A FRAMEWORK FOR THE FACILITATION OF COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM IN NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS: A CASE OF THE SAVE VALLEY IN ZIMBABWE

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in MANAGEMENT SCIENCES (Hospitality and Tourism) at the Durban University of Technology

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ABSTRACT

In Zimbabwe, because of the lack of a clear facilitation framework, very little effort has been made in recent years by tourism authorities in the country to make community-based tourism (CBT) part of the national tourism growth agenda. Yet globally, within the general tourism sector CBT is becoming increasingly relevant in LEDCs because it fosters poverty reduction and biodiversity conservation. Underpinned by the participation and power redistribution theory (Arnstein, 1969) this study aimed at developing a framework of collaboration and participation of all stakeholders for facilitating CBT in Save Valley as a strategy to reduce poverty in local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation.

The study adopted mixed methods as a distinct research approach, which combines both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The research adopted a two-phase sequential exploratory research design, which involved the collection and analysis of qualitative data from in-depth interviews followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data from questionnaire-based surveys.

The research results showed greater preference for vegetable outgrowing by female household heads who, incidentally, were less educated and poorly resourced than male household heads who had a wider variety of preferences such as handicrafts and cultural performances, wildlife conservation, and accommodation SMMEs such homestays, lodges or bed and breakfast were the preferred CBT ventures. There was gender consensus in the composition of CBOs and duties. Critical challenges for prospective local CBT entrepreneurs according to education levels of participants included lack of economic variables such as market, capital or technology, and managerial and other requisite skills, human-animal conflict, and land invasions by peasants.

The research results also demonstrated that through the poly-centric CBT facilitation framework, advanced as original contribution, CBOs in collaboration with powerful and highly resourced external facilitators would encourage the local community

residents of Save Valley to gain legitimate bargaining power during decision making because the CBO would act as an organised power base in the community.

The study recommends that outreach programmes that have long been contemplated as a way of transmitting tourism benefits from SVC to local community residents should be transformed into CBT projects to bring about community participation in tourism by adopting the polycentric CBT framework developed as original contribution of this study. This may be the only sure strategy for achieving the twin objectives of community participation and beneficiation while promoting wildlife conservation in Save Valley in Zimbabwe.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to a number of people who influenced my life in many indelible ways:

My late mother, Miriam who raised a family of seven children from making pottery that she sold to local villagers sometimes in exchange for grain. Her entrepreneurial skills inspired me to carry out research in Save Valley where local residents continue to eke a living on unsustainable rain-fed agriculture.

I also dedicate this study to my little daughter, Abigail, who always asked me, appreciatively, interesting questions on what I was studying; my friends, Morgan Chiona, Dr Tapera Saravoye, and Tinashe Rukuni, and my brother, Bernard Baye, who always encouraged me to read more whenever I seemed to despair; the local residents of communal lands around SVC who continue to languish in poverty because of dependence on outdated agricultural livelihoods; and academics and those in policy and planning positions who agree with the following paraphrased mindset as much as I do:

> *The long-term management of protected areas hinges on the cooperation and support of local residents. It is, therefore, neither politically feasible nor ethically appropriate to exclude the participation of poor local residents from access to the resources from game parks without providing them with alternative means of support. To leave the local communities to pursue traditional agricultural and pastoral livelihoods in a situation of unresolved questions of land tenure and a 'fences and fines' approach to protected area management is unsustainable and amounts to continued decline of habitat and wildlife populations* (Jackson, 2014).

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ABBREVIATIONS

AfDB:	African Development Bank
ASEAN:	Association of South East Asian Nations
CAMPFIRE:	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CATHSSETA:	Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sports Sector Education and Training Authority
CBET:	Community-Based Ecotourism
CBOs:	Community-Based Organisations
CBT:	Community-Based Tourism
CTOs:	Community Tourism Organisations
DEAT:	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DFID:	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
DT:	Department of Tourism
DTI:	Department of Tourism Industry
DUT:	Durban University of Technology
EIP:	Enterprise Investment Programme
HUD:	Department of Housing and Development
KRST:	Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust
LEDCs:	Less economically developed countries
LEDI:	Local economic development initiative
MFED:	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MTHI:	Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry
NGO:	Non-governmental organisation
NORAD:	Norwegian Agency for Development

NSDS:	National Skills Development Strategy
NTMP:	National Tourism Master Plan
NTSS:	National Tourism Sector Strategy
RDC:	Rural district council
RSA:	Republic of South Africa
SA:	South Africa
SDGs:	Sustainable Development Goals
SMMEs:	Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises
SVC:	Save Valley Conservancy
TDZ:	Tourism Development Zone
TEP:	Tourism Enterprise Programme
UN:	United Nations Organisation
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNWTO:	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USAID:	United States Agency for International Development
WTTC:	Word Travel and Tourism Conference
YTEP:	Youth and Tourism Enhancement Project
ZTDMP:	Zimbabwe Tourism Development Master Plan

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism development in Zimbabwe is heavily skewed towards traditional and already developed tourism destinations such as Victoria Falls, Hwange National Park, Kariba and others. Little or no effort has been directed towards community-based tourism (CBT) to achieve sustainable tourism development in remote rural areas where wildlife tourism[1], the main attraction, is threatened by conflict, tension, and hostility which originated from the colonial period following the passing of the Land Apportionment Act, 1930 (Mombeshora, Mtisi and Chaumba, 2001: 55). Essentially, CBT can be used as a vehicle for rural communities adjacent to wildlife sanctuaries or safari areas to generate extra income while also contributing to wildlife conservation.

In Zimbabwe very little effort has been made in recent years by tourism authorities in the country to make CBT part of the national tourism growth agenda (Nyaruwata, 2011: 236). The situation has been worsened by the lack of a framework for facilitating (CBT) as a strategy to reduce poverty in local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation. The Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry's (MTHI) tourism blue print, called 2013-2015 Strategic Plan, scantly highlights CBT and acknowledges neglect of this sub-sector (MTHI, n.d.: 23 - 26). Similarly, the Zimbabwe Tourism Development Master Plan (ZTDMP) (2017) also targets traditional destinations for preferential treatment as tourism development

[1] Wildlife tourism is tourism that involves encounters with non-domesticated animals either in captivity or in the natural environment. It includes activities such as game viewing, recreational fishing, hunting, bird-viewing, visiting zoos and other similar activities (Cooperative Research Centre, 2001 cited in Sinha, 2001: 3).

zones (TDZ) to attract investment (Kawadza, 2017: 2). Yet worldwide CBT is regarded as one form of sustainable tourism suitable for poor and remote rural areas where it has been used as an alternative development approach for empowerment and self-reliance of impoverished local communities (Telfer, 2009). A case in point is Save Valley where wildlife tourism is the major attraction.

Therefore, in this study the central issues to CBT development in Save Valley Conservancy (SVC), a major wildlife area in south-eastern Zimbabwe, are poverty reduction, community participation, empowerment and environmental sustainability. Indeed, the underlying view in this study is that CBT can be linked to the need for poverty reduction as local communities can earn extra income while helping towards nature conservation (Timothy, 2002; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012). This view has gained popularity globally as CBT has increasingly been considered a means to strengthen development of local communities, alleviate poverty, and promote cultural heritage while conserving biodiversity in remote rural areas, both in developed and developing countries (Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012: 174).

A wide variety of CBT project options were identified for consideration in this study such as communally or individually owned or shared micro-enterprises and home stays which can be linked to institutions outside the community such as non-governmental organisations, private safaris, tour operators and other stakeholders (Giampiccoli and Kalis (2012: 174). Studies in Save Valley reveal unprecedented lack of active participation in any form of tourism by the local population in this wildlife area, and destructive practices such as human-animal conflict, bushmeat poaching and, land invasions by poor residents (Wolmer, Chaumba and Scoones, 2004; Lindsey, du Toit, Pole and Stephanie, 2008; Kreuter, Peel and Warner, 2010). In addition, in Zimbabwe generally, the development of tourism is uneven and the distribution of tourism proceeds is disproportionate. Local populations have not reaped any meaningful revenue from the industry (Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012: 127). The situation has been made worse by Rural District Councils (RDCs) that are not

keen on equitable distribution of the financial returns (Lindsey, du Toit, Pole and Stephanie, 2008; Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012). Mutanga, Vengesayi, Gandiwa, and Muboko (2015: 564) in their study of protected areas (PAs) in Zimbabwe also concluded that these wildlife[2] areas had not fully involved local people in their management and that benefits were not fairly shared among the stakeholders.

In addition, in Zimbabwe the local definition of CBT is ambiguous and strongly associated with Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), a top-down, non-participatory approach and explicitly non-developmental model enforced on the people through unpopular natural conservation legislation (Wolmer *et al*. 2004: 90-91). This distortion of the definition of CBT disenfranchises local people who deserve to diversify into the sub-sector and earn themselves extra income. Also important is to note that MTHI's 2013-2015 Strategic Plan scantly highlights development of CBT projects and promotion of home stays through introduction of village hotels and capacity building programmes. ZTDMP (2017) is yet another prestige project earmarked for already developed tourism destinations and tourism businesses (Kawadza, 2017). Regrettably, according to the tourism blue print (of MTHI) CBT will solely obtain fiscal support from development and co-operating partners (MTHI, n.d.: 26).

This study regards this as glaring disinterest by government and lack of a framework to guide community participation in CBT in resource-rich wildlife areas in the country. The situation is similar to that of Namibia in the 1990s when a lack of a supporting framework curtailed effective policy implementation to direct communities and support organisations (Halstead, 2003: 5). The Save Valley is in a similar predicament in that it lacks a framework to facilitate CBT. Consequently, in the region conflict is rife in the form of human-animal conflict, vandalism of perimeter fences,

[2] In this study wildlife describes game species such as animals, birds and fish that may be hunted by people or may be used for recreation or sport (Mutanga *et al*. 2001: 564).

land invasions[3] since 2000 coupled with lack of political will to bring sanity in the area, and bushmeat poaching causing biodiversity loss and endangering the fragile ecosystem of the area (Lindsey *et al*., 2008). These conflicts, tensions, and hostilities can be traced back to the colonial period associated with disproportionate distribution of land along racial lines[4] in accordance with The Land Apportionment Act of 1930 (Mombeshora, Mtisi and Chaumba, 2001: 55). To attain sustainability in the region, Save Valley Conservancy, which is a sanctuary and safari area, should act as both a conservation and investment entity where the neighbouring communities are co-partners and co-beneficiaries (Muzvidziwa, 2013: 48) through participation in CBT as illustrated in Figure 1.2 and the suggested in the polycentric CBT facilitation framework in chapter 5. There is a need for a framework to facilitate government intervention, private sector collaboration and community participation and beneficiation through CBT in Zimbabwe and the Save Valley Conservancy in particular.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The motivation to carry out this research emerged from the principle that community participation in CBT underpins economic empowerment and environmental conservation and sustainability in wildlife areas surrounded by the poor communities, who lack alternative livelihoods. In Zimbabwe MTHI (n.d.: 9) has a mission to facilitate the delivery of high quality, sustainable tourism products and services that contribute to the economic development of the country. However, this blue print scantly mentions the need to develop CBT projects, only stating the need for the promotion and encouragement of home stays and village hotels as well as capacity

[3] In 2000 land invasions of conservancies and other commercial properties occurred under Zimbabwe's controversial Fast Track Land Reform Programme. In 2002 33% of SVC was invaded and taken over by peasants leading to increases in bushmeat poaching, destruction of habitats, drop in tourism and human-animal conflict (Lindsey et al. 2008: 175-176). Kreuter et al. (2010: 516) argue that the land invasions heavily compromised the integrity of wildlife conservation.

[4] The Land Apportionment Act, 1930, a hated colonial legislation, disproportionately distributed land along racial lines with the minority white population getting a greater share while the blacks, who formed majority population, got an inferior share of land (Muzvidziwa, 2013: 41).

building while also devolving the funding responsibility to development partners (MTHI, n.d.: 26) such as African Development Bank (AfDB) (which, in 2014 funded the Youth and Tourism Enhancement Project (YTEP) and consultancy work in the development of the National Tourism Master Plan, Zimbabwe (NTMP) (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MFED) UNDP, Beit Trust and UNESCO. Yet there is an obvious lack of a framework to guide local community participation in sustainable tourism through CBT in resource-rich wildlife areas such as the Save Valley.

A framework is, therefore, necessary to support, not only policy implementation, but also in providing direction to local communities, community leadership, politicians, local authority, MTHI, government and support organisations to pioneer and develop CBT to diversify livelihoods and sustainably conserve wildlife. Personal observation and experience of the poverty[5] and despair of smallholder dryland farmers due to severe droughts, lack of alternative livelihoods as well as rife human-animal conflict, land invasions (after 2000) and bushmeat poaching served as motivations for this study. Ironically, the Save Valley Conservancy nearby is a relatively rich sanctuary that offers abundant opportunities to access international markets for the same poverty-stricken neighbouring residents.

1.3 COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM CONCEPTUALISATION

An understanding of the CBT debate is crucial to conceptualise the study because the term CBT is hotly contested and often assumes different meanings to different people (Ndlovu and Rogerson, 2003: 125). The controversy has had a bearing on government policy and investment in CBT as evidenced by the blue print of the tourism ministry of Zimbabwe which treated CBT as a peripheral sub-sector that has no share of government funds, and whose entire funding was deliberately devolved

[5] Poverty does not only imply inadequate income and human development but also embraces vulnerability and lack of power, voice and representation (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017: 2).

to development partners such as EU, Rhino Trust, USAID, AfDB, UNDP, Beit Trust and UNESCO (MTHI, n.d.: 26). Boonratana (2010: 280) observed that in Thailand CBT is referred to by several terms used with neither distinction nor any form of agreement. Similarly, Giampiccoli and Kali (2012: 175) argue that some of the definitions of CBT vary considerably from one another. However, to put the debate straight, it is important to understand that CBT concept was developed in the 1970s when it was associated with alternative development approaches such as empowerment and self-reliance (Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012: 174). The concept later arose after the Earth Summit in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro in accordance with Agenda 21 (Suriya, 2008: 2). But the original concept of CBT must be seen as part of sustainable development paradigm that links concepts of economic empowerment, self-reliance and environmental sustainability (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 174). Since then the CBT concept has become increasingly relevant in less economically developed countries (LEDCs) because it endorses strategies that favour greater benefits and control by local communities[6] (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 174).

Although CBT is perceived differently, it is gaining prestige all over the world as an alternative to mass tourism (Lopez-Guzman, Sanchez-Canizares, and Pavon, 2011: 69). It has been described by some scholars as suitable for poor and remote rural areas lacking other growth options than tourism development (Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012: 127). Muzvidziwa (2013) also notes that CBT in LEDCs is inevitably located in rural areas, where incidentally the majority of the poor people live. Other authors regard revenue from CBT as an alternative means of survival for the local communities (Sebele, 2010: 146) as people can use their natural and cultural resources and develop business enterprises and generate the much needed employment opportunities. Interestingly, however, some scholars still doubt the economic sustainability of CBT. Mizal, Fabeil and Pazim (2014: 27) doubt the

[6] In this study local or neighbouring community describes the population that lives in communal lands that lie adjacent conservancies where the common border is the perimeter electric fence. These communal lands are divided into wards 18, 19, 24, 25, and 26, located on the northern and eastern sides of SVC.

financial sustainability of CBT without external funding from donor organisation and government. Sebele (2010: 144) cites the lack of managerial, entrepreneurial and marketing skills as hindrances for economic sustainability for CBT projects. However, there is a general consensus among scholars about CBT's potential for active community participation in tourism and environmental sustainability (Kiss, 2010; Kreuter, Peel and Warner, 2010; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). It is against the backdrop of this debate that a CBT sustainability framework was developed and recommended to facilitate local community participation in CBT for extra income to reduce poverty while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation in Save Valley and areas with similar contexts.

1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT

It is acknowledged in the literature that resource management is sustainable if local people benefit financial incentives and proprietorship from the resources (Halstead, 2003; Kreuter, Peel and Warner, 2010; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012). In agreement, Mak, Cheung and Hui (2017: 1) posit that incorporating the opinions of local communities in tourism planning and development is a vital attribute of sustainable tourism. Ominously, in the Save Valley, there is a lack of a framework to facilitate community-based tourism that would buttress sustainable tourism in the area. The Save Valley Conservancy Trust, formed in 1996 with the aim of facilitating CBT, was doomed to fail at its inception because of the top-down approach to its development (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 173).

According to Lindsey *et al.* (2008: 174) micro-enterprises which would reduce poverty and achieve sustainable tourism and wildlife conservation like out-grower vegetable schemes, handcrafts, bushmeat rations, community-private sector joint ventures and micro-industries were proposed, but no framework has ever been put in place to facilitate their implementation. To make matters worse, the invasion of some game farms after 2000 and the continued stay on the game farms by the invaders blurred the stakeholder rights and scuttled hope for any community

outreach programmes (Lindsey, et al., 2008). Some studies revealed mixed community perceptions towards outreach programmes. For instance, attempts at outreach were described as cosmetic (Wolmer *et al.*, 2004: 89), and Kreuter *et al.* (2010: 521) note that in cases where external authorities used wildlife-based income to fund community development projects, villagers tended to view such projects as government handouts rather than wildlife-related benefits.

Also important to note is that most studies in the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC) concentrated on describing and explaining the successes and challenges of wildlife conservation particularly in SVC with peripheral mention of CBT (Wolmer *et al*., 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2008; Kreuter *et al*., 2010). Interestingly, Mak *et al.* (2017: 1) re-iterate that community participation is an integral cog for sustainable tourism development, as tourism is intricately related to the livelihoods of the local community. It is, therefore, worth noting that a framework to facilitate CBT needs to be developed in Save Valley to facilitate community participation in CBT for poverty alleviation, promotion of sustainable tourism, and developing a win-win contractual agreement (Nyaruwata, 2011: 237) between the conservancy operators in SVC and the impoverished neighbouring communities in the area.

Essentially, therefore, the research proposes the development of a framework to facilitate CBT through the guidance of 'participation and power redistribution theory' (also called the ladder of citizen participation theory) by Arnstein (1969). In support, Mak *et al.* (2017: 1) contend that tourism planning and development is only supported by the local community[7] if the local residents were invited to actively participate in the decision-making process. This would promote the involvement and participation of micro-enterprises involving joint ventures, cooperatives and community-based organisations (CBOs) as the institutions for CBT facilitation in the

[7] The relationship between CBT and community development are hinted by Mnguni and Giampiccoli (2017: 1). The authors view community as individuals with some kind of collective living, responsibility and ability to make decisions through representative bodies. They suggest that CBT and community development are inherently related in that they share the same natural and cultural resources.

region. It is also this dearth of research on a framework for facilitating CBT which gives this study relevance as it fosters local community participation, sustainability, empowerment, and self-reliance as the pillars of community development (Sebele, 2010; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012).

Essentially no research has been conducted in Save Valley that elicited data from both safari operators in SVC and their neighbours in the communal lands to establish convergence of ideas on socio-economic development and environmental conservation issues in the area. Yet there are enormous challenges that threaten to derail the conservation of endangered game species in SVC sanctuary such as the black rhinoceros, elephants and others. The study brings in new knowledge on facilitating sustainable tourism through CBT in local communities located next to rich safari areas for poverty alleviation and wildlife conservation through the introduction of a framework. The proposed framework should represent a shift away from the CAMPFIRE projects on state land the country is well-known for (Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012) where the local people are passive recipients of trickle-down effects from tourism (Sebele, 2010: 143) to one that fosters active participation, empowerment and environmental sustainability.

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to develop a framework of collaboration and participation of all stakeholders for facilitating community-based tourism (CBT) in Save Valley as a strategy to reduce poverty in local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation. The realisation of this aim was facilitated through the achievement of the following research objectives:

1.5.1 Research Objectives

These study objectives give focus to the study by narrowing it down to essential details:

- To examine the types of CBT ventures appropriate for the local communities in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- To explore the types and composition of community-based organisations (CBOs) needed to facilitate CBT in the area of study.
- To highlight anticipated challenges and to CBT ventures and CBOs in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- To explore the conflict obtaining between local communities and the safari operators around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- To develop a framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- Make recommendations that could help facilitate CBT in the SVC.

1.5.2 Research Questions

A research question is a clear, focused and arguable question around which a research is centred (Derese, 2014: 29). Research questions are important because they organise the study into clearly defined parts (Maree and Pietersen, 2007: 3). This study was driven by the following questions:

- What types of CBT ventures can the local communities initiate and participate in to diversify their livelihoods and reduce poverty in and around the Save Valley Conservancy?
- What types and composition of community-based organisations (CBOs) are needed for facilitating CBT as poverty reduction mechanisms in the study area?
- What challenges are likely to affect the success of CBT ventures and CBOs in and around the Save Valley Conservancy?

- What are the kinds and extent of conflict that take place between local communities and the safari operators around the Save Valley Conservancy?
- What is the appropriate framework needed to facilitate community participation in CBT in and around the Save Valley Conservancy?
- What are the strategic actions that could help facilitate CBT around the SVC?

