic transformation analysis in the Economic Report on Africa (2011) that African economies have been unable to register any sustainable movements towards deepening diversification.

5.6 Challenges of sustainable rural tourism

5.6.1 Political Instability

Zimbabwe is currently internationally isolated, economically and politically because of political instability ignited by the Land reform program of the year 2000. The current interim government which consist of the two major opposing parties namely ZANU PF and MDC does not have a constitution and is always in constant conflict in managing the country thus posing a challenge in promoting tourism as a sustainable livelihood
intervention. This is also evident from the findings which show that rural district councils cannot be of much help because of this inclusive government. The reason is that the ruling party is the main driver of development programs but in this case there is no ruling party. Thus it is difficult to have a successful economic transformation without institutions such as a good constitution, the rule of law, an independent judiciary, representative political institutions, effective central banks and other regulatory bodies, and effective laws, especially in enforcing property rights” (Economic Report on Africa 2011:83). Transformative interventions include changes to the regulatory framework to protect socially vulnerable groups. As a result, Zimbabwe has not yet made meaningful economic transformation to rural areas through tourism. This is largely because of state leadership which has been lacking and ineffective.

5.6.2 Community Conflict

The findings clearly show that there is no good relationship among stakeholders in relation to tourism promotion. Firstly the researcher realised that the Great Zimbabwe is a contested landscape. Village heads are in constant battle about who owns the landscape and this prevents progress in relation to formulating strategies that can make tourism a livelihood intervention. Networks and relationships form part of the social capital of the livelihoods framework which people require in pursuit of their livelihood (Ashley, 2000). Thus it is very important for the community leaders to mend and settle their contentions for the success of tourism promotion. One government respondent, said “owning the landscape may not bring food at the table” and thus the leaders should know that.
Literature supports the idea of assessing and understanding the socio-political dynamics in a community as tourism develops, because it determines sustainability, and allows participation by the community members (Verbole, 2000). Transformation mostly starts with individuals within an organisation or society and then moves through the individual to impact the organisations and broader social institutions they are in (Sydenham, 2009).

Regardless of the conflict amongst community leaders, there is a management committee that has representatives of the four Great Zimbabwe leaders called the museum committee. This committee is responsible and consulted for issues related to respect and religious significance of the monument, as well as disseminating information back to the community. Analysis of the findings proves that the museum committee is not very effective or significantly influential. This is evidenced by the responses from the respondents some of whom did not have any idea what tourist come for and others who knew did not know the organisations responsible and involved in the promotion of tourism in the area. Thus they lack knowledge and are less informed.

Another reason for bad relationship is that of negotiation. The business owners who pay taxes, rentals and rates, believe that the fees are hefty and are just imposed without an assessment of the business environment entrepreneurs are operating in, at the same time failing to see where the finances are going. Some believe these problems faced by business owners are caused by the inclusive government which is characterised by conflict, but the truth is there is need for negotiation. In comparison with a study in Slovenia by (Verbole and Cottrell, 2002) rural tourism development is a negotiated
process by social actors who are struggling to gain the most benefits out of the development projects. Thus there is need for engagement among all stakeholders in relation to all issues of their interest as well as having a shared vision in the development process.

5.6.3 Marketing

Marketing is one of the major challenges of rural tourism in Great Zimbabwe. Respondents strongly believe that tourists pass their market because they do not know about it hence they indicate that there is need for serious marketing and advertising. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) is the one responsible for marketing destinations. Respondents also pointed out some strategies of marketing they think would be appropriate for the viability of their business and these are: placing clear sign post that shows location of things and places as well as use of internet and television publishing. Creating a website inclusive of all surrounding tourism places therefore is regarded as crucial.

However, the major challenge for this form of marketing is that of individualism. Most projects are run and operated by individuals and this is supported by Brown (2008) who points out the lack of name recognition as a marketing challenge. Thus there is need for cooperation between the private and public sectors so boost the image of the products they sale. The strategy that can then help is that of networks and relationships.
5.6.4 Micro Finance

Both literature and the in-depth interviews suggest that the issue of micro finance to assist small and medium scale entrepreneurs is salient. From the findings it is evident that programs such as CBTs in the area failed because of insufficient financial support. Micro finance is the least available livelihood asset of the rural poor (Serrat, 2008). Respondents pointed out the challenge they have of micro finance in their projects. Projects of crafts, poultry, irrigation, cooking, carpentry and more are run by individuals who are struggling financially to even pay operating fees of projects. That is why there is no proper strategy of rural tourism because there are limited financial resources that help to drive the strategy.