1.6 STUDY AREA

The study was carried out in the Save Valley, a wildlife area, politically administered by Bikita Rural District Council (RDCs), and comprising the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC) and densely populated neighbouring communal areas namely, wards 24, 25 and 26. Each of the wards is made up a number of villages. Figure 1.1 is an illustration of the location of Zimbabwe within the African Continent and the Save Valley within the Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. Bikita District is mountainous, characterised by steep slopes covering about 5 286$\boldsymbol{km^2}$, with the total population of about 162 356 (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, 2012: 2). Bikita Rural District Council (2017) states that 51% of the area is commercial land, with the remaining 49% split between resettlement, small-scale commercial farming and large-scale commercial farming.

The main tourist resort in the region is the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC) subdivided into SVC North and SVC South. The Save Valley Conservancy, Ward 27, (3,442km²) (Figure 1.1) is a 'co-operatively managed' wildlife area comprising multiple properties held by private game ranchers, local councils, international investors and government (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 164). The surrounding communal areas are poor and semi-arid receiving less than 400ml of annual rainfall, with smallholder dryland farming as the main livelihood (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001: 10). The neighbouring communal lands are impoverished and densely populated with

densities ranging between 11 and 82 people per km², and rapidly increasing population due to high natural increase rates (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 163). Figure 1.2 shows the safari farms that make up the Save Valley Conservancy as well as the main economic activities that take place in the conservancy. The safari operators realise economic benefits from trophy fees, daily rates from accommodation and food sales to local and foreign hunters.

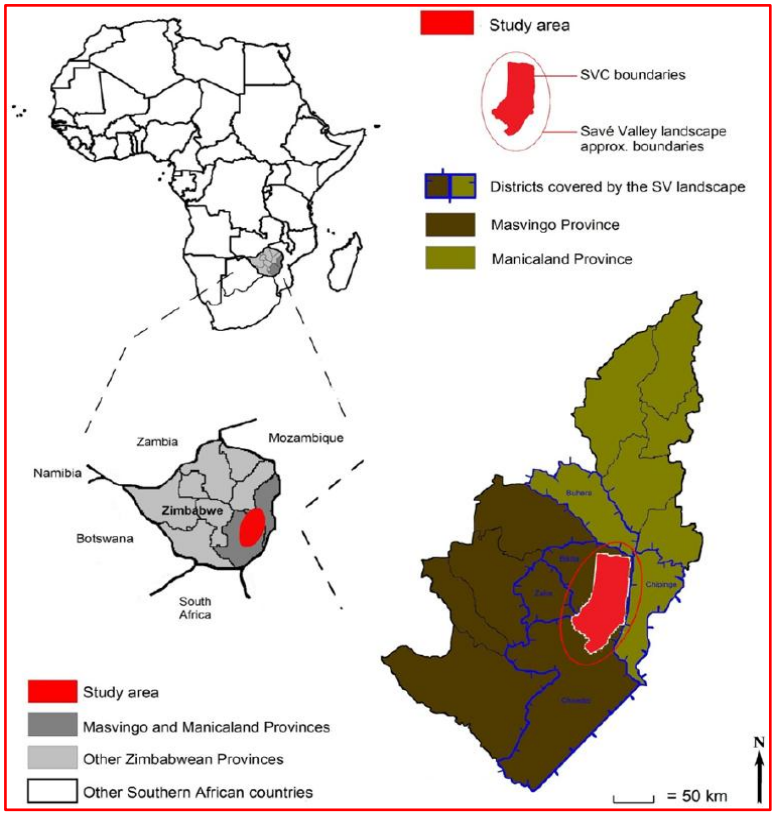

Figure 1.1: Map showing the location of Zimbabwe and the study area
Source: Torquebiau, Cholet, Ferguson and Letourmy (2013: 711)

The residents of adjacent densely populated communal lands are largely smallholder dryland farmers. These people have no alternative sources of income such as CBT and have not benefitted significantly from the tourism resources in the area they are the custodians of (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 167). Consequently, conflict in the form of

human-animal conflict, vandalism of perimeter fences[8], land invasions and bushmeat poaching is rife.

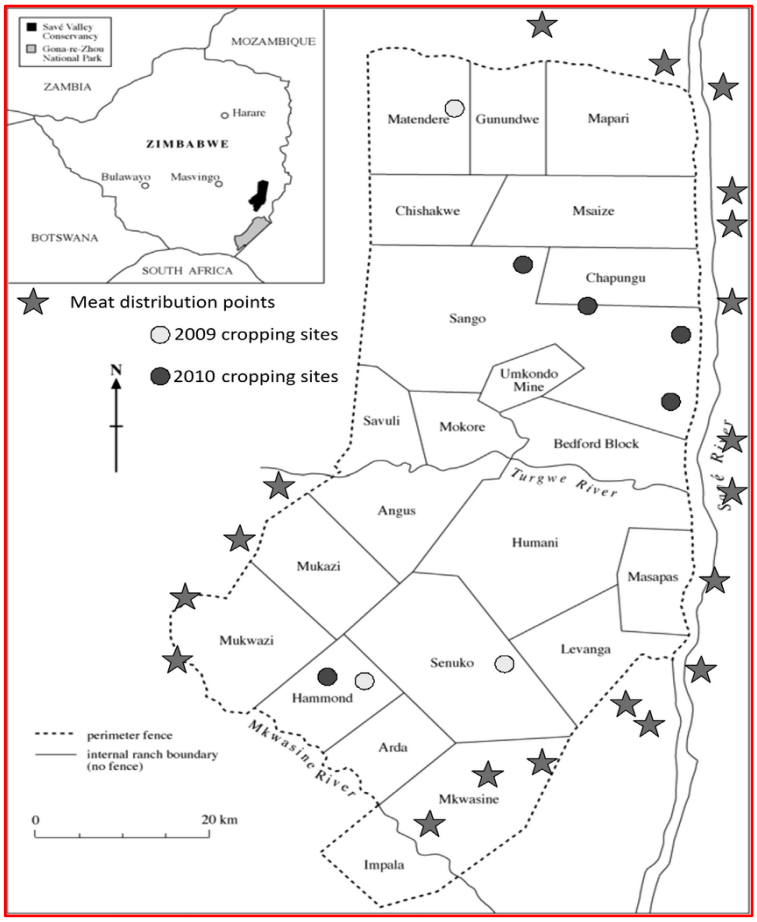

Figure 1.2: Map of Save Valley Conservancy
Source: Lindsey *et al*. (2008: 166)

Such conflict can easily result in biodiversity loss and endangerment of the fragile Save Valley ecosystem (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 175-178). Conflict, tension, and hostility which originated from the colonial period and re-ignited in 2000 have continued (Mombeshora, Mtisi and Chaumba, 2001: 55). This implies that in the long-term term, the support of local communities has become increasingly necessary

[8] The perimeter electric fence of SVC was funded by the Beit Trust on the understanding that land holders would remove internal game fences and contribute to restocking of endangered game such as the black rhinoceros (Lindsey *et al*. 2008: 165).
The fence was criticised for symbolising exclusion of impoverished neighbouring communities by wealthy landowners (Wolmer *et al*. 2003). However, the fence is a statutory requirement for disease control, limits human-animal conflict and bushmeat poaching (Lindsey *et al*. 2008: 171).

to effectively conserve the wildlife (Kreuter *et al*., (2010: 508). CBT is, therefore, the necessary option to reduce poverty in the local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation in the area. Essentially CBT when it was associated with alternative development approaches such as empowerment and self-reliance (Telfer, 2009) suits the context of the Save Valley where impoverished rural communities are juxtaposed to wealthy commercial game ranches.

It is also argued in this study that the distribution of wildlife-related proceeds to the neighbouring villages and communities is an important factor for ensuring the viability and survival of SVC (Kreuter *et al*., 2010: 521). This can be achieved through CBT that fosters active community participation in and beneficiation from tourism coupled with empowerment so that people can diversify their livelihoods and develop a positive mindset towards wildlife conservation. However, as stated earlier, little, if anything, has been done to develop a framework for facilitation of sustainable community-based tourism in this region other than CAMPFIRE projects on state land (Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012, Muzvidziwa, 2013). Figure 1.3 is an oblique aerial photograph of part of the Save Valley illustrating its expanse and wealth as a wildlife habitat.

Figure 1.3: Oblique aerial view of the prime part of Save Valley Conservancy, Zimbabwe
Source: Ufumeli (2014)

It is important to note that most studies conducted in Save Valley concentrated on explanatory approaches articulating the conservation successes of SVC and challenges that threaten the investments and biodiversity loss (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Wolmer *et al.*, 2004; du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Kreuter *et al*., 2010) without recommending any framework for facilitating sustainable tourism such as CBT. It is, therefore, argued in this study that a framework for CBT facilitation in Save Valley would reduce poverty in local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation through the reduction of conflict. In terms of the geographical location, the study area was one selected district in Masvingo province, called Bikita, a rural district in Zimbabwe (Figure 1.4). Respondents in this research were residents of the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC), North located north of Turgwe River and border communal lands to the north and east namely Village 3 in Ward 24, Village 10 in Ward 25, and Village 20 in Ward 26 selected using stratified convenience sampling technique to try and distribute sample selection equitably across all three wards and villages. Households were selected due to accessibility as well as location close to the SVC from all the three wards. These three communal wards share a border with SVC North, the focus area, and have fairly good transport networks, a pre-condition for CBT development.

Figure 1.4: Showing a sparsely populated part of Bikita, Zimbabwe
Source: Kandimire (2019)

Giampiccoli and Saayman (2017: 12) noted that CBT development in poor areas of the Wild Coast is restricted by a lack of transport infrastructure, and further stated that good transport infrastructure, including roads is key for the development of CBT in a region. With that in mind the other two wards (1 and 3), are too remote, and are juxtaposed on SVC South, part of Chiredzi District (out of the scope of this study), and have poor to extremely poor road transport networks, a precursor for CBT failure from the onset, and were, hence, exclusion from the study. Essentially, therefore, results from this research will be applicable to Save Valley and similar wildlife contexts but may not be universally generalised to other contexts.

1.7 KEY CONCEPTS

The title of this research is: a framework for the facilitation of community-based tourism in natural environments. The terms that are defined were taken from the topic and they form the conceptual framework for the study. CBT from conception, was targeted at community participation and beneficiation. For this reason they are added to the conceptual framework of this study. It is important to define these

concepts because of their importance in understanding the study and ensuring that there are no misconceptions. Moreover, this section introduces the reader to the debates and contestations that surround some of these concepts.

1.7.1 Framework

A framework is defined by Collins Dictionary (2018) as a particular set of rules, ideas, beliefs or structure that supports actions aimed at dealing with an identified problem. The Longman Dictionary (2018) defines a framework as supporting parts and system which in the case of this study would be necessary to support the development and implementation of CBT in the SV. Clearly, without a framework, any plan or strategy, no matter how appropriate would fail due to the lack of a support structure.

1.7.2 Community-Based Tourism (CBT)

Suansri (2003: 14) defines CBT as tourism that takes into account environmental, social, and cultural sustainability. It is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn more about the community and their way of life. Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010: 52) conceptualised CBT as tourism that involves the development of poor communities because it is initiated, planned, owned or controlled and managed by the people in the community towards achieving their needs and wants. Lucchetti and Font (2013: 12) concur when stating that CBT is a more sustainable form of tourism that involves community participation with the aim of generating extra income and development for local communities through allowing tourists to visit the communities and learn about the local culture and biodiversity.

According to Harwood (2010: 1910), Goodwin (2017) community-based tourism hinges on the involvement of the host community in the planning, construction, maintenance and management attributes of tourism development, community ownership, management and delivery of wider community benefits. This suggests

that host communities have involvement in, control over or ownership of the processes and outcomes of the tourism in their area. Similarly, Giampiccoli and Saayman (2017: 7) emphasise that CBT should naturally be an indigenous effort and partnership, and should have specific characteristics so that temporary external facilitation and support is necessary. The primary purpose of CBT as a community development and the outcome is provision of development opportunities that distribute socio-economic and environmental benefits that otherwise do not exist across a community (Harwood, 2010: 1911). However, Goodwin (2017), argues that while the ideals are good, CBT lacks success in delivering community benefits and while the conceptual objectives and goals of CBT are widely acknowledge, CEN (2019) acknowledges that tourism and CBT are no panacea for poverty.

1.7.3 Natural environments

As illustrated in Figure 1.3, the Save Valley Conservancy is a natural environment. A natural environment is a state in which all biotic and abiotic things occur in a particular habitat. The Dynamic Nature (2017) regards a natural environment as the whole biosphere which provides the setting for all ecological systems integrating living things and non-living elements. According to the National Geographic (2019) there are three components of the biosphere, namely: lithosphere (solid surface layer of the earth), atmosphere (the layer of air surrounding the earth) and hydrosphere (water), all evident in Figure 1.3. Coppola (2015) refers to the health and vitality of the natural environment and the role it plays in vulnerability to natural hazards, and I might add, the role it plays in the economic development of local communities. The communities of the Save Valley live within and are surrounded by wild life and Matseketsa and Chibememe (2019) argue that human-wildlife conflict occurs around the edges of protected areas causing visible and invisible costs.

1.7.4 Community Participation

Okazaki (2008: 511) defines community participation as a process of involving local stakeholders such as local residents, local government officials, business people and

development planners in a way that leads to shared decision-making. Connell (1997) is of the view that community participation is not only about achieving a more efficient and equitable distribution of material resources but is also about sharing the knowledge and transformation that helps people to develop themselves. According to Abegunde (2009: 237-238) community participation means sharing in decisions about the goals and objectives, what should be done, how and by whom it should be done. The same author further explains community participation as an empowering process which seeks to change behaviour through education, and helps the community to tap into their own resources and skills, that provides communities with the tools they require to develop in the way they deemed fit. The authors provide relevant attribute of community participation adopted in this study.

Abegunde (2009: 237) defines community participation as open, popular and broad involvement of people in a community in making decisions that affect their lives. Abegunde further states that community participation should embrace all stakeholders including: initiators, supporters, and beneficiaries of any development project. It is worth noting that the role of local communities in tourism development is still questionable (Mudimba, 2017) resulting in them remaining in poverty amid thriving tourism economic activities in their areas (Mbatha, 2017). Because tourism development in both developed and developing countries continue without the participation of the local communities (Reid, Mair and Taylor 2011), benefiting only the few vociferous minority who are able to influence decisions (Salazar, 2012). Saayman and Giampiccoli (2015) concur that land owners, the local government and investors determine how they choose to involve local communities. Hlengwa and Mazibuko (2018) observed that while resources such as dams have the power to pool visitors from affluent urban areas to poverty-stricken rural areas for recreation purposes, minimal economic benefits permeating down to the poor local community members.

1.7.5 Facilitation

In this study the term *facilitation* means providing individuals or groups with the necessary resources, opportunities, vocabulary, knowledge and technical skills to increase their capacity to determine their own future, and to participate actively in and positively affect their lives (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017). In terms of CBT as an indigenous effort, facilitation, though long-term but temporary, is performed traditionally, by external players through providing the tools, instruments, technical skills and know-how to the community to achieve their goals. In individual terms, the facilitator is a person whose main duty is to help individuals or groups in achieving their goals. His/her role is limited to providing the necessary methods and tools to the people receiving facilitation in order to make it manageable for them to attain their goals (Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017: 3). This understanding of the term *facilitation* suggests that while facilitators, as external actors in CBT, are critical, the local community members should be the key characters in the management and evaluation of CBT projects. In this study a number of organisations were mentioned for the facilitation roles such as government departments, private sector, NGOs, CBOs, and cooperatives. According to Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017: 4) government departments have an edge over private sector and NGOs because naturally the government is expected to nurture and develop CBT businesses as it is in their interest to do so for purposes of empowerment of local communities and poverty alleviation mandates.

1.7.6 Community Beneficiation

Community beneficiation is a strategy for community development and poverty alleviation through the creation of own business opportunities and jobs (Sibeko, 2013). It is measured in relative terms (depending on who will be making the assessment) of the number of jobs and business opportunities that are generated by the tourism initiatives in the area (Department of Tourism (DT) South Africa (SA), 2011; Sibeko, 2013). In that respect, community-based tourism has been identified

as a key driver of community beneficiation because of its inherent potential for job creation and poverty alleviation attributed to visitor spending that supports local businesses, shops, restaurants, lodges, hotels and recreational facilities that might otherwise collapse, and regeneration of redundant buildings as well as conservation of local bio-diversity and local culture leading to civic pride (DT, 2011; Sibeko, 2013). Ufumeli (2014) argues that the 'wildlife-based land reform' in Zimbabwe was aimed at empowering indigenous black Zimbabweans. However, as pointed out by Reid, Mair and Taylor (2011); Salazar (2012); Saayman and Giampiccoli (2015); Mudimba (2017); Mbatha (2017); Hlengwa and Mazibuko (2018), the CBT benefits originally meant for the local poor communities fall in the hands of the few vocal and influential people, while the majority remain in dire poverty. Ufumeli (2014) listed a few in positions of power that benefitted from the land reform such as provincial governor, former minister of higher education, legislators, major general, colonel, assistant commissioner, brigadier and others.

1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter One: Introduction and orientation to the study

This chapter provided the background of the study, the overall aim, specific objectives of the study and also provided the conceptualization of key terms used in the study such as sustainable tourism; community participation and community-based tourism.

Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework

This chapter provides the theoretical framework underpinning the study. It explores *the participation and power redistribution theory* (also called the ladder of citizen participation theory) by Arnstein (1969) and offers justification for its use to support this study.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

This chapter explores various frameworks used by other countries to facilitate CBT in wildlife areas similar to the Save Valley. This chapter also examines the use,

successes and challenges of using CBT ventures in alleviating poverty and achieving sustainable conservation of wildlife implemented in other countries with contexts similar to Save Valley as well as the various types of CBOs that facilitate CBT.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter discusses the research methodology, design, methodologies and the data collection and analysis methods and techniques used in this study and also provide justifications for the methodological choices made by the researcher.

Chapter Five: Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

In chapter 5 the researcher presents, analyses and interprets both quantitative and qualitative data linking it to the objectives as well as the literature to ensure that the study is threaded through and is meaningful to the reader. In this chapter the polycentric CBT facilitation framework is advanced and discussed as original contribution of the study.

Chapter Six: **Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations**

In this chapter the researcher presents the findings of the study that are aligned to the research objectives. It is also in this chapter that recommendations are forwarded and the study is concluded.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the overview of the study, the context of the study, the research problem and aims, type of inquiry and data collection methods, and the key concepts. The chapter also highlighted the motivational factors which influenced the researcher to carry out this study, and lastly, it also outlined the structure of the thesis. Chapter two introduces the theory that underpins the study and links it to the research objectives.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Innes and Booher (2005:419) argue that community participation in development projects fails due to the ineffectiveness of the government's methods of public hearings, reviews, and comments. Arnstein (1969) on the other hand blames this failure on public lack of power and measures to value their participation. This chapter is used to present and analyse this framework and also explain how it holds the study together by and close the gap identified in the setting of the study as described in Chapter 1. The participation and power redistribution theory (also called the ladder of citizen participation theory) by Arnstein (1969) forms the foundation of this study. The participation and power redistribution theory is used in conjunction with and in comparison to a few traditions of community participation such as top-down and bottom-up traditions, intermediate and the collaboration traditions. The foundational theory is explained, its background introduced and linked to fundamental traditions and, finally its implications for and alignment with the study explained.

The Arnstein (1969) participation and power redistribution theory outlines the facilitation conditions and steps relevant for assessing community participation in programmes meant for their development. Three levels of community participation evolution are identified as non-participation, degrees of tokenism and degrees of citizen power (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). The modified versions of the model incorporate the concept of empowerment (Choguill, 1996). Okazaki (2008: 514) argues that participation is the first step to empowerment and it entails individual's inclusion in an organisation and its organisational decision-making. Essentially, Arnstein's ladder of participation is, therefore, a useful tool in identifying the current

level of community participation in CBT particularly in Save Valley where gaps in community participation and empowerment were identified. Even though this theory is old and criticised for being linear and hierarchical (Collins and Ison, n.d.; Choguill, 1996), it is, nevertheless, relevant to this study which aims to develop a framework for facilitation of community participation and collaboration in CBT in Save Valley, a wildlife area.

2.2 THE PARTICIPATION AND RE-DISTRIBUTION OF POWER THEORY

The theory is made up of two key terms, *participation* and *re-distribution of power*. In this theory *participation* denotes the degree to which people resident in an area play a role in development programmes occurring in or planned for the area that they are the custodians of (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017) while *re-distribution of power* describes the devolution of decision-making responsibility on planned or future development in an area from the authorities and planners to the local people or their elected representatives (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). Arnstein (1969: 216) states that re-distribution of power enables local communities to make decisions about development programmes they want. The theorist further maintains that participation without redistribution of power is hollow and frustrating for the poor.