Household and business owner respondents believe that the government has a lot of finances because they see many tourists coming into the area and thus they equate it with a lot of profits. Thus, a government official shade light in this regard and indicated that locals had no knowledge of how money is used and thus there is misunderstanding were the locals feel that the government is not doing enough. Government has limited funds and relies on foreign investors who are not confident to invest apparently because of the political and economic crisis in the country. It is also costly to manage tourism for example the management of vehicles, wages, maintaining the monument and museum within a limited budget or finances is difficult. Moreover, the government is using a centralised system of managing finances that came from tourism related proceeds throughout the country. If these funds were to be managed by locals, it would assist in formulating a strategy that works for the community in shaping their livelihood strategies and priorities through tourism.
5.6.5 Knowledge and Communication

It is clear from the accounts of the respondents that knowledge and communication is a major challenge for tourism development in Great Zimbabwe. Most household respondents do not comprehend why their livestock are confiscated and fined if found straying in the monument area yet the area is not fenced. Respondents feel it’s a money making scheme and cruelty. Those that cannot pay the fine will have their livestock auctioned. Respondents are not aware that the tourist area should be kept in a natural state in order to remain a standard world heritage site. Knowledge of what tourism is all about and its benefits is limited thus making it difficult to make it a livelihood priority.

Communication is the glue to sustainable networks and relationships in rural tourism promotion strategies. Thus some respondents suggested the introduction of feedback forums, workshops and awareness road shows in order to impart knowledge as well as create a proper two way channel of communication and discuss issues related to reducing poverty, enhancing livelihood and involve locals in the development process. Evidence also shows that some respondents are not aware of available benefits for locals to enter and view the museum and monument on the 18th of May every year.

The government of Zimbabwe through tourism organisations is the sole driver of tourism related projects or programs. Government is responsible for infrastructure development such as (building roads, registration of facilities or organisations in the tourism industry, enforcing local and international standards through the grading system in hotels, lodges and other accommodation services, training practitioners on how to maintain standards and that is (customer care, housekeeping, food and beverage service) an policy
making. Research shows that rural tourism is likely to be unsuccessful without government support (Keyim, Yang and Zhang 2005).

Apparently there is an inclusive government which is run by two strong conflicting parties. This is making management of tourism difficult since supporting either side of the political function is problematic. Additionally, tourist visits have dropped in some areas because of political instability. The community is only involved as the main source of labour in the promotion of rural tourism. The community showcases their dance talent of the culture and tradition, sale their farm produce and crafts work to tourist but are not involved in the development process.

5.7 Tourism and Livelihood

An analysis of findings shows that tourism and farming are the two major livelihood strategies in the rural area of Great Zimbabwe. From the information provided by the respondents, farming is the major activity and tourism is the next best alternative for livelihoods in the area. Literature indicates that tourism activities are making increasingly important contributions to rural areas by diversifying their economic base in order to eliminate poverty as well as compensate for the insufficiency of agricultural livelihoods (Holland, Burian and Dixey, 2003).

Of course there are other livelihood strategies that the Great Zimbabwe people rely on which are building, construction, Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) aid, cross boarder trading, fishing, selling of firewood, making bricks, remittances and breeding livestock such as chicken. Nevertheless, tourism has contributed tremendously to their
livelihoods through employment opportunities such as guards, general workers tour guides, waiters, grounds persons, security, and housekeeping.

Employing local people and engaging them in the development process is a deliberate policy to ensure that there is a good relationship between the community and tourists as well as between the community and private and public stakeholders. This is supported by the transformative approach which advocates for placing people at the centre of development so as to create an opportunity for the rural community to create desirable change. In India rural tourism is for the rural people and by the rural people (Subhash, et al. 2010).

There are other benefits that rural tourism brings on the livelihoods of the Great Zimbabwe people which are donations from tourists, tourists buying crafts and farm produce as well as imparting knowledge of livelihood strategies such as the best farming practises of improving yields in agriculture. Moreover, a pest control measure to protect their produce is knowledge which they obtain during interaction. Although 6% of household respondents were sceptical about donations because they cause dependency syndrome, such donations as medication and books go a long way in improving livelihoods. As the level of literacy increases there is a likelihood of improved livelihood strategies from bright minds of the rural community. To add to these benefits related to education, the government is also funding 20 bursaries a year in the community.

Findings also reveal that there are some changes in the livelihood of locals caused by rural tourism in Great Zimbabwe. These changes can only be visible to those that are
directly involved in tourism. Since there is no shared development strategy there is a lot of individualism in participating or developing tourism related projects. Literature depicts that tourism brings change either negatively or positively but as it develops it should aim to maximise positive changes and minimise negative changes (Ritchie and Inkari 2006:28).

Positive changes in Great Zimbabwe are that employment and craft business have resulted in communities obtaining basic needs such as food and education. A notable negative change is that of high HIV and Aids prevalence since other community members are engaging themselves in tourism sex. The consequences therefore are that health costs increase resulting in reduced income expenditure on household food production. Generally, tourism is contributing to positive livelihood changes in Great Zimbabwe. Although it is believed that tourism is benefiting individuals, the whole community has a positive attitude towards the promotion of rural tourism. The community strongly believes that tourism improves their livelihoods and their nation at large. That is why host-guest relationship between the rural people and tourists are favourable which is an important ingredient for the success of rural tourism promotion (Smith and Brent, 2001).

The reason for the absence of a rural tourism strategy is identified as the lack of knowledge and conflict. Stakeholders are not aware of the potential benefits of rural tourism as a livelihood intervention and poverty reduction development strategy. Thus if knowledge is limited it becomes difficult to formulate a strategy of the unknown. Thus if a community or its leaders have knowledge of what tourism is, they will know what to lobby for as well as get government support. Moreover, it is also difficult to have a
strategy in a place where there is conflict or dispute. The rural tourism strategy is very important because it answers the ‘how’ question in relation to communication marketing, network and relationships, reduction of poverty, improved livelihood participation and finance.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented and analysed data from the interviews and the focus groups discussions. The study realised that farming is the major livelihood activity and tourism is the next best alternative strategy in the area of Great Zimbabwe. However, there is no strategy of developing and promoting tourism activities that sustain livelihood and transform society economically or socially. There is no significant drive by government to guide and promote transformation. Thus the study identified a number of challenges of sustainable rural tourism in Zimbabwe, namely, political instability, community conflict, marketing, micro finance as well as knowledge and communication. The challenges are analysed within the framework of the transformative theory and sustainable livelihoods theory.
Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief summary of the findings, conclusion, recommendations and areas for further research. The recommendations are intended to influence tourism policy in Zimbabwe as well as practitioners to have transformative development thinking.

6.2 Summary of Findings

The researcher found that there are a lot of rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe from where the local people derive their livelihood from. These activities include craft work; scenic and village tours; water activities, recreation; accommodation; entertainment and education. The local people are entrepreneurs in these activities or are employed as workers in the same activities. These activities are secondary and major to their livelihood strategies whilst agriculture is their primary strategy for livelihood. Other minor secondary sources of livelihood are cross-border trading, remittances, construction, Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) aid, fishing projects and other general jobs.

The study found out that rural tourism activities have contributed a lot to individual changes but little to the community as a whole. Most tourism related activities, small businesses or projects are individually owned thus it’s mostly the involved individual who knows about rural tourism and gets the benefit. For example, income derived from these activities either through employment or entrepreneurship assists individuals to get
basic needs as well as education. The research further found out that the community benefits from these activities through donations from tourist as well as bursaries from government tourism funds to community under privileged pupils. Networks also help the community to adopt foreign livelihood survival strategies. One major negative ailment to the community was that of an increasing HIV and AIDS prevalence as some community members shift from their economic activities to tourism sex.

The study also found out that the community as a whole believes that rural tourism benefits them by uplifting their livelihoods as well as benefiting the nation at large economically. Thus besides their challenges such as conflict within the community, they still maintain a positive attitude towards tourists as well as tourism projects designed by the government.

In relation to involvement by different stakeholders the study found out that government is the sole driver and facilitator of all tourism related projects or activities. The government is responsible for infrastructure development, marketing capacity building and providing services for rural tourism. There are also other organisations that are parastatal to the government involved in the promotion of rural tourism such as the Rural District Council (RDC), the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), Zimbabwe Arts Council (ZAC) and National Monuments and Museums of Zimbabwe (NMMZ). Most members of the community are not knowledgeable of these organisations but government officials know since they closely work together. The community’s involvement is limited especially in decision making process. Although they have a representative committee, it is powerless. Thus their involvement is only in consultation
in aspects of religion and culture related to the monument as well as showcasing their culture, tradition and products and availing themselves as sources of labour.

Moreover, the researcher noted some challenges in the management of rural tourism in Great Zimbabwe. These challenges were that of conflict for ownership of the Great Zimbabwe, finance in promotion of rural tourism and stakeholder relationship which will be discussed respectively. Firstly, Great Zimbabwe area was found to be a contested landscape hence difficult to manage or develop. The village leaders fight among themselves in relation to who owns the monument. Secondly, the government has limited funds to support the promotion and development of rural tourism and thus they rely on foreign investors who are not interested in investing apparently because of the economic and political environment. Thirdly, stakeholders do not have a good relationship especially local government and business owners. The local government is accused of charging hefty fees on rates, rents and taxes without negotiating them with the local people. Thus it is believed by the business owners that the local council is against tourism.