The theory is also called *a ladder of citizen participation* because its key attributes, *participation* and *re-distribution of power,* are summarised into a typology of eight levels illustrated in the form of a ladder. Arnstein felt that illustrating her theory in the form of a ladder would make analysis of complex issues easier. The theory is not only descriptive and predictive, but also flexible and adaptable to different contexts (Arnstein, 1969; Choguill, 1996; Okazaki, 2008). This theory was chosen to buttress this study because it is a useful tool to gauge the level of current community participation in development programmes planned or occurring in their area and the people's willingness to support and adopt CBT. In addition, the theory is also a useful tool in identifying the current level of community participation in CBT and

defining the steps needed to facilitate and empower the community through CBT (Choguill, 1996; Okazaki, 2008).

Furthermore, the theory is also a useful tool in contexts exhibiting power struggles and conflicts between the authorities, developers and the poor where programmes for poverty alleviation, empowerment and environmental sustainability are contemplated (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). A suitable context identified in Chapter 1 is the Save Valley where discord is rife in the form of human-animal conflict, vandalism of perimeter fences, land invasions since 2000 and bushmeat poaching, loss of biodiversity and endangerment of fragile ecosystem (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 175-178). An appropriate framework guided by the theory would, therefore, defuse the conflict by facilitating community participation in tourism through CBT where people would earn a living while furthering biodiversity conservation efforts.

2.2.1 Background to the participation and re-distribution of power theory

The *participation* and *re-distribution of power theory* is based on Sherry Arnstein's lived experience in America's multicultural society of the 1960s (Choguill, 1996; Okazaki, 2008). Arnstein (1927-1997) was a social worker at a time when racism was a serious social vice during which she worked in several commissions and agencies in Washington, DC, in the 1960s and became Chief Advisor to the Department of Housing and Development (HUD) whose mandate was to address urban issues such as persistent poverty, unemployment, and racism (Arnstein, 1969: 216).

The theory is, therefore, a composite reflection of what she witnessed over many years of working in HUD where she observed city elites, community groups, and federal bureaucrats scramble for power to make the critical decisions to counter persistent poverty, unemployment, and racism (Arnstein, 1969: 219). In essence, the theory contains significant practicalities that can guide development programmes in

regions of mass poverty and deprivation in rural areas in LEDCs today, making it relevant for this study.

The concept of a ladder of citizen participation is simply a metaphor generated by Arnstein to make it simple to understand whether the participation by local people in development programmes was genuine, honest, effective and sustainable, and whether their concerns had the opportunity of influencing the outcomes of decisions (Choguill, 1996; Okazaki, 2008). According to Arnstein (1969: 216) the purpose of participation is re-distribution of power to enable local residents of an area to make decisions about their development, and to distribute costs and benefits fairly. This study argues that participation by the community is an integral part of sustainable tourism development and realisation of many of the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The theory is unique in that it offers an opportunity to promote and measure, in a practical way, the participation of people in sustainable tourism such as CBT (Okazaki, 2008: 511).

2.2.2 Community participation rungs

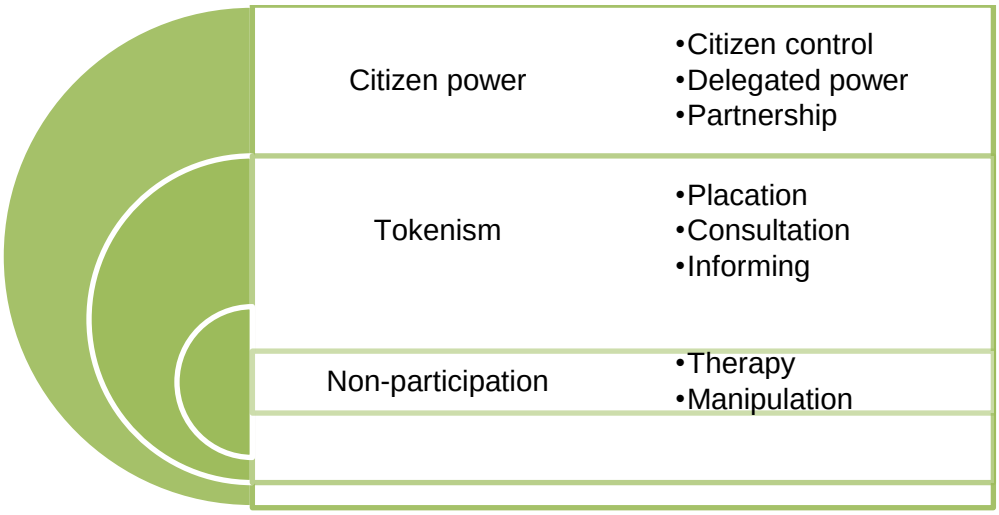

Figure 2.2: Level of community participation and redistribution of power model (Adapted from Arnstein, 1969).

As stated earlier, the original theory identifies three main levels of community participation evolution: *non-participation*, *degrees of tokenism* and *degrees of citizen power* (Figure 2.1*).* The levels are further subdivided into eight rungs (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). Figure 2.1 illustrates the different dimensions of the theory from non-participation, through tokenism up to the desired state of citizen power. Each rung signifies the extent of the community's decision-making power. The lowest level of participation is termed non-participation which is subdivided into *manipulation* and *therapy* (Arnstein, 1969: 216). Simply stated, the first two rungs describe the degree of non-participation as the complete opposite of the desired level of participation. The authorities are focused on participation as a means for public relations and imposing elitist values on local communities (Okazaki, 2008: 513).

The next level is *tokenism* made of *informing,* which suggests that local people are informed of their rights, responsibilities and development options. At this level information flow is exclusionist and top-down, from bureaucrats to the people while the people have little opportunity to influence the decisions on programmes designed for areas which they are custodians of (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). The people have neither the channel to give feedback nor the power to negotiate. News media, pamphlets, posters, and responses to enquiries are used to transmit information to people (Arnstein, 1969: 219).

Forming is followed by *consultation,* which implies that local people are encouraged to air their views. This is a crucial step towards community participation through activities such as opinion polls, questionnaire surveys and public meetings (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). Arnstein (169: 219) reiterates that at this level participation is just a window dressing ritual which does not yield anything beneficial to the residents. The following rung is *placation,* which suggests that the influence of the people in decision making gradually increases but is still largely tokenism (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). At this stage powerful or wealthy people and institutions feel

pressurised and make some concessions to the poor such as offering money, handouts or hand picking some members of the community and including them into local boards without giving away any decision making authority in fear of setting a precedence for the future (Arnstein, 1969: 220). The third level called *citizen power* is made of at rung number six *partnership* which connotes that negotiation is carried out between the local residents of an area targeted for a programme or project, and the power-holders usually local authorities or government thereby redistributing the power and responsibility for planning and decision-making (Okazaki, 2008: 513). At this level community-based organisations (CBOs) assume decision making responsibilities. The theory emphasises that partnership offers people legitimate bargaining power and is most effective when a CBO exists and acting as an organised power base in the community (Arnstein, 1969: 221).

Rung number seven is *delegated power* which by implication means that the local residents assume more substantial authority over decision-making and preside over development programmes in their area. At the crest of the model is *citizen control,* which suggests that full control, responsibility and power for policy and management are given to the local people (Okazaki, 2008: 513). Arnstein (1969: 217) admits that citizen control is rare, and it is difficult for the local people to attain full charge of policy and management of local development needs and programmes. The participation and power re-distribution theory is viewed alongside tested traditions of community participation such as top-down and bottom-up traditions, intermediate and the collaboration traditions.

2.3 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION TRADITIONS

Four fundamental community participation traditions[9] in sustainable tourism development programmes were identified as top-down, bottom-up, intermediate and

[9] In this study the terms tradition and approach are used interchangeably as synonyms to denote commonly adopted policy guidelines in sustainable tourism development.

collaboration traditions. Each of these traditions has advantages and disadvantages for participation, empowerment, poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability.

2.3.1 Top-down Tradition

A top-down approach is a planning and decision making tradition done exclusively by experts and authorities in government or local board as illustrated in Figure 2.2. The people affected by the planned development are only consulted towards the end of the planning process which means that they have no influence in development planning and do not contribute to decision making process at all (UNESCO, 2009: 15). In sustainable tourism a top-up approach speeds up tourism development but it does not always produce positive outcomes for the host communities (Phanumat, Sangsnit, Mitrchob, Keasang and Noithammaraj, 2015) due to the lack of ownership. It is non-participatory and government-led. There is centralisation of planning, authority and decision making as illustrated in Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3.

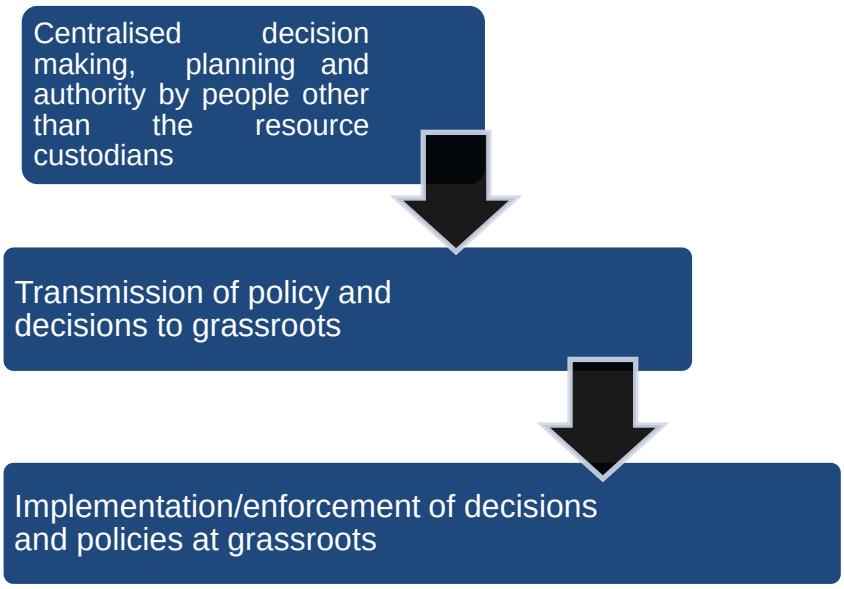

Figure 2.3: Top-down tradition (Adapted from UNESCO, 2009)

The approach ignores the participation of local people and other stakeholders such as NGOs in the tourism development processes. The top-down approach is

characteristic of non-participation and tokenism in Arnstein's theory, the complete opposite of meaningful participation. The top-down approach also applies to the third level of *informing;* suggesting that local people are just informed of their rights, responsibilities and development options. At this level information flow is exclusionist and top-down, from bureaucrats to the people who have little opportunity to influence the programmes designed to benefit them (Arnstein, 1969: 219). The people have neither the channel to give feedback nor the power to negotiate.

2.3.2 Bottom-up tradition

Bottom-up approach to the participation of people in sustainable tourism development programmes is a paradigm or policy option where decision-making is initiated by the local people without external influence (Theerapappisit, 2012: 268). The main characteristic of the approach is decentralisation of decision-making responsibility as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

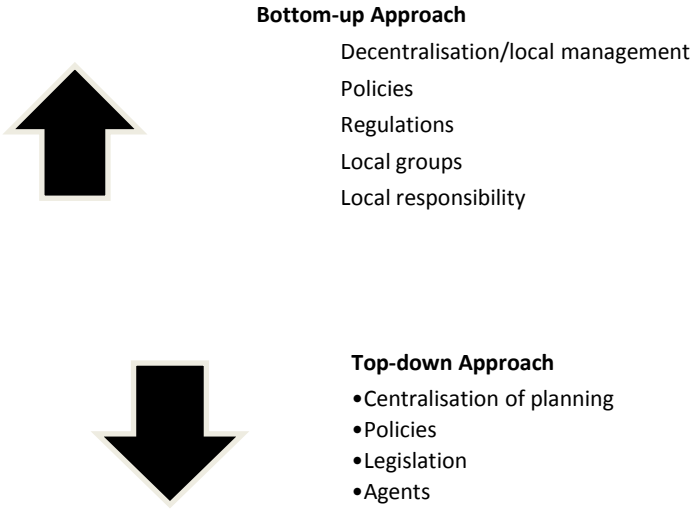

Figure 2.4: Bottom-up and top-up traditions (Adapted from Theerapappisit, 2012)

The implication is that the local community set their own development goals and make decisions about the type of tourism development they desire and how to use and conserve the resources available. The resultant initiatives are consistent with

the local experiences and value systems. There is also strong appreciation of indigenous knowledge systems and popular participation in community programmes (Theerapappisit, 2012: 268). In support, Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017: 6) note that a bottom-up approach is the preferred approach for CBT because it embraces the participation of communities in matters affecting them and acknowledges the significance of their role. This tradition is consistent with the seventh and eighth rungs of *delegated power* which describes that the local residents are given more authority over decision-making and preside over development programmes in their area, and *citizen control which* implies that the local people have full control, responsibility and power for policy making and management (Arnstein, 1969; Choguill, 1995; Okazaki, 2008).

There are definite opportunities and challenges of the bottom-up approach to community participation in local CBT development. Research has confirmed that local leaders and committees play a vital role in encouraging the people to participate in CBT projects (Theerapappisit, 2012; Lucchetti and Font, 2013). The approach also allows local people greater negotiating power and control over tourism development activities by other stakeholders such as safari and tour operators (Theerapappisit, 2012: 281). However, the bottom-up approach falters where the local people may prefer attending to their usual livelihoods such as crop or livestock farming than participate in CBT public meetings (Theerapappisit, 2012: 280). Among the local population education may be lacking thereby creating the need to educate and train younger generation to participate in CBT and community development (Lucchetti and Font, 2013: 2). Lack of access to information by community groups and individuals, poor access to markets and lack fiscal support have also been cited as hindrances to participation in CBT (Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin, 2000; Lucchetti and Font, 2013).

A number of success factors for the bottom-up approach were highlighted in the literature. In the bottom-up approach local participation in CBT planning has been

widely perceived as the key to realising returns from tourism with limited associated problems (Sebele, 2010; Theerapappisit, 2012). On the other hand poverty alleviation has been identified as the greatest incentive for local people to participate in CBT planning (Theerapappisit, 2012: 289). The same author further identifies local leadership as an important factor that affects the degree of local participation in CBT planning in a bottom-up approach. In addition, cooperation in CBT planning between host communities and local NGOs can be used successfully to set down the rules for local development (Okazaki, 2008). Skills development has also been identified as a success factor in bottom-up approach such as in hospitality services, language, management and other skills (Ashley *et al.*, 2000: 2). Stakeholders should also take interest in dealing with conflicts and disagreements (Theerappaisis, 2012: 290).

2.3.3 Intermediate Tradition

This tradition incorporates elements of top-down and bottom-up traditions resulting in dynamic partnerships by reducing the negative effects of each tradition thus ensuring a more meaningful form of participation. Local communities, their leaders and NGOs would decide on the elements of the policy and types of tourism development desirable and then the authorities would formulate policy the way they know how on what the local communities want, involve experts to work together with communities on development projects. They would then develop capacity and skills to run and manage the development and provide ongoing mentorship and support.

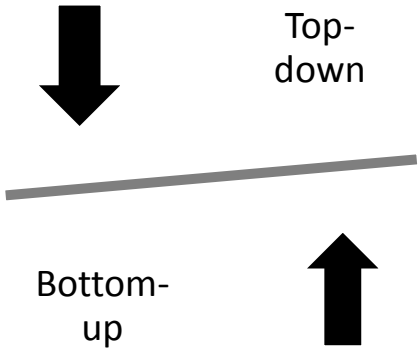

Figure 2.5: Intermediate tradition (Phanumat *et al*, 2015)

2.3.4 Collaboration Tradition

Collaboration approach to community participation in socio-economic development has been popularised in CBT planning and development (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008; Phanumat *et al.*, 2015; Kayat, 2014). According to this approach CBT planning needs to be integrated with all other on-going planning for socio-economic development of the community (Okazaki, 2008: 514). Collaboration[10], therefore, implies that CBT destination planning and development must not occur in isolation but as an interactive system within a large tourism market and overall local development agenda (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 186).

Collaboration in CBT is vividly discernible at the sixth level of Arnstein's theory, where partnership[11] is the main attribute that fosters negotiation between the local residents of an area targeted for a project and the power-holders usually local authorities or government, private sector and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) thereby redistributing the power and responsibility for planning and decision-making (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008) (as illustrated in Figure 2.5). At this level CBOs assume decision making responsibilities. Arnstein (1969) emphasises that partnership or collaboration offers people legitimate bargaining power and is most effective when CBO exists and acting as an organised power base in the community (Arnstein, 1969: 221). For example, in Thailand Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA) works as an intelligence unit to create appropriate CBT working environments and reduce barriers of implementing a collaborative approach for multi-stakeholders (Phanumat *et al*., 2015; Kayat, 2014).

Notwithstanding its potential value in community inclusion in decision-making about the type of development the people desire, collaboration approach to CBT

[10] Collaboration as a business concept has been defined by Jamal and Getz (1995: 187) as a process of making decisions jointly among key stakeholders in the community about a certain problem domain or the future of the business domain. The same authors further characterise collaboration as a process in which the stakeholders are independent; the solutions emerge by constructively dealing with differences and there is joint ownership of the resultant decisions. The stakeholders naturally assume collective ownership of the direction of the domain of development such as CBT.

[11] In this study partnership and collaboration are taken as synonymous terms used interchangeably.

destination planning has not received wide coverage, and its application is still at infancy (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Phanumat *et al*., 2015). However, the approach has been acknowledged as a dynamic and process-based mechanism worthwhile in resolving planning challenges and coordinating CBT destination development (Okazaki, 2008: 514). In essence, collaboration approach to CBT destination planning has potential effectiveness in resolving conflicts and advancing shared vision in an area where the stakeholders recognise the advantage of working together (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 187).

Phanumat *et al.,* (2015: 917) concur with Jamal and Getz when arguing that the collaboration approach balances the power between the parties involved in CBT to create a win-win contractual situation and devolves decision making responsibility and benefits to the local people. These advantages are consistent with CBT development which involves interdependence of stakeholders who maybe individuals, groups or organisations. In essence, when using the collaboration approach decisions are made jointly by stakeholders who remain autonomous by retaining their independent decision-making powers (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 188) to avoid conflicts and lack of willingness to participate (Phanumat *et al.*, 2015: 918) in meetings or projects.

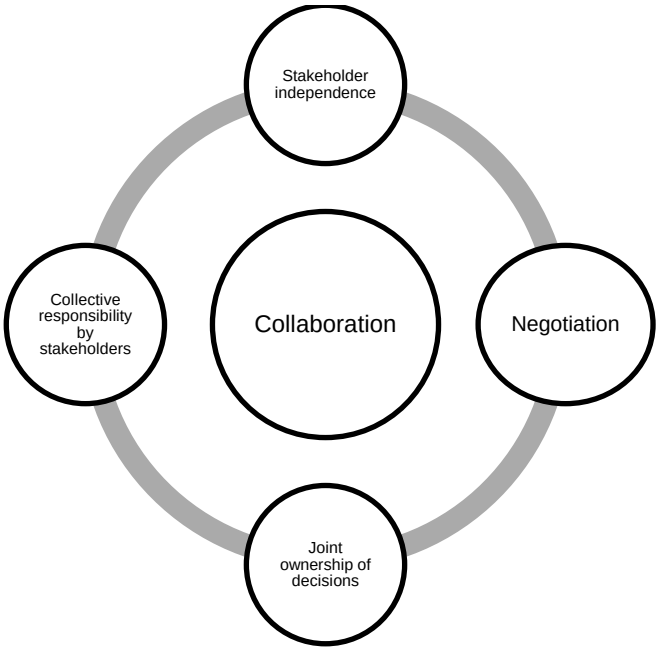

Figure 2.6: Characteristics of collaboration tradition (Adapted from Okazaki, 2008)

The collaboration approach to community participation in development programmes has many characteristics as illustrated in Figure 2.5. Jamal and Getz (1995: 189) suggested that in the collaboration process the stakeholders should be independent with solutions emerging by dealing with differences and decisions that are jointly owned while all stakeholders[12] assume collective responsibility over development decisions. However, market forces, competition and, institutional forces (such as legal action and social norms) may stimulate or hinder collaboration (Okazaki, 2008; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009).

The facilitation of CBT destination planning and development is complex and cross-cutting, making collaboration the appropriate approach. Collaboration is also

[12] Stakeholders in CBT are all the individuals who have interest in and/or are affected by tourism development and biodiversity conservation. These people should participate in planning processes from the early stages. They include neighbours and local communities, farmers and ranchers, hoteliers, restaurant owners, tourist guides, tour operators and tourism agents, local business people, local authorities, NGOs, educational institutions, research centres, visitors and media (UNESCO, 2009: 15-16).

essential for safe-guarding benefits and resolving tensions and conflicts among various stakeholders (Okazaki, 2008: 514) as illustrated in Figure 2.5. Collaboration in CBT cross-sectoral destination planning and marketing has been recommended and attempted to reduce turbulence in the sector and increasing the likelihood of sustainability (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008). Also, for effective collaboration there is need to recognise the interdependence of stakeholders in the tourism sector through sharing of amenities and resources, attraction of tourists, and marketing of tourism destinations as a package (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Kayat, 2014) as illustrated in Figure 2.6.

On the other hand fragmented and independent CBT planning decisions by various stakeholders create power struggles and conflict over resources. Jamal and Getz (1995: 197) recommend that the government or local authority can play a vital role in promoting collaboration by the various stakeholders in the sector including non-governmental organisations (NGOs). For effective collaboration to occur a convener of the CBT stakeholders is needed to facilitate and initiate projects. The convener should have expertise in CBT, legitimacy, authority and/or resources (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 198). The convener is important at the problem-setting stage, and should identify and bring together all key stakeholders to the negotiating table. Local representation has been widely recommended for the post of convener because it reduces the tokenism associated with referendums and surveys often conducted by local development planners (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009).

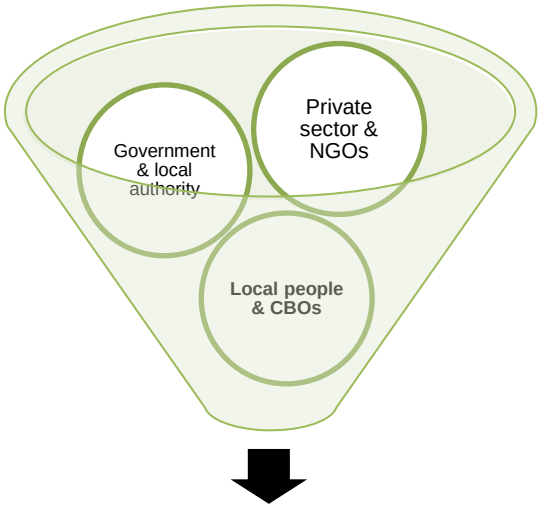

Figure 2.7: Collaboration of stakeholders in destination planning and development (Source: Adapted from Jamal and Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008)

Jamal and Getz (1995: 198) suggested that if local people feel that they can exercise control over their development process, resistance to tourism development in their area fizzles out. Therefore, membership to the local community is a source of convening power together with experience in holding a formal office, and reputation of trust and absence of bias (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 199). In this regard, the study recommended CBOs to play the role of convener to facilitate and initiate CBT destination planning, marketing and development to achieve socio-economic and environmental sustainability in impoverished wildlife areas of the Save Valley.

2.4 CORE PRACTICES OF THE THEORY

The participation and redistribution of power theory and the linked traditions applicable to sustainable tourism such as CBT discussed in this chapter are summarised in Figure 2.7. It was then possible to identify two core practices which include community participation and community beneficiation, defined in chapter 1, which dovetailed into key CBT core values that include empowerment, poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability as illustrated in Figure 2.7.

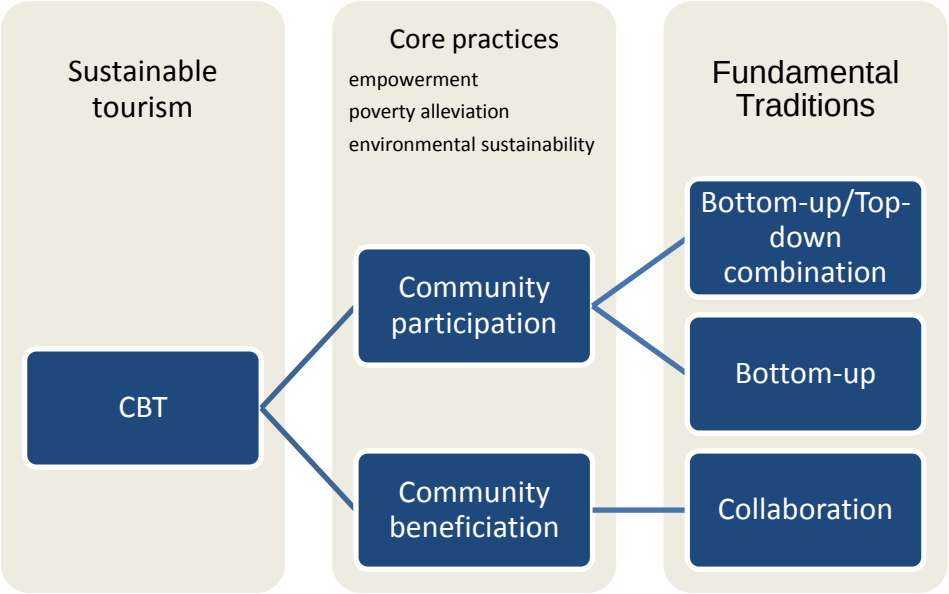

Figure 2.8: Model of sustainable tourism (Adapted from Okazaki, 2008)

The top-down tradition was excluded from the model because the approach is non-participation and tokenism (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). According to Figure 2.7 facilitating CBT community participation and beneficiation are engendered which yield viable and sustainable benefits to the people, mainly empowerment, poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability thus aiding the attainment of SDGs as discussed in the subsection that follows.

2.4.1 Community Participation

The Department of Tourism (DT), Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2011: 22) in its blueprint; the *National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS),* identifies community participation (Figure 2.7) through bottom-up or collaboration or partnerships as a critical success factor or the basis for implementing sustainable tourism. This widely shared viewpoint in the literature conforms to the sixth rung of Arnstein's theory, where partnership is the main attribute that fosters negotiation between the local residents of an area targeted for development, government and developers. According to Abegunde (2009: 237) community participation means sharing in decisions about the goals and objectives, what should be done, how and by whom it

should be done. The same author further explains community participation as an empowering process which seeks to change behaviour through education, and help the community to tap into their own resources and skills through provision of relevant and appropriate development tools. Abegunde (2009: 237) defines community participation as open, popular and broad involvement of people in decisions that affect their lives by embracing the initiators, supporters, and beneficiaries of any given development projects. Tosun (2000: 615) defines community participation as a form of voluntary action in which people confront opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship.

The opportunities of such participation may include self-governance, responding to decisions made by authorities that impact on their lives, and working together for mutual good. In essence, community participation shifts power from those who made majority decisions to those who traditionally had power to make decisions. Mak *et al.* (2017: 1) reiterate that community participation is inherently essential for sustainable development of tourism, as the industry has close links with the livelihoods of the local community. DT (RSA) (2011: 22) in its blueprint NTSS, explains that visitors look for great experiences only achievable if the various partners in the tourism sector collaborate.

Sebele (2010: 137) asserts that the participation of local people in tourism ensures that visitors enjoy great tourism experience while also enabling the community to derive meaningful economic benefits from the visitors. Situations where organisations involved in tourism activities, do not cooperate to enhance the impact of their collective activities create unhealthy competition, lack of interdependence and conflict. Essentially therefore, community participation should be seen as a mechanism for sustainable development as it enables the creation of a true sense of belonging and ownership among members of the community. In other words community participation should be seen as a development strategy based on

community resources, needs and decisions, and a tool for educating the local people in rights, laws and good governance (Tosun, 2000: 615).

2.4.2 Community beneficiation

Community beneficiation is a term widely used in sustainable tourism development to describe the extent to which the community realises socio-economic development and poverty alleviation through job creation and local business opportunities from tourism initiatives in the area (DT, 2011; Sibeko, 2013; Kayat, 2014) using either the bottom-up or collaboration approach (Figure 2.7). This understanding is shared by The Mountain Institute (2000: 6) that CBT should focus on value-addition, building natural and cultural assets around existing livelihoods leading to extra income for the local population, and incentivisation for biodiversity conservation. It is measured in relative terms (depending on who will be making the assessment) by the number of jobs and business opportunities that are generated by the tourism initiatives in the area (DT (SA), 2011; Kayat, 2014).

The main objectives of community beneficiation are captured in the SDGs as capacitation and empowerment, inclusive economic growth through creation of employment and business opportunities and protection of natural, cultural and heritage resources. The DT (SA) (2011) in its tourism blueprint called the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) identifies community beneficiation as an underlying strategic and cross-cutting priority to attain competitiveness in tourism. The concept is attainable where there is active participation by the beneficiary community through influencing the direction and execution of a development project in the hope of enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, employment and self-reliance (Apleni, n.d: 2). According to the participation and power redistribution theory community beneficiation would reside in the higher rungs such as at partnership, delegated power and citizen control.

2.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THEORY TO THE STUDY

The participation and redistribution of power theory is that participation by the community as an integral part of sustainable tourism engenders devolving power to local people to make choices over matters affecting them and having opportunities to manage their affairs (Mak *et al*., 2017; Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). On the other hand community beneficiation entails to capacitate and empower the community, grow the economy, create employment and business opportunities for local people, reduce poverty, and protect the environment, culture and heritage of the community (Sibeko, 2013; Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ), 2017). The theory is, therefore, unique in that it offers an opportunity to facilitate and measure community beneficiation and the participation of people in sustainable tourism such as CBT (Okazaki, 2008; Mak *et al.,* 2017). By envisaging a scenario of 'a ladder of citizen participation' as contained in the theory, it is argued in this study that empowerment, poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability are attainable core values for local communities in wildlife areas such as the Save Valley. In essence, it is logical to propose a facilitation framework for CBT as an essential vehicle for sustainable tourism core practices (community participation and beneficiation) because of its capacity to generate sustainable socio-economic and environmental benefits to the local communities while also reducing the negative consequences of tourism (Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan and Luloff, 2010; Mak *et al.,* 2017).

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the participation and power redistribution theory in conjunction with four community participation traditions. The various levels of the ladder were equated with the four community participation traditions as crucial elements of sustainable CBT. It is clear from this chapter that community based tourism cannot be sustainable and yield community benefits desired for the attainment of SDGs for 2030 such as ending poverty and hunger, promotion of healthy lives, promotion of sustainable and inclusive economic growth through productive employment, reduction of inequality within countries, promotion of biodiversity conservation and

sustainable development if it excludes the custodians of the land where such development takes place. Even though the theory is old, it is versatile enough to apply to modern life contexts. The participation and power redistribution theory is relevant to this study which seeks to develop a framework to facilitate CBT in the wildlife area of the Save Valley in south eastern Zimbabwe. Chapter 3 allows experts in the field of tourism development, particularly CBT to enrich the study by sharing their experiences and views regarding the problem under investigation as stated in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature on the historical development of CBT, types of CBT ventures and frameworks, the role of CBOs as facilitatory institutions for CBT, and factors affecting community-based tourism as a form of sustainable tourism in less economically developed Countries (LEDCs). While LEDCs use tourism as a tool to involve local communities in the mainstream economy and assist in combating poverty, the positive relationship with poverty reduction has not been convincingly established and thus it is still being questioned as only a few studies have attempted to measure the actual contribution of CBT to community development (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2014; Bhartiya and Masoud, 2015; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). The World Travel and Tourism Council (2016) notes that tourism contributes 9.8% to the world GDP, and employs 7 times more people than the automobile industry and creates 1 of every 11 jobs worldwide, and it has become one of the most critical forces shaping the world's economy (Binns and Nel, 2002:235).

Even in Zimbabwe tourism contributed about 10.4% to the GDP in 2014, making it one of the most important economic sectors (WTTC, 2015). In addition, globally, within the general tourism sector, smaller forms of tourism such as community-based tourism (CBT) are becoming increasingly relevant in LEDCs because they endorse strategies that favour greater benefits and control by local communities (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 174). Suansri (2003:11) reiterates that CBT is not just a profit-making tourism business, but rather, it is more concerned with the apparent impacts of tourism on the community and environmental resources.

All these viewpoints have generated the perception that CBT is better placed to advance socially and environmentally sustainable tourism for promoting holistic community development and redistribution of decision-making power and resources (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2014: 1668) in spite of apparent pessimism by Blackstock (2005: 41) who accuses CBT of dragging the community into supporting tourism through an illusion of sharing power yet they are not sufficiently empowered to reject tourism as a development option. Interestingly also, Theerapappasit (2012: 268) cautions that finding a suitable balance between the resources needed for tourism development and conservation of resources at tourism destinations is a difficult task for development planners, while Hlengwa and Mazibuko (2018) propose a systems and actor-network approach to community participation in tourism development where all stakeholders are involved all along the process allowing information and rhythms to flow across to allow 'cross-pollination' to take place.

Furthermore, it has been argued that the cash benefits from CBT are modest and often received by a small proportion of the community and, that many reports fail to distinguish between revenue and profit, and cost-benefit analysis is often lacking (Kiss, 2004; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Mizal, Fabeil and Pazim, 2014). It has been noted that without sufficient external assistance community members only realise token economic benefits such as employment in menial positions rather than more wide-ranging economic benefits, such as equity in companies or training for skills development (Scheyvens, 2002; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). In addition, some scholars still doubt the economic and financial sustainability[13] of CBT without external funding from donor organisations, as governments do not seem to be interested in funding this sub-sector (Lapeyre, 2010; Mizal *et al*., 2014). On the other hand Goodwin and Santilli (2009: 4) have questioned the actual success of CBT in contributing to either community livelihoods or conservation. The authors further argue that for the poorest local communities engagement in CBT is rather prohibitive

[13] In CBT financial sustainability implies the viability of CBT micro-enterprises activities and their ability to be maintained in the long term (Dangi and Jamal, 2016: 4).

as they cannot be distracted from their usual subsistence activities, causing little success for most ventures. In support, Sebele (2010: 144) cites the lack of managerial, entrepreneurial and marketing skills as hindrances for economic sustainability for CBT projects.

However, the wealth distribution attribute of sustainable tourism creates a precursor for CBT literature in view of this apparent core value, as guided by the participation and re-distribution of power theory, the underpinning theory of the study (Chapter 2). The core values of the theory adopted in this study are empowerment, poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability. In that regard, Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017: 2) argue that CBT is supported for purposes of environmental protection, poverty reduction and community development. The chapter therefore, reviews the literature on the frameworks for the facilitation of CBT in LEDCs aimed at promoting micro-businesses operated by local people living in wildlife areas or remote rural areas in contexts similar to Save Valley such as homestays, lodges, handicrafts, cultural heritage, and micro-enterprises through joint ventures or cooperatives.

3.2 THE HISTORY OF CBT

Community development[14] was introduced as an approach to rural development during the 1950s and 1960s. The concept was popularised by the United Nations (UN) in the same era as many LEDCs gained their independence and were decolonised (Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017; Sebele, 2010). In the same period community participation was being promoted by United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the World Bank with the aim of promoting the participation of locals in decision-making, and sharing of benefits (Blackstock, 2005; Telfer, 2009; Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). The concepts of community development and community participation were embraced in tourism in the 1970s,

[14] Community development is defined as the process whereby the efforts of the government, NGOs, and/or other organisations are united with those of the local residents to improve the social, cultural, and economic conditions in the communities (Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017: 3).

while CBT was an offshoot of the community development and community participation agenda of the 1970s (Blackstock, 2005; Telfer, 2009; Mak *et al*., 2017). The concept of CBT can, therefore, be traced back to the 1970s when it was associated with alternative development approaches which were concerned with issues beyond strict economic reasoning, such as community empowerment for self-reliance (Telfer, 2009; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). As a result CBT schemes in many LEDCs have raised significantly high optimism among international development agencies which spearheaded the projects (Lucchetti and Font, 2013: 2). However, CBT has been criticised for lacking the transformative intent of community development (Blackstock, 2005: 41). In the 1980s CBT can be found in works by Murphy (1983; 1985).

In this decade CBT was referred to as *a sine qua non* of alternative tourism for countering mass tourism in LEDCs and helping poor rural communities in those countries to attain local development, community participation, empowerment and capacity building (Kayat, 2014; Dangi and Jamal, 2016). The CBT concept later arose after the Earth Summit in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro in accordance with the principles of Agenda 21[15] (Suriya, 2008: 2). Giampiccoli and Kalis (2012: 174) argue that the original concept of CBT should be seen as part of sustainable development paradigm, made famous by the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987), aimed at linking economic empowerment, self-reliance and environmental sustainability. Since then the CBT concept has become increasingly relevant in LEDCs because it endorses strategies that favour greater benefits and control by local communities[16] (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). For example, the communities of the Mediterranean and Caribbean Islands have been found to be enjoying new found economic prosperity

[15] Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry acknowledged the potential of ecotourism (nature-based and low-impact tourism) for attaining sustainable development (Dangi and Jamal, 2016: 4).
[16] In this study local or neighbouring community describes the population that lives in communal lands that lie adjacent conservancies where the common border is the perimeter electric fence. These communal lands are divided into wards 24, 25, 26 and 27.

because of promotion of CBT based on natural attractions and tourism-oriented facilities (Binns and Nel, 2002: 235).

However, the concept of community-based tourism (CBT) often means different things to different people (Ndlovu and Rogerson, 2003; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2015). Boonratana (2010: 280) retorts that in Thailand CBT is referred to by several terms used with neither distinction nor agreement. Similarly, Giampiccoli and Kali (2012: 175) assert that some of the definitions of CBT vary considerably from one another. In addition, pessimists have argued that local control does not automatically translate into participation in decision-making because local decision-making depends on who is in power at the local level (Kiss, 2004; Blackstock, 2005). It is further argued that even if local consensus on CBT is realised, few poor communities can successfully defend their vision against regional, national, or global tourism players with vested interest in making maximum profits (Tosun, 2000; Kiss, 2004; Blackstock, 2005). In spite of these contestations in definition and credibility, CBT was developed to focus largely on issues of empowerment of the community which subsumes community development, capacity building, local control and ownership, local business enterprise growth and sustainable local livelihoods, environmental sustainability and poverty reduction (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Tresilian, 2006; Goh, 2015; Dangi and Jamal, 2016). Therefore, the literature on CBT reveals that the building blocks and core values of CBT include empowerment, environmental sustainability and poverty alleviation which are in alignment with the participation and power redistribution theory which buttresses this study.

3.3 CBT FRAMEWORKS AND ENTERPRISES

A framework is essential to enable CBT planners and managers to understand the criteria that ensure sustainability because CBT has rarely received proper facilitation (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). CBT ventures must be fully owned, managed and run by the community itself with benefits accruing directly to members of the community (Manyara and Jones, 2007; Mtapuri and

Giampiccoli, 2014; Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). Inevitably, CBT occurs when supported by the local community and when it takes a participatory bottom-up or collaboration approach (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Musasa and Mago, 2014, Mak *et al*., 2017). In this study the proposed framework represents a shift away from the state-sponsored CAMPFIRE projects on state land that Zimbabwe is well-known for (Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012) where communities are passive recipients of trickle-down effects from tourism (Sebele, 2010: 143), to the one where all role layers' capabilities, skills and resources are 'stitched together' in the form of natural flows 'between heterogeneous elements' found in one location (Hlengwa and Mazibuko, 2018) such as the Save Valley.

There are several facilitation frameworks adopted by many countries to ensure community empowerment, poverty alleviation, social and environmental sustainability which are the core values of the participation and power redistribution theory (Chapter 2). The typology of facilitation frameworks is based on the types of enterprises local communities participate in willingly to diversify their local economy and the role played by external actors such government agencies and NGOs to facilitate and empower them. This study identifies and explores CBT enterprises common in the literature namely homestays, micro-enterprises, culture and handicrafts, and wildlife based CBT which are individually or group-owned through joint-ventures or cooperatives. The study also investigated the potential of CBO to provide an enabling environment for CBT to contribute meaningfully to the livelihoods of locals.

The literature notes that the homestay CBT aims, not only to provide alternative accommodation to niche market tourists, but also to provide the visitors the opportunity to participate in routine activities of the host community while also exchanging knowledge, culture and experiences (Suansri, 2003; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen, and Duangsaeng, 2015; Salley, Othman, Nordin, Idris, and Shukor, 2014) as it is the case in well-developed ASEAN countries. In wildlife areas such as in

Uganda, Namibia and Botswana, CBT has been promoted by facilitating community participation in wildlife conservation as a livelihood. In this study the literature of facilitation frameworks was selected from countries where there has been a significant or at least a semblance of CBT development in local areas. In Thailand and Malaysia CBT is dominated by homestay programmes. Suansri (2003: 10) noted that in Thailand the influence of mass consumerism had caused degradation and destruction of natural resources needed as local community livelihoods. As such, in both countries there is a thin divide between homestay and CBT. In African countries CBT enterprises tend to be based on wildlife and cultural resources such as in Namibia, Botswana, Uganda, South Africa and Zimbabwe.

3.3.1 The homestay or lodge programme

The accommodation sector is crucial for tourism success because it forms an important support product to destinations. Essentially, the majority of CBT initiatives in many regions are based on the establishment of community-owned and managed lodges or homestays (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009: 4). Henama (2012: 76) is of the view that accommodation should precede any other type of tourism development at a destination. Rogerson (2015: 120) maintains that domestic tourists[17], who represented a niche market for CBT as they had higher spending power than their rural counterpart, had higher preference for lower-priced or medium quality accommodation such as lodges or homestays. An understanding of how homestay CBT ventures have been facilitated elsewhere in the world and in Africa would inform this study in formulating an appropriate facilitation framework of similar CBT accommodation ventures in Save Valley, Zimbabwe.

[17] Domestic tourism describes a seamless mix of a variety of forms of discretionary travel by local people associated with everyday leisure activities and others akin to work. It represents spatial distribution of the spending power and mingling of people of diverse social cultural backgrounds and, 80% of the world tourism flows (Rogerson, 2015: 120).