The study also found out that there is no rural tourism development strategy and livelihood is not a major goal of promoting tourism. The governments’ interest is meeting the needs and interest of the tourists and getting international recognition. The reasons for the absence of this strategy is believed to be the lack of knowledge about tourism and what to lobby for as well as local conflict and finances. However, findings show that the community wants projects and development that places people at centre of the process, for instance the promotion of Community Based Tourism (CBT) which focuses on livelihoods of the people where income goes back to the community. The study also
found out that rural tourism can be a sustainable livelihood intervention; however, its benefits should be used to develop the entire community through building infrastructure such as schools, roads and health facilities and also through improving services such as water supplies and electricity. In this regard, rural tourism can be sustainable on livelihoods.

6.3 Conclusion

In many ways the advent of rural tourism as a sustainable and transformative tool for rural development has been advocated for in Zimbabwe. Although it is believed that meaningful economic transformation is a major development challenge in Africa (Economic Report, 2011), rural tourism in Zimbabwe can be a meaningful sustainable livelihood and transformative intervention especially if government supports it. Our results support the importance of placing people at the centre of development of rural tourism through the use of the sustainable livelihoods approach and transformative paradigm.

Indeed as depicted in the problem statement, there is no rural tourism strategy in Zimbabwe. Without a proper strategy for socio-economic transformation, rural tourism cannot be a sustainable livelihood intervention. The study established that the absence of a strategy is caused by political instability, community conflict, lack of finance, poor communication, and limited knowledge of tourism. All the aforementioned reasons complement each other and poise a challenge to the sustainability of rural tourism development.
Micro finance is the glue to the success of all rural tourism promotion projects and can be obtained from the government or investors or self-generated by the community if they are in control of the financial system. Communication is also vital for rural tourism as it creates trust and confidence among stakeholders. If the local people are well informed they develop a sense of belonging and attachment to the programmes and project of rural tourism. Conflict has removed investor confidence thus there is lack of funding and support for sustainable rural tourism development.

This study concludes that whilst rural tourism is variously interpreted and contested in different context, it is indeed a sustainable livelihood intervention for rural communities. However, since these communities are not homogenous entities in many ways and do not have the same resources they need to develop a strategy that work for their community within a framework of understanding development which is transformative as well as sustaining livelihoods.

It is evident that there is no significant drive by government to guide and promote transformation through tourism. The reasons being that of the aforementioned challenges that were identified in the analysis which are microfinance, political instability, marketing, conflict of ownership of the Great Zimbabwe, lack of knowledge, and communication which is the glue to networks and relationships. State leadership is lacking or inefficient. This is also clear because of the absence of supporting institutions such as a good constitution, the rule of law and an independent judiciary which are important for successful transformation. Thus the government has been unable to register tourism as a sustainable movement towards deepening diversification which brings about success in transforming societies or economies.
6.4 Recommendations

In view of the findings, this study would like to make the following recommendations:

- The Government of Zimbabwe should develop a comprehensive rural tourism development strategy that places people at the centre with the objective of sustaining livelihoods. This strategy should include the following:

  a) Communication plan – this should entail proper channels and easy protocols and procedures for disseminating or receiving information within the framework of development. Thus it should show how to communicate, when to communicate, what to communicate and so on.

  b) Marketing plan – an image should be created through networks and cooperation among the different stakeholders. The development of cooperatives might be worth trying in building up an image that is easy to market and fund.

  c) Financial plan – this should show how projects and programs are to be financed. Decentralising the financial system is worth trying and let every region have its own financial system.

  d) Management plan - this should determine the governance and ownership of the development programs and in this case the rural people being the drivers and at the same time with full government support.

This strategy should be a shared value strategy which means that rural tourism promotion growth will create benefits throughout the community and empower the poor
and vulnerable groups in order to participate in the development of tourism. This can be achieved through cooperative development. Evidence from the study showed that there is a lot of individualism hence it is difficult to market and fund individuals. Thus cooperatives can be easily funded supported and marketed and hence impact the community significantly. For example the craft centre can be organized as a cooperative, there is need for a transport package tour company by locals with GZ labels, and need to package traditional foods in the traditional village.

- The Government of Zimbabwe should adequately provide infrastructure such as communication, health and energy for tourism to be a meaningful socio-economic transformation intervention as well as improve the accessibility of the Great Zimbabwe area by reviving the airport for quick and easy access of the area as other destinations like the famous Victoria Fall.

- The study also recommends the establishment of shipping arrangements for soap stone souvenirs that are regarded as heavy for the flights. For example cargo shipping.

6.5 Areas for Further Research

The study identified some areas which need further detailed investigation and these are:

- Rural tourism policy is a critical issue to be researched further. Policy should reflect people’s livelihood priorities in relation to what tourism is and how to develop it. Policy for rural tourism development should answer questions like who initiates the development process. How are the terms of development...
negotiated? Who gets to participate in the process? Who decides? Who actively benefits or loses from the development process?