Studies carried out in south-east Asia have shown that the homestay programmes have been widely adopted as part of a framework for CBT in countries such as Malaysia and Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.,* 2015; Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010). Consequently, in Thailand the terms homestay and CBT are synonymous suggesting widespread adoption (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009: 282). Homestay holidays began in Europe in the late 1970s. In Australia, homestay holiday is called farm tourism (Salley *et al*., 2014; Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.,* 2015). In both Australia and Malaysia the homestay concept is associated with the provision of sleeping space, breakfast and participation in activities with family operators (Mapjabil, Ismail, Rahman, Masron, and Ismail, 2015: 2). The homestay concept is known by other terms such as farm stay, cultural stay, guest house, bed and breakfast, self-catering and others. Essentially, the homestay programme is applauded in the literature for its apparent contribution to employment creation (Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010: 18).

Studies have also confirmed that homestays appeal significantly to tourists seeking novelty, personalised service, and genuine social interactions with host communities (Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.,* 2015; Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010). Similarly, in South Africa small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs) have taken up the bed-and-breakfast niche travel and tourism market (Rogerson, 2008: 333). In Ghana small accommodation businesses are largely family owned and operated more or less like homestays (Mensah-Ansah, 2014: 2).

Therefore, a homestay could be defined as the experience of tourists living together with a selected host family while interacting and experiencing the day to day life of the family, including their culture and lifestyle (Ibrahim and Razzaq, 210; Mapjabil *et al*., 2015). Essentially, therefore, homestays can function as vehicles for development by broadening awareness among rural communities in managing natural resources such wildlife and promoting the distribution of incomes among the local people thereby reducing the leakage of economic benefits (Salley *et al*., 2014; Mapjabil *et al.*, 2015) by utilising residential space for profitable uses (Yusof, Ibrahim,

Muda, and Arnin, 2012; Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.,* 2015). The homestay as a form of CBT has been popularised in south-east Asian countries and elsewhere because it creates significant opportunities for potentially vulnerable groups such women, the youth, and elderly people, to improve their socio-economic lives through tourism thus contributing to achievement of SDG Goal 1: to end poverty, Goal 5: gender equality and empowerment of women and girls, Goal 8: promotion of inclusive and sustainable economic growth and productive employment for all, and Goal 17: to strengthen the means of implementation through revitalisation of partnerships for sustainable development. The homestay is regarded as an affordable business that requires minimal capital investment such as mattresses, pillows, and mosquito nets and other items affordable by most rural village homes (Suansri, 2003: 18).

Table 3.1: ASEAN Homestay Facilitation Framework

Regulation	Homestay Standards	Homestay Products	Entrepreneurs skills
Residential location	• Easily accessible • Local lifestyle • Pollution free	• Scenic environment, • Historical sites/ monuments, • Handicrafts, • Cultural activities and music, • Traditional dances and ceremonies, • Food and drinks • Story-telling	• Leadership, • Personality, • Integrity, • Knowledge • Social network • Good health • Trained • No criminal record • Ongoing refresher workshops • Experience from formal local businesses
Facilities	• Suitable size • Separate visitor rooms • Proper ablutions well maintained • Supply of mosquito nets/coils, towels, meals		
Cleanliness	• Clean home • Rubbish free		
Safety	• Insurance cover • Fire prevention		
Food preparation	• Proper storage and handling • Proper waste disposal		
Equipment and appliances	• Appropriate types • Clean		

(Adapted from Mapjabil *et al*., 2015; Kontogeorgopoulos *et al*., 2015; ASEAN Secretariat, 2016)

Malaysia, a member of the ASEAN organisation, provides a case study of CBT homestay which may guide facilitation of similar enterprises elsewhere such in the Save Valley, Zimbabwe. In Malaysia the homestay programme was officially launched in 1995 and significant increases in international tourist arrivals and revenue were experienced (Yusof *et al.,* 2012; Salley *et al.,* 2014, Mapjabil *et al.,* 2015). A village homestay is operated under licence by individuals or groups of certified operators in communal areas (Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010). The Ministry of Tourism and Culture issued guidelines which participating villagers follow such security, cleanliness, basic infrastructure, accessibility, attractive landscape, and interesting products such as food, handicrafts, culture, traditional dance and others (Yusof *et al*., 2012; Salleh *et al*., 2014). Table 3.1 shows the facilitation framework for homestay CBT used in ASEAN countries.

Literature has cited homestay products to include scenic environment, historical sites or monuments, handicrafts, cultural activities and music, traditional dances and ceremonies, food and drinks (Yusof *et al*., 2012; Mapjabil *et al*., 2015). Homestay entrepreneurial skills cited in the literature include qualities such as leadership, personality, integrity, knowledge, social network, good health and no criminal record (Salley *et al*., 2014; Mapjabil *et al*., 2015; ASEAN Secretariat, 2016). In Malaysia the foreign markets for homestays were tourists from Japan and Korea while domestic tourists consisted mostly of students who used homestays as venues for workshops (Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010: 12). In this framework there is a semblance of a dynamic and process-based mechanism worthwhile in resolving planning challenges and coordinating destination CBT development (Okazaki, 2008: 514) by setting the standards or pre-conditions for success suggesting an intermediate tradition.

A number of challenges have been discussed in the literature that undermined the homestay programme in Malaysia and other ASEAN countries such as manipulation of local people by leaders or rich tourism operators, lack of willingness, high demand

exceeding qualifying homestays, middlemen who charge more, training and certification requirements (Salley *et al.,* 2014, Mapjabil *et al*., 2015). The literature suggested that the constraints reflected the prevailing socio-political, economic and cultural structures of countries where tourism development is often beyond the control of local communities. In addition, the structural and operational standards set by authorities generally tend to limit community participation in tourism in general (Tosun, 2000: 613). Salley *et al*., (2014: 407) recommends a move away from the intermediate tradition to collaboration tradition involving networking among stakeholders such as homestay operators, government and the private sector to further improve homestay programmes. In this regard, through collaboration, legitimate and autonomous stakeholders in the community participate in joint decision-making on issues pertaining to CBT development (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 187). On the other hand, through networking the community involved in CBT develops inter-organisational interdependencies through establishing linkages to promote the flow of resources, goods, and information, and problem-solving (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 188).

Another example is Mpondoland, South Africa, where village-based homestays and community-owned lodges were launched with little success because of lack of external facilitation (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 183). Again, in South Africa bed and breakfast CBT SMMEs faced constraints related lack of collaboration with external facilitation such as lack financial support to upgrade accommodation facilities, no access to market information, inadequate infrastructure, lack of Internet advertising and poor business managerial skill (Rogerson, 2008; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018); Chili and Mabaso, 2016). The implication is that impoverished conditions of remote rural CBT enterprises posed practically serious development and sustainability challenges (Rogerson, 2008) hence the need for a collaboration tradition that will rope in external facilitators. Therefore, a framework meant to facilitate accommodation or homestay CBT should take cognisance of these challenges to ensure success and sustainability of these ventures.

3.4 NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS

Since pre-historic times human beings have depended on natural ecosystems for the provision of valuable goods, food, water, cultural and recreational benefits, and many more (Narain and Orfei, 2012: 1). More importantly, the increase in human population pressure and economic activity accentuated loss of wildlife habitats which cascaded into biodiversity losses (UNWTO, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012). Presently the world's most wildlife rich regions are located in LEDCs mostly within protected areas. These countries often lack the capacity to enforce conservation of these nature reserves such as national parks and conservancies. Moreover, the local people living next to the protected areas are often very poor, and bear the largest share of the opportunity cost of the establishment of the wildlife conservation areas in the form of restricted access to land and natural resources, crop damage due to straying wildlife, or inadequate compensation for losses (Frost and Bond, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012).

Nature-based tourism was born out the desperate need to attain the twin objectives of conservation of the natural environments and sustainable development (UNWTO, 2007). In this study nature-based tourism is taken to mean tourism whose main aim is the viewing or enjoyment of the natural environment's provisions such as hiking, photography, bird-watching, or safaris (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Frost and Bond, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012). For that reason, it has been argued that nature-based tourism could be an effective approach to enable local communities to receive sufficient economic benefits that could act as incentives to discontinue consumptive land uses such as habitat conversion into croplands, forest harvesting, and bushmeat poaching (Kiss, 2004; Narain and Orfei, 2012). Essentially, the development needs of the local communities adjacent to protected areas like conservancies could be met from the income generated from nature-based tourism such as wildlife-based CBT. It is within this context that wildlife-based CBT and the attended facilitation framework is reviewed in this section.

3.4.1 Wildlife-based CBT

In natural environments such as national parks or conservancies wildlife-based CBT ventures and facilitation frameworks have been modelled differently motivated to reduce the exploitation of plants and animal species, and reduce poaching when sufficiently provided with high and widespread benefits[18] to make up for the deficit from the existing sources of livelihoods like agriculture, hunting etc. (Kiss, 2004; Narain and Orfei, 2012). Millions of rural people worldwide depend on biodiversity resources for livelihoods and incomes (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 4; Shackleton *et al.,* 2007; Mugyenyi *et al*., 2014; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015). The consumers of handicrafts and forest products such as traditional mats, hand brooms, wood or stone carvings, marula beer and other products include tourists, local people and urban dwellers (Shackleton, Shanley and Ndoye, 2007: 700).

The Save Valley in Zimbabwe, Caprivi in Namibia, Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, Uganda, and Khama Rhino Sanctuary in Botswana are some of the case studies where communities and wildlife conservation have been studied. It is hoped that the literature on wildlife CBT ventures in Africa would, therefore, inform the formulation of an appropriate participation and collaboration facilitation framework to foster the development and enhancement of CBT ventures in Save Valley that will afford the local communities opportunities for active participation to achieve local empowerment and poverty reduction while also contributing to wildlife conservation in the Save Valley Conservancy.

In Zimbabwe community-based tourism is casually subsumed under the Communal Areas Management Programme For Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme, a top-down approach, which promotes passive participation of people living in villages next to wildlife and protected areas managed by Rural District

[18] It has been argued that even substantial economic returns from CBT may not lead to conservation support or action while in some cases people may redirect the proceeds to expanding basic activities like agriculture thereby threatening biodiversity (Kiss, 2004: 234).

Councils (RDCs) (Frost and Bond, 2007; Muzvidziwa, 2013). The inception of CAMPFIRE followed the passing of the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act, later amended after independence, which granted private land owners and rural communities the rights to hunt, capture and sell animals (Frost and Bond, 2007: 777). The programme was designed to promote long-term development, management and use of natural resources such as wildlife resources in communal lands to support livelihoods. In the programme the principle was that 50% of proceeds from the sales would be paid to the local communities to build new schools, wells and health clinics (Frost and Bond, 2007; Nyaruwata, 2011; Muzvidziwa, 2013).

CAMPFIRE was funded using donor finances from USAID, Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD) and UK Department for International Development (DFID) (Wolmer *et al*., 2004; Kreuter *et al*., 2010). Although CAMPFIRE, a model wildlife-based community-based ecotourism (CBET) in southern Africa, attracts much public and academic interest globally, many studies have shown that no significant CBET income ever gets to neighbouring communities to alleviate poverty and improve perceptions towards biodiversity conservation (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Wolmer *et al*., 2004; Kreuter *et al*., 2010, Nyaruwata, 2011). It is, therefore, clear in the literature that in spite of the huge initial funding and promised socio-economic benefits to poor communities, CAMPFIRE has not afforded the local communities in wildlife areas decision making power to initiate and run typical CBT ventures. Apparently, some scholars have asserted that rural communities should not be treated like passive recipients of the consequences of rural tourism development as this makes it more difficult to enforce conservation policies (Andrade and Rhodes, 2012; Dragulanescu and Drutu-Ivan, 2012). In agreement, Kiss (2004: 234) points out that, incentives in return for wildlife conservation may be misconstrued for entitlements regardless of whether CBT was succeeding or conservation objectives were being achieved (Arnstein, 1968; Okazaki, 2008).

Literature has also revealed that in Save Valley and other wildlife areas in Zimbabwe that are managed for game viewing, hunting and photographic safaris, no typical CBT models were ever implemented on any meaningful scale (du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Muzvidziwa, 2013) due to the lack of a framework. Many of these conservancies in southern Zimbabwe have just developed weak linkages with their neighbouring indigenous communities along CAMPIFRE using both the top-down approach to conservation and the chaotic and often violent land reform programme since 2000 (Muzvidziwa, 2013: 46). However, opportunities for handicraft, employment and selling of vegetables are acknowledged in the literature (du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008).

It is this agonisingly clear dearth of research on frameworks to facilitate CBT in depressed communities on state-owned lands and private sector dominated economies that gives this study relevance as it aims to foster a collaboration tradition which promotes local community participation, sustainability, empowerment, and self-reliance as the pillars of community development (Sebele, 2010; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012). The framework serving as original contribution of the study represents a shift away from the state-sponsored CAMPFIRE projects on state land where communities are passive recipients of minimal benefits from the private sector (Sebele, 2010: 143). This framework is justified because research has shown that local communities were more inclined to comply and commit themselves to long-term conservation strategies when their opinions and indigenous knowledge were integrated into protected areas' decision making processes, with power delegated to them (Frost and Bond, 2007, Kreuter *et al*., 2010; Mugyenyi *et al.,* 2014; Wyman, Barborak, Inamdar and Stein, 2011). In addition, local communities need to be the focal points of long-term planning and management of CBT with the aim of contributing to community development at village or community level if the UN's Sustainable Development Goals mean anything to LEDCs.

A similar scenario is exhibited in rural Wild Coast in Eastern Cape Province where most of the CBT SMMEs were economically struggling although the area is naturally scenic with vast potential for tourism (Rogerson, 2008: 335) because of lack of collaboration between role players. In Amboseli, Kenya, competing and conflicting land-uses as well as human-wildlife conflicts were causing biodiversity loss thereby necessitating adoption of community-based conservation through the Wildlife Act, 2014, in which local people derive economic benefits from lodges and camp sites (Kipleu, Mwangi, and Njogu, 2014:78). This would enable local communities to value natural resources around them to ensure sustainable and continued supply.

Another case study illustrating the collaboration tradition comes from Caprivi, Namibia, where legislation was passed in 1996 which gave communities rights to wildlife and other natural resources prompting the formation of CBT ventures based on community conservancies within the national vision which proposed the use of tourism as a vehicle for Namibians to transform from natural resource exporters to foreign currency earners (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014: 7). Yet the lack of a supporting framework for policy implementation and the limited understanding among the rural communities regarding CBT rendered the policy ineffective (Halstead, 2003:5). To this end Wyman *et al.,* (2011: 921) recommended that in conservancies and other protected areas CBT enterprises should be developed and supported through offering contracts to local entrepreneurs or reserving leases and hunting concessions to local bidders. As far back as 2003, Halstead (2003: 8) noted that in Caprivi CBT enterprises were initiated as part of CBNRM but with minimal success. The facilitation of wildlife-based CBT requires NGOs, private operators (some of whom should be locals) and, government not to dominate, but to collaborate with community representatives to mitigate human-animal conflict, market conservancies, develop handicraft making skills and manage natural resources (Halstead, 2003; Sebele, 2010; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2014).

Bwindi Impenetrable National Park in Uganda, world-famous for its mountain gorillas, provides another interesting case study of CBT programmes facilitated by government in a top-down approach. Originally Bwindi Impenetrable Forest was the source of livelihoods for local people providing them with resources such as bushmeat, honey, basketry materials and building materials (Mugyenyi, Amumpiire, and Namujuzi, 2014: 1). In 1994 an incentive scheme of sharing revenue with adjacent communities was muted as an intervention strategy to improve the welfare of the local people and resolve resentment and conflicts. This was probably consistent with a principle that biodiversity must pay for its conservation by generating income for local people (Kiss 2004: 232). In a clear case of tokenism (Arnstein, 1969) local communities were being incentivised for perceiving natural and cultural resources as assets for the community that deserved protection and conservation, and not threats to agriculture (Kiss, 2004; Tresilian, 2006). The facilitation approach in Uganda was characteristic of non-participation and tokenism (Arnstein, 1969) led by the government or local authorities. There was centralisation of planning, authority and decision making. Despite several increases in the percentage of community share of the park entry revenue as an intervention strategy, poverty levels remained high in local communities, poaching for bushmeat and other unauthorised resource use continued, and complaints of limited share of the gorilla revenue were rife (Mugyenyi *et al*., 2014: 6).

Top-down approaches were reflected elsewhere in Africa where local authorities were not keen on equitable distribution of the financial returns from tourism resources while efforts at resolving conflicts using the official top-down approach have always yielded little success (Lindsey, du Toit, Pole and Stephanie, 2008; Mombeshora and Bel, 2009; Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012). According to Sebele (2010: 143), the dominance by bureaucrats and local elites in ecotourism led to resentment thereby defeating the conservation goal of the wildlife sanctuary. Some scholars even asserted that rural communities were not supposed to be treated like passive recipients of the trickle-down effects of rural tourism development (Zapata *et al*., 2011; Dragulanescu and Drutu-Ivan, 2012; Mtapuri and

Giampiccoli, 2014; Dangi and Jamal, 2016). In support Nyaupane and Poudel (2011: 1348) argue that local people do not desire to be labelled in a way that depicts them as primitive, helpless and miserable.

Therefore, these case studies expose the weaknesses of the top-down approach to CBT development, and helps to inform future frameworks, and raises the need for identifying viable micro-enterprises based on natural resources in the area to establish a sustainable balance between income generation and conservation of wildlife in (Mugyenyi *et al*., 2014: 8). Kiss (2004: 232) suggests that biodiversity must pay for its conservation by generating income for local people. This observation is consistent with the consensus in the literature that neighbouring communities need to be the focal points of long-term planning and management of CBT aimed at contributing to community development at village level (Kreuter *et al*., 2010; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012).

In Botswana tourism was viewed as one focus area for community participation because of its significant contribution to employment and Gross Domestic Product rated second after diamonds (Sebele, 2010; Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011). To emphasise this viewpoint, Botswana Tourism Policy also placed much emphasis on collaboration, local participation and beneficiation in the tourism sector. This policy framework was based on the scholarly view that unless local people were empowered and participated actively in decision-making and ownership of tourism enterprises, tourism would not achieve the desirable outcomes (Sebele, 2010: 137). An example from Botswana is the Khama Rhino Sanctuary operated by a CBO called the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) set up to promote rural development based on a bottom-up approach through CBT and wildlife conservation (Sebele, 2010: 138). The only benefits that accrue to the local communities are in the form of jobs as guides, cleaners, drivers, or casual labourers (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Sebele, 2010).

The framework has a recognisable interdependence of stakeholders in the tourism sector expressed through sharing of amenities and resources, attraction of tourists, and marketing of tourism destinations as a package (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 196). This translates into a collaboration approach where the local people, as key stakeholders, assume increased power or leadership to influence decision-making (Theerapappasit, 2012: 268). The framework was designed to ensure sustainability in the generation of extra income to the community to alleviate poverty while also ensuring that the conservation of wildlife agenda was furthered through community participation in decision making. Kayat (2014: 5) proposed a theoretical collaboration framework for CBT in remote rural areas where sustainable resource conservation was just as important as socio-economic and political empowerment as shown in Figure 3.1.

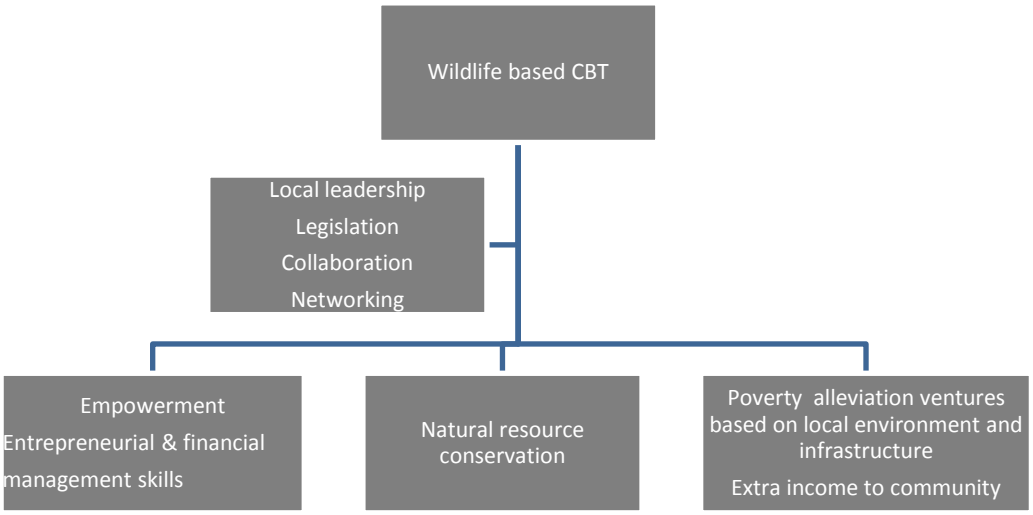

Figure 3.1: Framework for facilitating CBT in poor rural areas (Adapted from Kayat, 2014)

The collaboration approach is emphasised between the local people, NGOs and government in areas of marketing of CBT, skills development and conservation of natural resources. Local leadership or representative is recommended for a position of convener because it reduces the tokenism associated with referendums and surveys often conducted by local development planners (Arnstein, 1969; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). This study recommends a framework with similar traits that fosters a direct linkage of local livelihoods and biodiversity

conservation scenario focussing on developing interrelationships between local communities, local leaders, safari operators and NGOs in the Save Valley.

3.5 OTHER CBT FRAMEWORKS

Some of the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals such as Goal 1: to end poverty, Goal 5: gender equality and empowerment of women and girls, Goal 8: promotion of inclusive and sustainable economic growth and productive employment for all, and Goal 17: to strengthen the means of implementation through revitalisation of partnerships for sustainable development, can be achieved through meaningful involvement and participation of local communities in socio-economic development initiatives in the areas where they live. Other CBT ventures include small, medium, and micro enterprises that support tourism facilities at destinations such as making of pillows, mosquito nets, handicrafts and other cultural products, vegetable growing, cleaning companies, suppliers of meat and milk, etc.

3.5.1 Micro-enterprises (SMMEs)

It has been argued widely that the goal of capacity building is to afford empowerment to those who have less economic and political power to lessen their dependency on the government and NGOs by providing new technical, leadership, entrepreneurial and problem-solving skills (Halstead, 2003; Frost and Bond, 2007; Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). This was viewed as achievable through adopting a pro-poor, collaboration growth approach which addresses improvement of conditions of the local communities by supporting SMMEs[19] and providing the necessary financial capital through micro-credit programmes (Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018; Scheyvens, 2007; Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011).

[19] Tourism SMMEs are defined as those businesses that function specifically in the three sub-sectors of the travel and tourism industry namely accommodation, hospitality, and travel distribution (Nieman, Visser, and van Wyk, 2008).

Nyaupane and Poudel (2011: 1355) documented successful facilitation of CBT SMMEs in their study conducted around Chitwan National Park, Nepal where CBT ventures were established around the national park buffer zone by local people which included bee-keeping, fisheries, veterinary services, fruit and vegetable production, nature guide, and hotel operations. Furthermore, training programmes were conducted to enhance the livelihoods of local communities including the youth and women in technical fields such as painting, sewing, and candle making. Locals produced supplies such as chickens, eggs, vegetables and fish, and handicrafts which were sold to hotels, restaurants and tourists (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011: 1355). This case study informed the framework for facilitating CBT in the Save Valley, where SVC is the main tourism attraction. In South Africa black-owned CBT enterprises began when the country was into the global tourism economy following the demise of apartheid. This paved way for township tourism[20] which provided potential for CBT development (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016). SMMEs dominated in the niche tourism markets such as accommodation by supplying backpacker, cultural accommodation and guesthouses (Rogerson, 2008: 334).

An expanding group of local entrepreneurs who ran CBT with little prospect for significant income or employment expansion was observed (Rogerson, 2008: 335). According to the case study, the CBT SMMEs, in their thousands, were located in urban townships and remote rural areas across the entire country offering a wide range of products and services to clients, and were owned by some of the poorest members of the communities without collaboration with external facilitators (Roberson, 2008: 335). The author further observed a racial imbalance in the ownership of CBT SMMEs in South Africa with research revealing that black-owned CBT SMMEs were confined spatially to the apartheid-designated spaces of townships and rural areas. It has also been noted that until 2000, South Africa had

[20] Township tourism is supposed to draw visitors to the sites of significance to anti-apartheid as well as improving visitors understanding of issues of poverty and deprivation of historically oppressed communities of townships and provide opportunities for local entrepreneurs to enter CBT business (Chili and Mabaso, 2016: 202).

no coherent facilitation or support for CBT SMMEs. Facilitation for the establishment of CBT enterprises came after the establishment of the poverty relief project by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) in 2005 leading to a facilitation framework illustrated in Figure 3.2 (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016).

As shown in Figure 3.2, Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP) provided assistance to historically disadvantaged black CBT entrepreneurs in the form of funds, creating attractive tourism products, and marketing services (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016). This facilitation framework for SMMEs demonstrates the importance of private-community partnership in a collaborative approach. Elsewhere in similar contexts, such as in Namibia, the role of SMMEs was described as marginal, although they constituted the largest segment of the tourism industry (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014: 1). Kiss (2004: 235) reiterates that private-community partnership and joint ventures were essential for raising capital, bringing business and marketing expertise, land and indigenous knowledge together in what Hlengwa and Mazibuko (2018) would call a system-actor-network fashion.

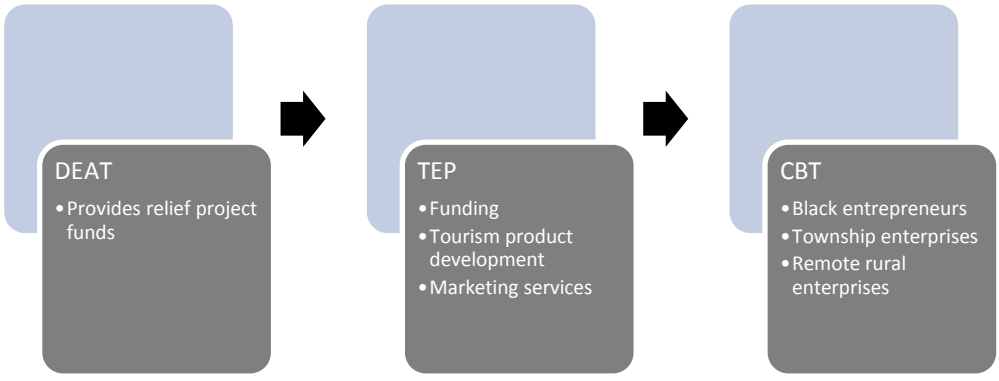

Figure 3.2: Facilitation framework for CBT SMMEs in South Africa (Adapted from Rogerson, 2008)

The literature noted that CBT SMMEs faced constraints such as lack of financial support to upgrade accommodation facilities, lack of access to market information, inadequate infrastructure, no internet advertising, poor managerial skills, and power and dominance of established tourism firms (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016). South Africa offers an example where study showed that the role of micro-enterprises in poverty alleviation is inhibited to a degree by the weak social networks and the unequal power distribution among stakeholders (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017: 5). Effectively, the South African experience offered a useful case study in facilitating the emergence of poor-owned CBT SMMEs which could be enhanced through a framework that fosters a direct linkage of local livelihoods and biodiversity conservation scenario by focusing on developing interrelationship between local communities and conservation to form a mutually beneficial relationship, and creating buffer zone programmes and ecotourism ventures (Scheyvens, 2007; Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011) was proposed for CBT development in Save Valley.

3.5.2 Handicrafts and other cultural products

In the context of CBT, handicrafts and local cultures were treated as intertwined and inseparable. To justify such a scenario Rogerson (2011: 11740) asserts that handicrafts and cultural products as CBT were an important source of income in many parts of southern Africa. In addition, handicrafts have been described as an integral part of the tourism experience as they attracted tourists because they represented exotic culture and tradition (Mustafa, 2011; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015). Among development planners there was also high optimism that CBT based culture and handicrafts manufacturing and marketing could generate both employment and extra income for participating families including women and youths as crafts formed important shopping items for tourists (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Mustafa, 2011; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015).

Interestingly, it has been observed that while the income from the sale of handicrafts may be minimal, it remained very important for any poor community (Makhado and

Kepe, 2006: 497). Rogerson and Rogerson (2011: 11736) concur that craft production increased the sense of dignity and well-being of women in underdeveloped regions, a scenario that suits the Save Valley, the study area. It has also been noted that in South Africa handicrafts have been promoted as part of the local economic development Initiative (LDEI) (a bottom-up approach) designed to counter the failure of top-down government approaches to combat unemployment and poverty by providing inclusivity and cooperation between local communities and various stakeholders (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 2). Technically, handicrafts are made from locally available natural resources, and include pottery, wood carving, embroidery, basketry, mats and many more. In essence, handicrafts form an integral part of the travel and tourism SMMEs of any economy.

In the literature it has been demonstrated that NGOs play a fundamental role in assisting local craft communities through skills training and marketing of wares, access to credit and business training such as Jordan River Foundation in Jordan which was established to initiate economic projects for women (Mustafa, 2011: 148). In South Africa (SA) NGOs have been promoting handicrafts production since the 1980s (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 4). In addition, through its Industrial Action Plan, SA government identified the handicraft sector as a strategic economic sector that contributed to economic growth and alleviation of poverty and deprivation (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011: 11737). The authors further explain that the aim of government was to create a market-driven handicraft industry with linkages between the crafters and markets. This case study also helped to inform the development of a CBT framework that included handicraft SMMEs in the Save Valley.

It has also been suggested that little capital was usually required to enter into a handicraft business thus enabling the poor and marginalised communities to participate in the economy (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 4). The other advantage noted in the literature was that the handicraft sector required little or no infrastructure with some workers operating at or from their homes (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011). In addition, local handicraft production was credited for promoting the maintenance of cultural heritage thus contributing to sustainable

tourism (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011: 11736). Other advantages commonly cited included the use of locally available materials, application of simple traditional skills and technology passed on from generation to generation (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Mustafa, 2011; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015). For instance, in Malaysia handicrafts were started by people who resided in villages and who had extensive traditional knowledge (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 5). These advantaged helped to inform the inclusion of handicraft SMMEs in the CBT facilitation framework for the Save Valley in Zimbabwe. The literature has also cited government support as a critical success factor for CBT particularly in promoting traditional skills and craftsmanship, marketing and export of handicrafts (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015). The authors further noted the dominance by women, the majority of whom lacking formal education. Nyawo and Mubangizi (2015: 5) describe handicraft people as risk-takers, innovative, and capable of recognising opportunities. These attributes also informed the formulation of a CBT facilitation framework for the Save Valley (see Figure 5.18).

This study reviewed the South African framework for handicraft CBT. The facilitation framework essentially adopted a collaboration approach between government, crafters, and other development partners. The handicraft sector was classified under SMMEs within the creative industries regarded as important for employment creation for disadvantaged and marginalised communities in the country's peripheral rural areas described as the poorest of the poor (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Rogerson, 2014). There is also uniqueness in the framework in that through the 2010/11-2012/13 Industrial Action Plan the handcraft sector was classified as a strategic sector, something that was non-existent in other southern African countries in similar poverty situations (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011: 11740). Such innovations on CBT facilitation informed in part, the formulation of a framework for the Save Valley.

Apparently, the rural areas of SA received the attention of central government on tourism promotion as part of economic growth and employment creation (Rogerson,

2014: 19). To that end, SA government established departments after 1994 that facilitated handicraft CBT such as the Department of Trade Industry (DTI), the National Department of Tourism (NDT), the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA), and Community Tourism Organisations (CTOs). The South African example illustrated how opportunities to economically revitalise poor rural areas that suffered from poverty and deprivation such as the Save Valley. DTI, for example, has programmes to facilitate handicraft CBT called Enterprise Investment Programme (EIP) while NDT has its programme known as Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP) (Rogerson, 2007; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011). Furthermore, CATHSSETA's main thrust is skills development through the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) III it launched in 2011 to promote and fund research projects in national skills needs in the subsectors including CBT (DEAT, n.d). Essentially, each of the departments and programmes have well-defined facilitatory activities for handicraft enterprises as summarised in Figure 3.3 which confirms that government support was critical for the success of CBT (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lucchetti and Font, 2013). The SA case study was used to inform the inclusion of government support in the facilitation framework for the Save Valley.

Much has been said about local culture which has been described as a tourism attraction and a resource upon which CBT development could be established (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 173). Culture was portrayed in handicrafts purchased as souvenirs, song and local dance, practices and traditions. The promotion of local cultures needed to be intertwined with community development (Rogerson, 2008; Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). Essentially, in the literature local culture was regarded as the springboard for community development which, in the context of indigenous communities, only made sense when implemented within the indigenous cultural traditions that respect local knowledge (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 178) as cultural villages were tourism products targeted at alleviating poverty in rural areas (Rogerson, 2008: 335).

The challenges for handicrafts widely cited in the literature included difficulty in finding markets for products, competition from cheap imitations and mechanically massed produced products, lack of financial resources, low skill levels, and lack of information about the export market (Mustafa, 2011; Rogerson, 2011; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015). In their study Nyawo and Mubangizi (2015: 8) observed that 90% of handicraft workers in Mtubatuba Local Municipality, SA, had low levels of education. Other commonly cited challenges were that handicrafts from natural resources were often undervalued, and production had negative impacts on the environment (Arzuza and Giuliani, 2014: 3).

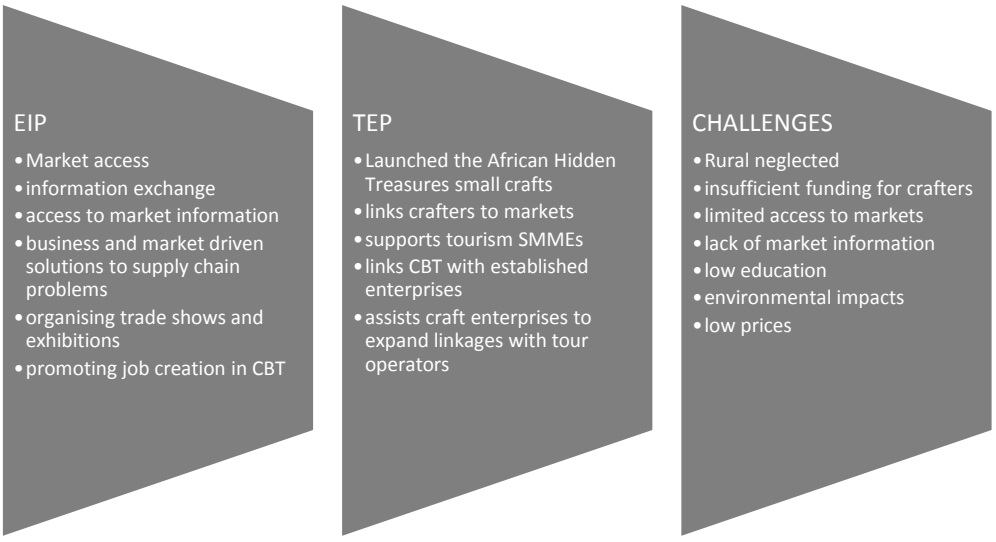

Figure 3.3: SA facilitation of handicraft CBT (Adapted from Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011)

3.6 THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATIONS (CBOs)

There is a general consensus in the literature that CBT should occur when supported and understood by the local community and when it takes a participatory collaboration or bottom-up approach (Abegunde, 2009; Giampiccoli and Nauright 2010; Theerapappasit, 2012; Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). To this end CBOs play vital role in broadening the base of delegated power, self-governance as well as

diffusion of power in the local population. CBOs[21], as voluntary, non-profit and highly localised institution whose objective is to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community, play a significant role as facilitators and supporters of CBT planning together with other external players such as government and NGOs (Abegunde, 2009; Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010; Theerapappasit, 2012; Ali and Ali, 2014; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014).

Local organisations need to influence public policy on tourism for them to succeed in their duty (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 214: 4). In support, Toyobo and Muili (2008: 144) argue that local communities participate actively in development because of realisation that central government was unable to meet their every need. Studies have shown that the villagers' willingness to participate in CBT was related to the influence CBOs (Abegunde, 2009). Essentially, villagers have been found to trust their traditional leaders like headmen, local committees, and their representatives who voice their needs to local authorities through a bottom-up approach (Toyobo and Muili 2008; Abegunde, 2009). In addition, local organisations could be utilised in order to facilitate CBT in a better way (Theerapappasit, 2012; Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). Community leadership has been emphasised as a key success factor for collaborative approach to CBT and building community capacity for tourism development (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012: 182).

Success stories of CBOs facilitating community development projects have been cited in Nigeria (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Abegunde, 2009). Activities of CBOs include fund-raising for community projects, financing community development projects, giving loans, planning projects, developing infrastructure and, conflict resolution. In other words, CBOs cushion the local community against the effects of poverty and speed up socio-economic development (Toyobo and Muili, 2008;

[21] CBOs are voluntary organisations or movements because membership is dependent on individual choice such as women's groups, cooperatives, and neighbourhood branches of political parties. They are formed to solve the most pressing problems a community faces. Funding is their principal constraint (Toyobo and Muili, 2008: 145).

Abegunde, 2009; Ali and Ali, 2014). Research has also shown that the collaborative and partnership role of CBOs lowers the risk of failure of CBT entirely initiated and owned by the community as well as acting as the tourism committee that ensure local management and empowerment (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Halstead, 2003; Kiss, 2004; Dodds, Ali and Galaski, 2016). Besides providing adult education and skills training to members, CBOs have been found to be capable of luring external funding from NGOs and government to further empower the local communities and unlock their socio-economic opportunities for the future (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Lapeyre, 2010). In the context of the Save Valley, committees comprising safari operators and residents of neighbouring communities were proposed with the aim of coordinating regular meetings that would also draw in politicians and other leaders (Lindsey *et al*., 2008).

Therefore, through a collaborative approach between CBOs, members of CBT ventures and external facilitators such as government agencies and NGOs, a relationship emerges that recognises the local members as custodians, owners, managers, and beneficiaries of the CBT enterprises eventually resulting in long-term sustainability even after the facilitators have left the scene of the business venture (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017).

3.7 CHALLENGES TO CBT

The sustainability of CBT ventures has been doubted (Lapeyre, 2010: 1) because of numerous hindrances. These hindrances to CBT development in poor areas has been classified in many ways (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lapeyre, 2010; Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2015; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017). This study adopts a hindrance classification focused on the context of the Save Valley such as those that stifle local participation, those that destroy the tourism resource, and those that create anxiety and lack of willingness to participate. Destructive practices that hinder CBT include land invasion, conflicts, bushmeat poaching and other activities that erode biodiversity, mainly due to the lack of alternative sources of income (Lindsey *et al*., 2008). Stifling factors include legal, regulatory and other institutional arrangements which make it

difficult for poor local people to penetrate and participate in tourism development (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Wolmer *et al*., 2004; du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Kreuter *et al.,* 2010; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018). Challenges that cause anxiety and lack of willingness to participate in tourism development include socio-economic constraints such lack of capital and financial support, lack of markets, opportunity costs of CBT, and lack of entrepreneurial skills in the community among others. Goodwin and Santilli (2009: 4) retort that the great majority of CBT ventures enjoy very little success. Therefore, an understanding of the challenges that hinder success of CBT initiatives will inform the formulation of a facilitation framework for CBT in Save Valley that minimises failures and increases the life expectancy of the ventures.

3.7.1 Destructive Practices

Destructive practices by local communities in wildlife areas threaten the viability of CBT (Lindsey *et al.*, 2008: 21). Most of the cases have occurred in areas surrounding wildlife conservation areas such as national parks and conservancies. These reactionary practices seemingly communicate despair and resentment due to *manipulation, therapy* or *tokenism* (Arnstein, 1969) by elitist and bureaucratic development planners, government, politicians and local authorities. The case in point include the Save Valley, the focal area of this study which seems to illustrate despair and resentment by the local people, and the negative effects of an exclusionist top-down approach to community development, and political machinations, leaving them with no alternative sources of livelihood (Bond *et al*., 2004; Wolmer *et al*., 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008).

In the Save Valley most studies conducted concentrated on explanatory approaches articulating the conservation successes of SVC and challenges that threaten the investments and biodiversity loss (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Wolmer *et al*., 2004; du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Kreuter *et al.,* 2010). Little has been done to develop a framework for facilitation of sustainable CBT at the backdrop of ongoing land

invasions, conflicts and bushmeat poaching. Conservancy development began after the worst ever drought in 1991-92 (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 164).

The ownership of the Save Valley Conservancy is by local private partnerships, government and international investors (Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Kreuter *et al*., 2010). What began as an experiment in wildlife farming and protection of endangered species such the black rhinoceros grew into lucrative tourism business in which local communities were largely excluded (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Lindsey *et al*., 2008; Kreuter *et al*., 2010). However, from its inception, the conservancy approach received criticisms such as the inherent lack of political support (Bond *et al*., 2004; Cumming, 2005) underutilisation of land and undermining food security by wasting land that could be used to produce crops or livestock by local communities (Wolmer *et al*., 2003: 89). The electric perimeter double fence of the conservancy was also criticised as a symbolising exclusion of and *non-participation* (Arnstein, 1969) by neighbouring poor communities by wealthy invasive landowners (Lindsey *et al*., 2008: 171).

Most of the literature exposes the extent of the conflict between safari operators and neighbouring poor farmers which was almost inevitable from the onset due to non-participation (Bond *et al*., 2004; Cumming, 2005; Lindsey *et al*., 2008). Land invasions by the local poor communities, bushmeat poaching, vandalism of perimeter fence, and human-animal conflicts are discussed (Mombeshora *et al*., 2001; Wolmer *et al*., 2003; SVC, 2007; Lindsey *et al*., 2008, Kreuter *et al*., 2010). According to Sebele (2010: 143), the dominance by local elites in ecotourism leads to resentment thereby defeating the conservation goal of the wildlife sanctuary. In addition, CBT may be constrained as the local people may prefer to pay attention entirely to their agricultural and livestock farming rather than participating in CBT processes, making wildlife conservation uninteresting and unsustainable in their view (Arnstein, 1969).