- Micro finance has been viewed as the glue for rural development projects for sustaining rural people’s livelihoods and bringing socio-economic transformation in the rural areas. However, there are limited models for micro finance that are appropriate for tourism in order to alleviate poverty.
References


Verbole, Alenka. "Actors, Discourses and interfaces of Rural Tourism Development at the Local Community Level in Slovenia: social and political dimensions of rural tourism development process." *Journal of Sustainable tourism* 8, no. 6 (2000).


Appendices

Appendix A: Sustainable Tourism Model

Fig. 1. Sustainable Tourism Model. Source: Drawn up from Hall (1998) [30].
Appendix B: Local governance hierarchy in Zimbabwe

- Minister of Local Government
  - Permanent Secretary
    - Provincial Administrator
      - District Administrator
        - Chief
          - Ward Councilors
          - Ward Councilors
          - Ward Councilors
            - Village Head
            - Village Head
Three Chiefs Fight over Great Zimbabwe Control

By George Maponga, 22 June 2012

The Great Enclosure, which is part of the Great Zimbabwe ruins.

Masvingo — THREE traditional leaders here are reportedly feuding over the control and ownership of the Great Zimbabwe monument. The stone monument, 30km outside Masvingo town, is where the name Zimbabwe is derived. The chiefs all claim that the imposing and historic monument falls within their boundaries. The monument was built in the 12th Century during the reign and dominance of the Mutapa Empire.

However, chiefs Nemamwa, Mugabe and Murinye are engaged in a bitter row over ownership of the World Heritage site. The Mugabe and Murinye chieftainships belong to the Duma people while Nemamwa is linked to people of the Shumba totem. Some historians however, claim that they belong to the Bonga totem. Masvingo district administrator Mr. James Mazvidza yesterday said the chiefs had reached a deadlock over who has jurisdiction over the ruins. He said efforts to break the impasse failed dismally, forcing authorities to stop the process.

"There is indeed a deadlock amongst the three chiefs claiming that the monuments fall under their jurisdictions and we had started efforts to deal with the deadlock so as to allow the Masvingo Rural District Council to gazette a resolution determining under whose area the monument falls. We stopped that because new issues emerged and they need to be sorted out first before the exact boundaries of chieftainships in Masvingo district were designated."
"We are however, going to continue with efforts to break the deadlock once the issues have been resolved and no chief can legally claim to be the rightful leader controlling the monument," said Mr. Mazvidza. National Museums and Monuments director Dr. Godfrey Mahachi said the Government was working with all communities around Great Zimbabwe. The Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe are the custodians of heritage sites. Dr. Mahachi said Government was not qualified to determine whose area the monuments fell under.

Communities surrounding the ruins belong to all the feuding chiefdoms. He said they had formed a local management committee with representatives of all the communities around the ruins for harmonious co-operation. "We know there are contestations over the control of the Great Zimbabwe monuments, but we really do not know the origins of those contestations.

"We are merely there to look after the country's national heritage resources hence at the Great Zimbabwe monument we are working with the entire immediate communities and we regularly hold meetings where all the three chiefs or their representatives attend."

He said the committee meets once every month.

"Our objective is just to have a harmonious relationship with the immediate communities around the monument. The responsibility to determine which chief should control the monuments lies with other offices, not ours," he said. However, historian Cde Aeneas Chigwedere yesterday said there was none among the three chieftainships who should claim control over the monument. He said Chief Nemamwa was the first to arrive in the area around the Great Zimbabwe monument which had already been built by people of the Mutapa Empire.

Cde Chigwedere, who is also Mashonaland East Provincial Governor, said the Mugabe clan only arrived at Great Zimbabwe in 1840 and fought the Nemamwa clan to get control of the monument. "It was the great ancestor of the Nemamwa people called Goronga who by the 13th Century was already at the Great Zimbabwe monument ". He started performing rituals for members of the Mutapa Empire around that time so we can say before the coming of the white men, Great Zimbabwe was in an area under control of people of the Nemamwa clan that is a fact. “However, by the time the white men arrived right up to colonization, the area around Great Zimbabwe was now under Mugabe who had fought and defeated Nemamwa. "None of the three chieftainships can lay claim to the Great Zimbabwe monuments in terms of ownership because the monuments were built by the Mutapa Empire" he said.

Cde Chigwedere said the Duma people (Murinye and Mugabe) came from Uteve (now Mozambique) around the 1700 and settled further south of the monuments. He said the Nemamwa clan was already settled around the monuments. Cde Chigwedere said the
Mugabe clan broke away from the Murinye clan and only arrived at Great Zimbabwe in 1840. The Mugabe clan, he said, fought off the Nemamwa clan from the monument. "The Mugabe clan arrived at Great Zimbabwe in 1840 and fought the Nemamwa clan whose real totem is Bonga (wild cat)." Nemamwa joined forces with the Charumbira clan to defeat the Mugabe clan that occupied the area," he said.