3.7.2 Lack of funding and financial skills

The failure of CBT ventures to attain financial viability and lack of creditworthiness is widely documented. For instance, Goodwin and Santilli (2009) found that out 15 CBT initiatives in Nicaragua only six were financially viable. The lack of financial viability is also because CBT entrepreneurs often lack capital of their own apart from lacking credit worthiness and government support through grants and soft loans (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018). In support, Tosun (2013: 624) noted that financial resources required for investment in tourism were very scarce and not readily available in LEDCs thereby impeding the implementation of participation in CBT ventures.

Hlengwa and Thusi (2018: 11) strongly argue that it is a well-known fact a great majority of SMMEs owned by previously disadvantaged backgrounds do not have sufficient business records or assets to use as collateral to be creditworthy. Most of the CBT ventures that improved social capital and empowered people to improve their lives did not generate sufficient money to be financially sustainable (Dodds *et al*., 2016; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). CBT has also been criticised for low economic impacts in terms of incomes, jobs, the results of low level interventions, its apparent low life expectancy after door funding ceases, the monopoly by local elites on benefits and, the lack of business skills to make it operational (Zapata, Hall, Lind and Vanderschaeghe, 2011; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). The problem has often been compounded by CBOs that lack financial sustainability as well as lack of business skills (Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.,* 2014; Dodds *et al*., 2016; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018).

Literature also demonstrated that many CBT initiatives fail to attract sufficient business to be economically viable. For example, a research on 200 CBT ventures conducted by Rainforest Alliance and Conservation International Latin America indicates averages of only 5% occupancy for accommodation initiatives (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Dodds *et al*., 2016). Working with established tour operators or joint ventures as well as intervention by NGOs and government has been

recommended to make CBT initiatives financially sustainable (Dodds *et al*., 2016; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). Lucchetti and Font (2013: 3) have high optimism that despite the criticism, quite a number of CBT initiatives have scored significant success under certain conditions such as sound business plans, continuous flow of financial support and good technical and market linkages.

3.7.3 Lack of access to markets

CBT ventures often lack marketing and access to markets apparently due to lack of know-how and funds as already discussed (Lucchetti and Font, 2013). It has also been emphasised that without partnerships with established tour operators, foreign markets are often difficult to access (Halstead, 2003; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012; Chili and Mabaso, 2016; Dodds *et al.,* 2016; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018). Dodds *et al*., (2016) retort that governments and planners overestimate the capacity of CBT ventures to meet foreign market needs and standards on their own. This viewpoint is supported by other scholars who noted that CBT destinations face challenges of economic survival even if their products and services are in demand due to poor marketing capability (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016). In a study conducted on tourism SMMEs in UMsunduzi Local Municipality, Hlengwa and Thusi (2018) found that 56.9% of the sampled 65 businesses indicated lack of access to markets as one of their major constraints.

There is also consensus in the literature that market knowledge is crucial for CBT enterprises to attain commercial viability. The elements of market knowledge needed include market size, seasonality, and visitor's length of stay, visitor expenditure, products and services (Lucchetti and Font, 2013: 4). It is further argued that commercial viability of CBT ventures is enhanced by developing partnerships[22] between CBT businesses and the private tourism sector players such as tour operators and hoteliers. The partnership (rung 6 of 8 in the model of community

[22] A partnership is an arrangement to work together to fulfil an obligation or undertake a specific task by committing resources and sharing the risks as well as the benefits (Lucchetti and Font, 2013: 5).

participation and redistribution of power, chapter 2) between local communities, private sector players, donor agencies, NGOs and government departments would produce significant benefits in terms of marketing and sustainability of CBT ventures. In addition, the probability of success for CBT ventures is directly correlated to their proximity to major tourism attractions suggesting that inaccessible and lesser-known destinations are not economically viable, which informed the choice of wards for inclusion in this study.

The problem of access to markets is compounded by a lack of knowledge of demand variables and business skills, limited cooperation and marketing networks which create barriers to market access as well as competition for clients (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al*. 2011; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016). In support, Tosun (2000: 620) points out that most of the local communities in LEDCs are not adequately informed about tourism development leading to low participation and unrealistic expectations. The author further argues that this lack of information increases the knowledge gap between local communities and the elitist decision-makers making it difficult for the host communities to participate in tourism development processes.

3.7.4 Product development

Product development is a complex problem for CBT ventures apparently because CBT products are not designed based on what is on demand on the market as they focus more on supply dependent on what the area has to offer (Zapata *et al*., 2011; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dangi and Jamal, 2016; Dodds *et al*., 2016). There is also a tendency to oversupply similar products and services with little or no variation. Many CBT initiatives have been blamed for commencing before conducting sufficient market feasibility research (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al.,* 2016). It has also been suggested that CBT ventures should strive to achieve visitor satisfaction, a factor that influences the margin of profitability also

related to the creation of products that match the needs and preferences of the tourists (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dangi and Jamal, 2016; Dodds *et al*., 2016).

3.7.5 Governance Issues

There is consensus in the literature that good governance has always been a problem particularly at local levels for the attainment of sustainability in CBT ventures (Tosun, 2000; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lapeyre, 2010; Zapata *et al*., 2011; Dangi and Jamal, 2016). The government is evidently considered as a fundamental player, yet in some countries there is apparent lack of skills in CBT at the government level (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017: 8). The same authors are also of the view that the universities can be useful in complementing personnel from government towards facilitating CBT development. Essentially, if CBT ventures aim to attain environmental sustainability, the government should empower local communities with decision-making and management skills.

More often than not, however, local communities do not even have government support to initiate CBT through a bottom-up approach as top-down development tends to be rejected as patronising and disempowering (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lucchetti and Font; 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016). Tosun (2000: 622) posits that in LEDCs tourism development is not driven by the local community, but championed by local elites together with international tour operators and government. For example, in the Greater Mekong sub-region countries, the government-owned protected areas stifle the ability of local people to be managers of CBT ventures by adopting top-down approaches often leading to resentment of tourists by the indigenous people (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016). Tosun (2000: 618) further argues that centralisation of tourism administration does not only stifle participation in planning but also increases the vertical distance between the planners in and the local communities for which the CBT is intended.

A healthier approach would be creating a situation where the communities feel a sense of ownership of CBT initiatives, pride and desire to interact and share their culture with tourists for meaningful socio-economic benefits (Tosun, 2000;

Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2014; Dodds *et al*., 2016). In Namibia, although SMMEs are a vital component of tourism drivers the local people were seemingly excluded in the initial planning, formulation and implementation of tourism policy (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014: 10). As a governance issue, Zapata *et al.,* (2011) recommends that doors should open and policy makers shift policy towards power redistribution to strengthen the skills, resources and the will of communities enabling conditions for SMMEs, together with a stronger orientation towards the domestic market.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed the brief history of CBT which dates back to the 1970s, the various CBT enterprises and the frameworks adopted for facilitation in different countries of the world. Essentially, it was noted that through collaboration tradition homestays and community lodges were well-developed and facilitated in ASEAN countries and South Africa. Wildlife and culture and/or handicraft CBT enterprises and, SMMEs were well-illustrated in African countries such as Uganda, Namibia, South Africa and Botswana, while the CAMPFIRE programme popularised in Zimbabwe lacked typical elements of CBT (Bond *et al*., 2004; Cumming, 2005, Lindsey *et al*., 2008, Sebele2009; Kreuter *et al*., 2010; Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014).

The literature also noted that top-down approaches used government agencies and NGOs led to lack of sustainability of CBT because of apparent non-participation and tokenism (Arnstein, 1969). The facilitation and supportive roles of CBOs, government and NGOs were emphasised as long-term but temporary to ensure that greater benefits accrued to the local communities in their quest for their own development (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014). The main challenges to CBT such as the lack of skills, inability to access funding and markets, poor understanding of the markets, lack of business skills and poor initiative among others were also widely discussed in the literature review to give a strong foothold for a framework to facilitate CBT in the Save Valley, the main aim of this study. The next chapter, chapter 4 discusses the research methodology used in this study as informed by the overall aim and research objectives discussed in chapter 1.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is crucial to the study as it presents the research paradigm, research methods and processes that were used to collects data in order to satisfy the requirements of the research objectives. This chapter is also used to provide justification for the research approaches and techniques used by the researcher. The chapter also introduces the philosophy of the process that was followed to conduct the study, the study population and how the samples were selected and why. The research methodologies, techniques and tools for both data collection and analysis were dictated by the objectives that the study sought to satisfy. This chapter explains how the whole research project is glued together and structured in order to answer the research questions and satisfy the requirements of the research objectives stated in chapter 1.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM AND METHOD

According to Fox and Bayat (2007:2) it is important for the researcher to use tried and tested research methods that can withstand scientific scrutiny for the findings to be accepted as sound. The researcher employed scientific research methods starting with extensive theorizing presented in chapters 2 and 3, data collection using scientifically accepted tools and ended with data analysis using relevant techniques. Table 4.1 captures the philosophical bases of the study and strategy that was followed in conducting it. Table 4.1 reflects the epistemological inclination of the study and presents resultant research methods. The epistemological view in this study is that while some knowledge is objective and positivist, a lot of what is known

today is subjected to interpretation by those who experience the situations being studied.

Table 4.1: Research paradigm and strategy

	Interpretivist Paradigm
Epistemology	Non-positivist, with subjective ontological orientation, multiple socially constructed subjective realities, personal sense-making, individuals are part of reality and cannot separate themselves from their experiences and other people around them (O'Gorman and MacIntosh, 2015: 51; Larkin, Watts and Clifton (2006); Cohen (2006)
Philosophical assumptions about knowledge	Social interaction to promote understanding, phenomenological and qualitative, naturalistic to collaboratively construct reality through dialogue and observation.
Research design	Descriptive (O'Gorman and MacIntosh, 2015:82), case study (Save Valley), cross-sectional
Place of values	Life and research are value-laden, viewed through the lenses of those experiencing the phenomenon, respondents' views are taken seriously as co-creators of knowledge
Goal of research	To develop understanding, a facilitation framework for CBT, multiple subjective realities
Nature of knowledge/truth	Knowledge and truth are subjective depending on the position on the respondent
Methodology	Mixed method (both qualitative and quantitative) using interview guide and questionnaire
Data collection tools	Interviews, observation, objects, documents, pictures, maps and questionnaire
Data analysis	Inductive process, descriptions and comparisons of responses using themes and direct responses of interviewees and other statistical representation tools

Adapted from Hlengwa (2014:115)

Knowledge and reality are contextual and shaped by experiences of the people making it a social construction shaped by various conditions and circumstances. Hlengwa (2014) argues that knowledge and understanding of various phenomena also 'depends on the level of cognitive development, academic and social exposure of individuals, which leads to the meanings developed not being necessarily similar'.

Olsen (2004: 4) states that social objects and experiences are transitive, and the meaning assigned depends on the lenses that people in the situation wear as was discovered during the interviews. This view of knowledge and understanding is social constructivism which holds that as individuals seek to understand their world and surroundings, they assign their own meanings to their experiences. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meaning by quantifying it. This study took the views and experiences of the respondents seriously in order to arrive at recommendations that make local sense (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche, and Delport, 2011: 320).

4.2.1 Research methods

As indicated in Table 4.1 the study adopted a non-positivist paradigm which takes the views of the participants seriously as co-creators of knowledge and understanding. The design chosen is exploratory using a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods (Bryman, 2006: 97) and techniques in order to satisfy the requirements of the research objectives stated in chapter 1. This study did not set out to accept or reject any hypotheses, hence none were stated in chapter 1. Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17) define mixed methods research as the class of research in which the researcher deliberately mixes or combines qualitative and quantitative research techniques, approaches, methods, language or concepts in one study. Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib and Rupert (2007: 19); Brannen (2005:4) also define mixed methods research as all procedures that involve the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study. Creswell (2009) supports an 'epistemologically aware mix' of the quantitative and qualitative methods as a way of attempting to satisfy the research objectives without being confined by the approaches, tools and techniques of one method. Accordingly, mixed methods research will be grounded on philosophical assumptions that will guide the direction of data collection and analysis and mixing of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Smith, 2012; Shannon-Baker, 2016).

While qualitative data responds to the why and how (Maree, 2012: 76) questions and also provides contextual details, experiences and expectations of the respondents, quantitative data provides statistical information regarding the sufficiency of data collected (Creswell, 2009). Data collection and analysis was approached in various ways to crystallize and validate the findings of the study (Maree, 2012:128). In addition, while there are several typologies for classifying and identifying the types of mixed methods approaches, this study only considered timing and mixing as the critical factors for applying the mixed methods research approach. On that note sequential data collection was employed starting with qualitative approaches which included in-depth interviews with key informants.

This phase helped to inform the design of questionnaires for use in the second, quant-qualitative phase (Driscoll *et al*., 2007; Creswell, 2013). This implies that qualitative and quantitative data was collected in a two-phase model (Figure 4.1) to seek convergence, difference, or some combination of the two: (i) gathering of qualitative data from a sample and analysing it using in-depth interviews and (ii) using the analysis to develop the instrument for a questionnaire-based survey.

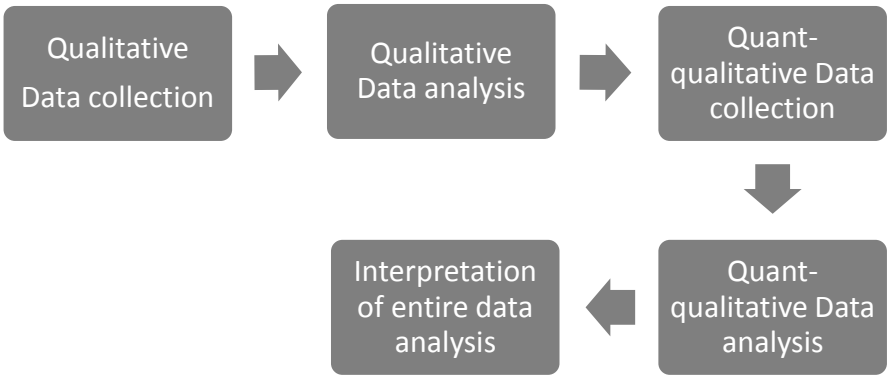

Figure 4.1: Three Phase Model of Sequential Exploratory Design (Adapted from: Creswell (2009); Terrell (2012)

4.2.2 Research design

The research adopted a two-phase sequential exploratory research design which involves the collection and analysis of qualitative data followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data (Terrell, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Creswell, (2014: 3) defines a research design as the plans and procedures for research that span the entire research decision from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. The main function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer the initial questions as unambiguously as possible (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Smith, 2012; Shannon-Baker, 2016). According to Driscoll *et al.,* (2007:21) sequential mixed methods data collection strategies should involve data collection in an iterative process in which data collected in one phase will contribute to data collection in the next phase as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

As implied by the research topic, the study is also case by design. According to Tight (2009: 330) and Maree (2012: 76) even though the case study design has its demerits, such as inability to generalize the results to the whole population, it has some advantages in that it provides a setting where multiple sources of information, techniques and tools can be used to answer the research questions by developing a more contextual and comprehensive picture of the phenomenon that is being studied, where 'the phenomenon is not divorced from its context but is of appeal as the purpose is to realise how behaviour and processes affect and are affected by context' (O'Gorman and MacIntosh, 2015: 80). By their nature case studies designs, enable the researcher to investigate and report on causal factors, effects and be able to seek possible solutions in a bounded setting (McMillan and Schumacher, 2012: 24; Bell, 2010: 8; Tight, 2010:331). The results of the study can also be related to other similar cases and situations (Denscombe, 2007: 43).

This study was also cross-sectional by design as opposed to longitudinal. This implies that data were collected from respondents at a particular point in time and thus provide the snapshot views of the respondents as they were at that time. Clearly the trends with regards to CBT on the Save Valley could only be identified through the review of literature.

4.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

As already stated, this study adopted a mixture of both qualitative and quantitative methods. The method was suitable for this study because it involved collecting and studying both qualitative and quantitative data about local communities' and safari operators' shared perceptions, actions, and behaviours towards and CBT ventures, CBOs, and associated challenges in both the communal areas and conservancy in their natural setting that would guide the formulation of a facilitation framework.

On this note a mixed methods research approach was appropriate for this study specifically for *triangulation* (seeking convergence or corroboration of research results), *complementarity* (exploring interconnected and/or distinct aspects of a phenomenon), *initiation* (examining the similarities, contradictions, and new perspectives),*expansion* (seeking to extend the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different components of inquiry), and *development* (using research methods in a way to complement another) (Brannen, 2005; Bryman, 2007; Burke Johnson *et al*., 2007; De Lisle, 2011; Cameron, 2015; Bentahar and Cameron, 2015). In addition, triangulation of data collection helped to obtain confirmation of the findings of the study through cross-checking of research techniques, and minimising the effect of bias and the inadequacies associated with single-source research (Harwell, 2011; Yeasmin and Rahman, 2012; Cameron, 2015), while also validating and deepening understanding of the topic (Olsen, 2004; Creswell, 2009).

4.5 RESEARCH POPULATION

A population has been defined as a group of individuals, persons, objects, or items from which a sample is obtained for measurement (Mugo, 2002: 1), a collection of elements about which an inference has to be made (Schaeffer, 1999: 1). Bikita District as a whole had a population of about 5 522 (ZimStat, 2012: 100). However, this study did not focus on all the eight wards of the district, but only on those located in close proximity to the Save Valley Conservancy (Ward 27) and transport networks making CBT feasible. These wards were 24, 25 and 26. The numbers of households in each of these wards were not available. This means that the target population was much smaller. On average, each of the 8 wards would have 690 households.

4.5.1 The sample

A sample is essentially a finite part of a population whose characteristics are selected to gain information about the entire population (Mugo, 2002:1). Schaeffer (1999) maintains that a sample should be viewed as a collection of sampling units extracted from a frame or frames. The author further emphasises that the data are then obtained from the sample and a description of the characteristics of the population can be derived if the sample is representative.

Sampling is a process of selecting a representative sub-group of the population (Mugo, 2002; Latham, 2007), a technique for selecting a suitable sample and representative portion of the population. The main advantages of sampling include reduced research costs, greater accuracy, speed and efficient conduct of research, and greater flexibility (Mugo, 2002; Latham, 2007). Consequently, the sample size for this study was pegged at 62 respondents and distributed as follows: 54 household heads as general informants for questionnaire survey and 8 key informants, selected through purposive sampling, who would participate in in-depth interviews. Figure 1.4 shows that some of the areas of Bikita are sparsely populated. In chapter 1 (page

10), it was stated that the total population of Bikita was estimated at 162 356, 5 522 households in all the 8 wards. The information on the number of households in each ward was not available.

4.5.2 Sampling procedure and appropriateness

Probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used. Purposive sampling was used in getting respondents for in-depth interviews since it serves as part of the exploratory design. As a result of convenience, ease and availability of some respondents, purposive sampling was preferred as part of the exploratory design to select the wards, households and key informants. In support, Creswell (2007: 141) maintains that purposive sampling is usually selected because the selected individuals for study can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and the central phenomenon of the study. Stratified convenience sampling technique was used to try and distribute sample selection equitably across all three wards for the questionnaire survey. Purposive sampling was used to select the wards and villages basing on the principle that CBT is most likely to be more successful in those localities which are more accessible than where transport routes are poorly developed. The sampled wards and villages have relatively good road networks, a pre-condition for CBT, and share a long boundary with the conservancy where there is recognisable tourism traffic. As stated in chapter 1 (study area), 3 out of 8 wards of Bikita District were selected. Of these 3 wards 54 households were selected to collect data from. In addition 8 purposively selected community leaders, government officials and safari operators were selected for the interview stage of the research.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCESS AND INSTRUMENTS

The researcher used in-depth interview guides to collect data from key informants, while questionnaires were used with household leaders to elicit data in a survey pertaining to what they envision as opportunities for community participation in

sustainable tourism, empowerment, poverty reduction and biodiversity conservation in their context. The interview guides and questionnaires were used as key instruments in obtaining primary data (See Annexures: A, B, C and D). Data collection has been defined by Creswell (2007:134) as a series of interrelated activities whose aim is to gather information to answer emerging research questions. This study used two data collection techniques as part of mixed methods research as highlighted in Table 4.1. Data collection took place in March 2018 for a period of 18 days from the 5th to the end of the month. In some cases the researcher assistants were busy administering questionnaires while the researcher was conducting interviews as the two processes took place concurrently.

4.5.1 Interviews

Boyce and Neale (2006: 3); Creswell (2009) view in-depth interviews as qualitative research techniques that involve conducting intensive individual usually one-on-one, either over the telephone or face-to-face, to collect information on a specific set of topics. The interview guide made of open-ended questions and themes, was used because it allowed for more flexibility and versatility as the interview developed than a questionnaire. (Brink, 2007: 152; Walliman, 2011: 192). According to Fox and Bayat (2007: 73) there should be a fewer number of questions to allow for more exploration and follow-up questions. The researcher interviewed a relatively small number of informants to explore their perceptions on the subject of research. The main sought after attribute of an in-depth interview was its ability to produce detailed information about the thoughts, feelings or behaviours being explored from a small sample (Patton and Cochran, 2002; Boyce and Neale, 2006; Driscoll, 2011). In-depth interviews in the case of this study preceded surveys; hence they were used to refine the question items for the questionnaire.