Great Zimbabwe is a World Heritage site and its massive curving walls, built from hundreds of thousands of granite blocks fitted together without mortar, remain the largest ancient stone structure in sub-Saharan Africa.
Appendix D: Permission letter for Data Collection from the Chief

Masabhuku, 29/06/12
Ward 12
Chief Chamunobu

Rutshigiro rwa Va G. Musasa

Va G. Musasa vanzita Degree ravo pa University of Fort Hare,
Vane izvanyoka kudzidza,
Saka vachafamba masabhuku
enyu. Vateridzerei henu,
Vakawo tendero na D.A. Va
Nzvidza na Mambo Chamunobu,

Tatenda,

Mutoya

117
Appendix E: Interview Guide for Household Participants

NB: The survey is meant for academic purposes only and will be treated with confidentiality.

- The primary objective of this study is to explore the potentials of rural tourism promotion activities in Zimbabwe and their role in sustaining the livelihoods of the rural communities.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant .................................................................
2. Date …/ …./ 2012
3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) ..............................................
   Tel/Cell#........................................
4. Occupation of informant .................................................................
5. Male □ Female □

SECTION B:

1. Outline List the rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe?
2. What do you think are benefits as an individual from rural tourism activities?
3. What are your livelihood strategies of living around Great Zimbabwe before and after tourism projects?
4. What are the changes in livelihood caused by rural tourism activities?
5. What do you think about rural tourism as an alternative livelihood activity?
6. Which organizations are involved in supporting rural tourism projects?
7. What is the role of the community in relation to rural tourism activities around Great Zimbabwe?
8. What do you think the rural tourism development strategy should address?
9. What is your relationship with the local government in carrying out rural tourism projects?
10. What do you think should be done for rural tourism to be a good livelihood intervention?
Appendix F: Interview Guide for Tourism Business Owners

NB: The survey is meant for academic purposes only and will be treated with confidentiality.

☐ The primary objective of this study is to explore the potentials of rural tourism promotion activities in Zimbabwe and their role in sustaining the livelihoods of the rural communities.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant .................................................................

2. Date …/ …. / 2012

3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) ..............................................................
   Tel/Cell#..............................................

4. Occupation of informant .................................................................

5. Male  Female

SECTION B

1. Outline the rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe?

2. What would you say are benefits as an organization from rural tourism activities?

3. Besides tourism how do people live?

4. What are the changes in livelihood caused by rural tourism activities?

5. Which organizations do you know which are involved in supporting rural tourism?

6. What is the role of your organisation in supporting rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe?

7. What other problems are you facing as an organization in managing rural tourism development projects?

8. What is your relationship with the local government in carrying out rural tourism projects?

9. What do you think should be done for rural tourism to be a good lasting livelihood intervention?

10. What do you think the rural tourism development strategy should address?
Appendix G: Interview Guide for Governmental Organizations

NB: The survey is meant for academic purposes only and will be treated with confidentiality.

☐ The primary objective of this study is to explore the potentials of rural tourism promotion activities in Zimbabwe and their role in sustaining the livelihoods of the rural communities.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant ..........................................................................................................

2. Date …/ …. / 2012

3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) ..............................................................
   Tel/Cell#.................................................................

4. Occupation of informant ..........................................................................................

5. Male ................................................................................ Female

SECTION B

1. List the rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe?

2. Comment on the rural tourism activities listed above.

3. What would you say are benefits to the community for rural tourism promotion?

4. Is livelihood improvement a major goal of promoting rural tourism around Great Zimbabwe?

5. What are the changes in livelihood caused by rural tourism development in Great Zimbabwe?

6. Which other organizations are involved in supporting rural tourism projects in Great Zimbabwe?

7. What is the role of government in supporting rural tourism activities in Great Zimbabwe?

8. What is the role of the community in supporting rural tourism projects around Great Zimbabwe?

9. What challenges are you facing in the promotion of tourism as a livelihood intervention?
10. What do you think should be done for rural tourism to be a sustainable livelihood intervention?

11. a) Why is there an absence of a rural tourism development strategy for livelihood improvement?

b) When is this strategy going to be and what difference would it make?
Appendix H: Translated Interview Guide for Household Participants

NB: Tsananguro iyi yatirikuita inotibatsira munyaya dzezvefundodzidzo badzi uye tichaichengetedza zvakasimba kuti isashandiswa nevamwe vanhu zvisizvo.

☐ Chinangwa chezvidzidzo izvi ndechekuzama kuongorora zvingakwanisa kuitwa nebazi rezvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa muZimbabwe uye zvaringakwanisa kuita kuchengetedza uye kuvudzidza hupenyu hwevanhu vanogara mumaruwa.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant .................................................................
2. Date …/ …./ 2012
3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) ................................
   Tel/Cell#..........................................................
4. Occupation of informant ..........................................................
5. Male Male      Female      Female

SECTION B:

1. a) Tizivewo zviitiko zvekushanyigwa zvinowanikwa mumaruwa emuGreat Zimbabwe?
   b) Tsanangurai zvishoma maererano nezviitiko zvekushanyigwa amatairese pamusoro.

2. Pamafungire enyu ndezvi zvamunungati zvakanakira zvirongwa zvekushanyirana mumaruwa kumunhu woga-woga munharaunda yenyu?

3. Maimborarama uye munorarama sei muno muGreat Zimbabwe panguva apozvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa zvange zvisati zvavapo?

4. Paneshanduko here pamuraramire wavanhu wakaunzwa nezvirongwa zvekushanyirana mumaruwa?

5. Munofungei pamusoro pechirongwa chokushanyirana kwemumaruwa seimwe nzira yokusimudzira muraramire wavanhu munharaunda?

6. Ndeapi mamwe makamba anotsigira urongwa hwezvekushanyigwa imi musati mamboita nezvazvo?
7. Nharaunda yenyu inoita basa rei mukuedza kuvandudza chirongwa chekushanyirana kwemumaruwa mudunhu reGreat Zimbabwe?

8. Pamafungire enyu zvirongwa zvekushanyirana mumaruwa zvinofanira kunangana nenyaya dvi pi dzebudiri ro?

9. Ukamahwenyu hwakamira sei pakati penyu nehurstumende dzemumatunhu mukutsigira kwamunoita mushandira pamwe yezvekushanyirwa mumaruwa?

10. Chii chamunofunga imi kuti chingaitwa kuvandudza zvekushanyirana zvemumaruwa kuti zvimire zvakanaka uye kuti chigova chinhu chinoshandura upenyu hwavanhu mumaruwa?
Appendix I: Translated Interview Guide for Tourism Business Owners

NB: Tsananguro iyi yatirikuita inotibatsira munyaya dzezvefundodzidzidzidzo izvi nechekuzama kuongorora zvingakwanisa kuita nebazi rezvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa muZimbabwe uye zvaringakwanisa kuita kuchangenteka uye kuvundudza uye kuvandudza hupenyu hwevanhu vanogara mumaruwa.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant ..............................................................................................................
2. Date …/ …./ 2012
3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) .................................................................
   Tel/Cell#....................................
4. Occupation of informant .................................................................................................
5. Male ..................................................................................................................................
   Female

SECTION B

1. Tizivewo zviitiko zvekushanyigwa zvinowanikwa mumaruwa emuGreat Zimbabwe?
2. Tsanangurai zvishoma maererano nezviitiko zvekushanyigwa amataura pamusoro.
3. Pamafungire enyu zviitiko zvingava zvakanakira zvirongwa zvekushanyirwa kwamuri
   imi semapato akazvimirira oga?
4. Nheyo dvenyu nezviga zvinokurudzira uye kusimudzira upenyu hwavanhu
   hwakamira sei munharaunda dzeGreat Zimbabwe?
5. Hurongwa hwekushanyirana kwemumaruwa hurikuunza shanduro zvakadini
   pamuraramiro wavanhu?
6. Ndeapi mamwe makamba anotsigira urongwa hwezvekushanyigwa imi musati
   mamboita nezvazvo?
7. Nderipi ramungati basa resangano renyu mukutsigira zvekushanyirana
   zvemumaruwa munzvimbo ye Great Zimbabwe?
8. Ndeapi mamwe matambudziko amurikusangana nawo sesangano rinoita nezvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa uye nezvebudiriro yezvirongwa zvacho?

9. Ukamahwenyu hwakamira sei pakati penyu nehurstumende dzemumatunhu mukutsigira kwamunoita mushandira pamwe yezvekushanyirwa mumaruwa?

10. Pamafungire enyu, chii chingaitwa kuvanduda zvirongwa zvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa kuti zvive zvinobatsira ramangwana reruzhinji?

11. Pamafungire enyu zvirongwa zvekushanyirana mumaruwa zvinofanira kunangana nenyaya dviipi dzebudiriro?
Appendix J: Translated Interview Guide for Governmental Organizations

NB: Tsananguro iyi yatirikuita inotibatsira munyaya dzezvefundido badzi uye tichaichengetedza zvakasimba kuti isashandiswa nevamwe vanhu zvisizvo.

☐ Chinangwa chezvidzidzo izvi ndechekuzama kuongorora zvingakwanisa kuitwa nebazi rezvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa muZimbabwe uye zvaringakwanisa kuita kuchengetedza uye kuvandudza hupenyu hwevanhu vanogara mumaruwa.

SECTION A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

1. Name of participant .................................................................
2. Date …/ …./ 2012
3. Contact Details (for follow up purposes only) .................................................................
   Tel/Cell#........................................
4. Occupation of informant .................................................................
5. Male ........................................ Female

SECTION B

1. Tizivewo zviitiko zvekushanyigwa zvinowanikwa mumaruwa emuGreat Zimbabwe?
2. Tsanangurai zvishoma maererano nezviitiko zvekushanyigwa amataura pamusoro.
3. Pamafungiro enyu zvekushanyirana zvemumaruwa zvinobatsira nharaunda yenyu zvakadini?
4. Kuvandudza mararamiro evanhu ndicho chomungati chinangwa chikuru here chezvirongwa zvekushanyirwa kwemumaruwa munzvimbo yeGreat Zimbabwe?
5. Paneshanduko here paupenyu hwavanhu ingava yakakonzegwa nezvирongwa zvekushanyigwa munzvimbo ye Great Zimbabwe?
6. Ndeapi mamwe masangano anotsigira mushandirapamwe yezvekushanyirana kwemumarura munzvimbo yeGreat Zimbabwe?
7. Basa rehurumende nderipi mukutsigira kushanyirana kwemumaruwa munzvimbo yeGreat Zimbabwe?
8. Vagari vemunharaunda vanoita basa rei mukutsigira zvirongwa zvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa muGreat Zimbabwe?

9. Murikusangana nezvigozhero zviyi mukutsigira zvekushanyirana senzira yekuunza shanduko paupenyu hweruzhinji?

10. Pamafungire enyu, chii chingaitwa kuvandudza zvirongwa zvekushanyirana kwemumaruwa kuti zvive zvinobatsira ramangwana reruzhinji?

11. a) Pamuonero wenyu chikonzero nei pasina nheyo yezvebudiriro yekushanyirana mumaruwa kuitira kuvandudza mararamiro eruzhinji?

   b) Munoono sekuti nheyo yebudiriro iyo ingazovapo rini uye munoono sokuti ichakonzera musiyano zvakadini?
Appendix K: Picture of One on One Interview

NB: The picture was taken by the researcher and belongs to the researcher.
Appendix L: Letter from the Department

31 May 2012

Dear Sir/Madam

SUPPORT LETTER FOR MR MUSASA

This is to certify that Mr Gabriel Musasa (201107514) is a student in the Department of Development Studies doing his Masters degree. Part of the requirements for his work is to produce a research dissertation. In order to accomplish this task he needs to undertake fieldwork on his study which requires him to carry out interviews with identified respondents in Masvingo, in the Great Zimbabwe area. His research title is “Sustainable rural tourism development: Prospects and challenges for the great Zimbabwe area in Masvingo”.

May you kindly allow Mr Musasa access to your area to speak to the identified research participants, as well as to offer him any assistance that he might need to enhance the objectives of his research. The outcome of Mr Musasa’s work will be a written dissertation that can be made available to your organisation on request. Please do not hesitate to contact us using the details given above should there be need to do so. We hope that our request will meet with your favourable response.

Looking forward to your kind assistance.

Respectfully

PB Monyai (PhD)
Head of Department
Appendix M: Letter from the District Administrator

Correspondence should not be Addressed to individuals

Telephone :62076
Fax :62386

District Administrator
Masvingo District

15th June, 2012

Chief Charumbira
MASVINGO

Dear Chief Charumbira,

RE: SUPPORT LETTER FOR MR G MUSASA

This minute serves as a request that Mr G Musasa is carrying out a Masters Degree with the University of Fort Hare and would like to make his research in your area.

Kindly assist him.

Yours sincerely

J. MAZVIDZA
DISTRICT ADMINISTRATOR
Appendix N: University Ethical Clearance Letter

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR:
ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
Private Bag X1314, Alice 5700
Tel: +27 (0) 4662 2403
Fax: +27 (0) 4662 2244
lawyers@ufh.ac.za

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Reference Number: SHA01 1SMU01

Project title: Sustainable Rural Tourism Development: Prospects and Challenges in Zimbabwe. A Case of the Masvingo Great Zimbabwe Area

Nature of Project: M Sc Development Studies

Principal Researcher: Gabriel Musasa

Supervisor: Dr G Shaw

Co-Supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare’s Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principles or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
The conditions contained in this Certificate have not been adhered to

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project

The Ethics Committee wishes you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

Prof Gideon de Wet
Acting Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Academic Affairs and Chair

5 June 2012