Table 4.2: In-depth interview with key informants

Bikita District and SVC	Category of informant	Population	No. of Participants
	District Administrator	1	1
	RDC CEO	1	1
	Safari Operators	11	2
	Chiefs	1	1
	Councillors/Village chairpersons	3	3
	Total		**8**

In this study, in line with what the literature provides, in-depth interviews were conducted with 8 key informants purposively selected to include district administrator, RDC CEO, chiefs, safari operators, and councillors as shown in Table 4.2. Table 4.2 shows that Bikita had 1 district administrator, 1 CEO, 11 safari operators, 1 chief and 3 village chairpersons for the 3 villages selected. The 8 key informants were purposively selected to include all these categories.

4.5.1.1 Interview guide design

The interview guide contained 13 questions grouped into the following four parts: demographic information to enable the researcher to know who the participant is and the level of involvement with community and CBT issues; CBT enterprises suitable for communities around the Save Valley, role of CBOs and CBT facilitation. All the questions solicited qualitative data because the researcher wanted to derive as much information from the key informants as possible.

4.5.1.2 Interview process

Data collection using in-depth interviews was done according to the following chronological plan as suggested by Boyce and Neale (2006: 6)

- Telephonically securing interview date and time with key informants and explaining the purpose of the interview, why the participant has been chosen, and the expected duration of the interview,
- Seeking informed consent of the participant in accordance with the recommend ethics,
- Conducting the face-to-face interviews after obtaining consent and permission to record the interview using the cellular phone. This was done to free the researcher to focus on the interview rather than worry about taking notes, especially since speaking is faster than writing. Recording the interview also allowed the researcher to transcribe afterwards and listen to the interview a number of times to ensure that nothing important was missed,
- Summarising the data immediately after the interview
- Verifying the information
- Data analysis through transcription
- Report writing

4.5.2 Survey questionnaire

Glasow (2005:1) defines a survey as a data collection tool used to gather information from a pre-determined population about the characteristics, actions or opinions of a large group of people. The author further notes that surveys can also be used to assess needs, examine impact, and evaluate demand. According to Creswell (2009: 14) a survey is formed of a fixed set of questions administered by a paper and pencil application, as a web form, or by a researcher who follows a strict script based on the research questions and objectives.

The survey questionnaire was used because of its ability to gather descriptive data; it is inexpensive, to collect a lot of data cost effectively and within a short space of time, and cover a range of topics (Patton and Cochran, 2002; Glasow, 2005). In

addition, surveys can elicit information about people's attitudes that are otherwise difficult to measure using observation (Glasow, 2005; Goddard and Melville, 2006). Also data generated from a survey simply provide a general picture and lack depth (Glasow, 2005; Creswell, 2009), suggesting that surveys may not yield adequate information on contexts especially if it is pure quantitative.

Table 4.3: Questionnaire-based survey with general informants

Wards 24, 25, 26 Bikita District:	Ward	Selected villages	No. of household heads
	24	1	20
	25	1	18
	26	1	16
	Total	**3**	**54**

In this study questionnaire-based surveys were conducted with 54 households selected from the villages using multiple stage cluster sampling as in Table 4.3. Research assistants were used to deliver and collect or administer questionnaires containing structured and semi-structured questions.

4.5.2.1 Questionnaire construction

Structured questionnaires were used to collect data from household leaders. The questionnaire was designed to include both quantitative and qualitative data because of the nature of the responses that the research sought to gather (see Annexure C). Quantitative questions were included in order to collect the biographic data about respondents as household heads and qualitative questions were aimed at collecting data important to satisfy the requirements of the research objectives. The respondents were given an opportunity to qualify their responses by giving reasons. The questionnaire (Annexure C and D) was made of four parts: bio-demographic data, CBT ventures, role of CBOs and CBT facilitation mechanisms. The

questionnaire was also translated to Shona to enable community members to read for themselves.

4.5.2.2 Data collection process

- Questionnaires were distributed to collect data from the general informants as already stated.
- The questionnaires were self-administered allowing the respondents to complete them anonymously and without undue pressure, also allowing them to ask for clarity where necessary.
- In cases where the participants were illiterate, the research assistant or research was there to ask the questions in Shona and complete the questionnaire in the process.
- The questionnaires were collected by the researcher on the set dates and the outstanding ones were collected at a later stage.

The chronological plan of the questionnaire-base survey was done in four stages as follows as suggested by Davies (2007):

- Planning stage (Includes drafting, pilot testing and modifying the questionnaire).
- Two research assistants were used to help collect data from the household heads. It was important to use research assistants because even though the sample was small, the houses were sparsely distributed as illustrated in Figure 1.4, and the process involved a lot of walking. Training of the research assistants on: the aim of the study, the contents of the questionnaire, approach to use when dealing with the participants, the rights of the participants, when to assist and completeness of the questionnaire.
- Data collection stage (involves deploying research assistants on a set date for completion of questionnaires).
- Data analysis stage (involves input into SPSS).
- The write-up stage.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Creswell (2007: 65) posits that the purpose of data analysis is to summarise data to make it easy to understand and to provide answers to the research questions. The authors further advised that the method of data analysis should depend on the research methods and design and that ample time should be spent on the exercise. As both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, this subsection was used to explain how each type of data were analysed in two stages.

4.6.1 Qualitative data analysis

The researcher felt that it was important to capture the responses as they were first in order to show the reader how the sample responded to the questions. This phase was then followed by the thematic analysis of the responses in order to reduce data and make conclusions linking it to the objectives of the study. Data transformation was done involving creating colour codes, dividing the responses in accordance with the frequency of their appearance in the transcriptions. Qualitative data were analysed using the four lenses proposed by McCormack namely: language, narrative process, context, content, moment, and images across the responses given by key informants. Data were integrated and synthesized using codes and themes (Brink, van der Walt and van Rensburg, 2011: 55). The responses were first captured verbatim (chapter 5), then manually coded and analysed thematically.

4.6.2 Quantitative data analysis

In this study the service SPSS with the assistance of a qualified statistician was used to develop descriptive statistics to quantitative and qualitative data from the surveys using percentages and cross tabulations, and pie and bar charts. Nominal measurements were used only to show that there was difference between categories in the sample such as gender, ages of the respondents, and others. Bar graphs and

pie charts were also used to determine the distribution of the participants' responses and draw conclusions regarding such questionnaire items. Frequency and cross tables were particularly crucial in used to displaying the distribution of grouped nominal data (responses) in a way that made it easy to read and understand otherwise cumbersome data.

A table was used to converge qualitative and quantitative data in alignment to the research objectives. This exercise helped to bring to bring the two data sets together (see Table 5.15) in order to cross check the responses from the interviews and questionnaire.

4.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Caspar and Peytcheva (2011: 25) define validity as the extent to which a variable measures what it intends to measure. It is, therefore, important to measure validity in order to minimise errors. In this study validity of research instruments and questions was tested through a pilot study. Mason (2014: 90) associates validity with appropriateness of the issues being addressed to what the study set out to address. According to Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) validity refers to the degree to which the study measures what it set out to measure instead of other things in terms of content, criteria and constructs. Reliability on the other hand is aimed at estimating the consistency of the measurement. It refers to the degree to which an instrument measures a construct the same way each time it is used under the same conditions with the same respondents (Wagner *et al*., 2012) or in different contexts (Mason, 2014: 92). Unfortunately the design of this study was cross-sectional, meaning that the researcher did not go back to the respondents to collect data using the same tools to test if their responses were going to be consistent.

Content validity in the case of this study was ensured by linking the questions used to develop the interview guide to the research objectives and questions stated in chapter 1. This was done to ensure that the data collected from the managers of the supermarkets aligns with the research objectives and ultimately the aim of the study.

Reliability was improved through pilot-testing the research instrument to ensure that the questions were clear and unambiguous. Though hard to prove especially in cross-sectional studies, the research believes that if the same instrument was used to collect data from the same managers, the responses would not differ much if conditions have remained the same.

4.7.1 Pilot study

Caspar and Peytcheva (2011: 23) define pre-testing as a miniature version of data collection process that involves all procedures and materials that would be used during data collection done before the actual data collection begins. The purpose of this exercise was to test the validity of research instruments before the commencement of the actual research, establish whether respondents would understand the questions and instructions, whether the meaning of the questions was the same for all the respondents and make necessary adjustments (Creswell, 2007: 63). Pre-testing also highlighted the sufficiency of the questions and their alignments to the research objectives and ultimately the aim of the study. This process helped to reduce error in the data collection tools and improve the validity of the questions in both the cases of interview guide and questionnaire.

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The guiding principles for any research include respect for people, beneficence, non-malfeasance and justice. Respect for people means research experience should recognise the rights of respondents, including the right to be informed about the study, the right to make the participation decision, and the right to withdraw at any point without any penalty (Orb *et al*., 2000; Patton and Cochran, 2002). This entails informed consent defined as the negotiation of trust (Orb *et al*., 2000). This study embraced the non-malfeasance principle by not causing physical or psychological harm to respondents or exposing them to embarrassment, unusual stress, and demeaning treatment or damage of reputation (Orb *et al*., 2000; NFS, 2002; Patton and Cochran, 2002). On justice, this research avoided exploitation and abuse of respondents.

Gatekeeper's letters were sought from those in authority together with the ethical clearance for the study granted by the university. In summary, this research adhered to the important research ethical principles which included voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality and beneficence. Respondents were given room to decline or participate in the research and were informed of their right to withdraw from the research; either on temporary or permanent basis without explanations. Free and informed consent serve as a prerequisite for this study and the researcher avoided deception by all means since fabrication of data to support conclusions is unethical (Orb *et al*., 2000; Patton and Cochran, 2002). The researcher also upheld DUT ethical procedures throughout the research exercise. Information and consent letters were sent to informants. The letters were translated to Shona for non-English speaking informants (Annexure E).

4.8.1 Anonymity and confidentiality

The researcher was ethically obliged to ensure that data collected from respondents will be kept in a secure place and that identities of the respondents would remain a secret, except in cases where they wanted to be named. The researcher did not take any photographs of people except where consent had been granted. The collected data would be handled in a professional manner and the use of pseudonyms or codes will be preferred in the report writing so as to protect participants' identity (NFS, 2002; Patton and Cochran, 2002). The information would be kept locked up in a secure room at home or in the office until disposal by burning or shredding. Anonymity and confidentiality would also be ensured through the use of codes instead of the real positions of the respondents during data presentation as well as the aggregation of responses during the analysis process so that it will not be easy to identify responses and equate them to different respondents. In the case of quantitative data informants would be called by codes instead of their positions. The data on the researcher's flash disk will be erased completely after the expiry of the five-year period.

4.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter was used by the researcher to introduce the research genre in terms of epistemology, methodology, design, data collection and analysis procedures and tools and provide justifications for the methodological choices selected by the researcher. It is important to point out that these choices were informed by the purpose of the study, research paradigm, research questions and objectives as stated in chapter 1. chapter 5 that follows is used to present the data, analyse and interpret them in line with the objective of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the study conducted in Save Valley in 2017 in line with the objectives and research questions stated in Chapter 1. The chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of both qualitative and quantitative and data. The chapter then presents the polycentric model for facilitation of community participation in CBT in the Save Valley as original contribution. To avoid duplication, data are presented, analysed and interpreted and compared with the findings of experts in the field are presented in chapters 2 and 3. The data that are presented in this chapter were collected from the respondents as identified in chapter 4 of the thesis. This presentation starts with qualitative data because as stated in chapter 4, the researcher started by conducting an exploratory study with purposely selected 8 respondents including important role players in and around the Save Valley Conservancy. The results of the interviews were then used to develop the survey questionnaire used to collect data from community members sampled from the earmarked 3 wards (24, 25, and 26) due to proximity to the SVC (Ward 27), accessibility and feasibility for CBT enterprises.

5.2 QUALITATIVE DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Qualitative data was extracted manually from the transcripts and audio recordings of the interviews. As stated in chapter 4 the some responses were quoted as they were in order to show the reader that the researcher did not try to shoehorn to fit the some agenda. In other words direct verbatim quotations were used in the write-up as illustrations and to give the respondents a voice in the study because the number of interviewees was only 8. This presentation was then followed by content analysis of

major emerging themes and illustrations were used to synthesise the themes. To protect their identities the respondents were given codes that are kept safely by the researcher.

As stated above this sub-section concentrates on analysing and presenting qualitative data collected through interviews with key informants. Ngulube (2015:1) views qualitative data analysis as one of the critical steps in qualitative research process as it helps the researcher to make sense out of the qualitative data collected. Patton and Cochran (2002) describe qualitative data analysis as a process of inductive analysis and creative synthesis. In this study analysis and presentation of data was guided by the research aim, questions, and objectives as well as the underpinning theory.

Essentially, qualitative data analysis involved transforming the raw data by searching, evaluation, recognising, exploring and describing appropriately the emerging themes and categories in the raw data to aid interpretation and providing the underlying meaning. There were only eight interviews, so it was possible to capture the responses of interviewees according to emerging main ideas and themes. The interpretation of the research findings from the interviews was done immediately after analysis section by section as guided by the research aim, questions and objectives, the underpinning theory, and the existing literature. The study is underpinned by the participation and power redistribution theory. Hess (2004:1238) explains that the purpose of the discussion section of a research project for explaining the meaning of the results to the readers.

The process of thematic analysis of data involved reading and annotating the transcripts as part of preliminary observations to get a feel of the data. The next step involved a detailed look at the data to identify the emerging major themes. At the margins of each transcript and set of notes brief summaries of the texts were jotted down. A coding scheme was designed and applied on the whole data set to group the responses of interviewees. The major themes in Table 5.1 were established and used to analyse and condense data in order to conclude the study. The themes

were rated on the Lickett Scale of 1 to 5 to illustrate the perceived importance of each theme. The themes are discussed in the order they are presented in Table 5.1 which was essentially the chronology of the interviews. According to Table 5.1 the most highly rated themes are the current challenges the respondents were encountering and the possible solutions. External facilitation also got maximum rating. This indicated high community dependency on external aid and lack of empowerment.

Table 5.1: Major emerging themes rated on Lickett Scale 1-5: 1-least important; 5-most important

Theme	Rating on Lickett Scale 1-5				
	1	2	3	4	5
Alternative livelihoods				✓	
Current participation			✓		
CBT Preference				✓	
Ownership			✓		
Critical success factors				✓	
Challenges					✓
Solutions					✓
Internal facilitation			✓		
External facilitation					✓

This pattern strongly suggests that a CBT framework in the region should acknowledge the existence of hindrances, promulgate probable solutions, and emphasise external facilitation as prerequisites for success. All other themes received varying degrees of emphasis probably because initially some of the

respondents were largely clueless about the possibility of CBT as an alternative livelihood and that literacy levels varied significantly.

5.2.1 Theme 1: Alternative Livelihoods

The interviews revealed that in Save Valley there was a near-desperate need for alternative livelihoods among the poor local communities owing to the nearly linear and fragile livelihood structure, the recurrent droughts which rendered rain-fed agriculture extremely unreliable, the ever-increasing population that strained available resources, and land degradation (Figure 1.4). Respondents reported that in a good seasons local residents grew mainly small grains such millet and sorghum that tolerated low rainfall. However, harvests were modest to insufficient to last till the next harvest. The respondents unanimously agreed that the dry climate had become a major economic drawback. They acknowledged that in the area, being in agro-ecological Region 5, rain-fed agriculture had become a precarious livelihood, hence the need for alternatives to generate income and reduce poverty levels among the local residents as indicated below:

> '*Under normal circumstances local people can make jewellery which they can sell tourists. They can also put up traditional type of accommodation which attracts tourists. People can also sell wild berries and fruits, local food, and mufushwa (dried vegetables) to tourists as they move around'*. **(Top Council Official)**
>
> *'People should perform dance or cultural music for a fee. People already have the skills and it is cheap to train others.'* ***(Village Head 2)***

The examples above indicated that a variety of CBT ventures were already being experimented with by the local community as alternative livelihoods although in a haphazard manner that could lead to exploitation. A framework to facilitate CBT and yield meaningful benefits would be recommended by this study and enable local communities to benefit from a natural resource in their proximity.

5.2.2 Theme 2: Current participation

The interviews demonstrated that most of the respondents appeared, not only knowledgeable about tourism, but also enthusiastic because of their proximity to a large natural tourist attraction and resource, the SVC. The respondents shared that local participation in tourism was largely peripheral and tokenism (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008) including employment as security guards as stated by two informants:

> *'Most of the people employed as game security guards are people from this land'.* ***(Village Chairman)***
>
> *'Our brothers are the ones employed as game security guards in SVC to ensure that poachers do not kill wild animals. They also sell game meat when they come to the villages but we do not know how they get it'.* ***(Village Head)***

There was neither mention of any other viable tourism activity, such as accommodation, lodges, small holdings, etc. where local people participated in nor participation of women and youths. This indicates the skewed nature of the participation by local community residents which favoured only the white minority (safari operators). The source of bushmeat sold by some employees remained an unexplained phenomenon. The statements above correlate to observation from many parts of the SADC, especially that participation in tourism by local communities remained tokenistic, yielding minimal benefits. Essentially therefore, the interview reports confirmed that in Save Valley there was an 'us and them' scenario between the two groups of residents, local people and safari operators. This situation is not conducive to sustainable wildlife conservation and tourism in SVC. This makes an appropriate CBT facilitation framework to be even more necessary to create a win-win scenario among the residents of the region while also promoting conservation of wildlife, the mandate of SVC.

It was observed that SVC has weak links with neighbouring communities due to the CAMPFIRE which promotes a top-down approach to community participation in tourism development and CBT ventures. Furthermore, in and around SVC the apparent tokenism or mere manipulation (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008) suggested

that local people were treated as passive recipients of the trickle-down consequences of wildlife tourism development, something that has been widely reported in studies conducted elsewhere leading to marginalisation of poor local communities (Sebele, 2010; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2015).

5.2.3 Theme 3: CBT preferences

The respondents shared that local participation in tourism was essentially non-existent, as local community members only performed low-level skill tasks at tourism amenities owned and operated by other racial groups. As such the respondents cited a number of CBT projects the local people would prefer according to their current skills level and suitability in Save Valley. The interviewees responded that vegetable outgrowing was the most popular and suited groups such as women. Opportunities could be provided and enhanced to enable them to supply local tourism businesses on a continuous basis. Other possible CBT projects included making of handicrafts, wildlife tourism, accommodation, irrigation, cultural dances and employment in the conservancy.

Figure 5.1 shows the main entrance into SVC on the highway leading to Mutare and the Eastern Highlands. All tourists that drive into SVC from the northern end up pass through this point. This could be a possible site for CBT ventures to capture tourists on transit. Figure 5.1 also shows an appropriate environmental context needed for the development of CBT ventures in the Save Valley because it is not only a scenic location but also a junction of main roads, attributes identified as appropriate for the establishment of homestays, handicraft shops, and performance of cultural activities such as music and dance, exhibitions, and food and drinks (Yusof *et al*., 2012; Mapjabil *et al*., 2015). Properly constructed stalls could be built by government and be allocated to willing local community members to sell their wares to visitors as they drive along the road. With proper training and skilling, they would know how to communicate with the visitors without harassing them.

Figure 5.1 Main entrance into SVC (Author's own photograph)

The respondents reported that if community gardens were introduced together with irrigation facilities local community residents would grow vegetables to supply the hotels and lodges in SVC with the co-operation and assistance from the safari operators. The following quotations summarise the different views about vegetable outgrowing as expressed by interviewees. The emphasis on vegetable outgrowing illustrates a probable integration between CBT and local agricultural skill levels.

> *'Vegetable outgrowing is suitable for poor village women. Safari camps are usually in areas far from sources of supply and fresh vegetables are difficult to obtain'. (**Safari Operator 1**)*
>
> *'I propose that irrigation projects should be introduced here to enable people to vegetables like tomatoes like what happens at Birchneough Bridge because this is a dry area. Our neighbours in the conservancy can assist our people by buying the vegetables to cook at their hotels and lodges'. (**Councillor)***

A variety of other CBT ventures were proposed with varying degrees of preferences as exemplied by the following words:

> *'Under normal circumstances local people can make jewellery which they can sell to tourists. They can also put up traditional type of accommodation which attracts tourists. People can also sell wild berries and fruits, local food and mufushwa (dried vegetables) to tourists as they move around'. (**Village Head 3)***
>
> *'Performing cultural dance and music can work for locals. Resources are available at no cost'. (**Safari Operator 2**)*
>
> *'The tradition we learned from other countries is that of community conservancies and CAMPFIRE in some parts of Zimbabwe. The community should derive direct benefits from wildlife conservation run by safari operators'. (**Top Council official**)*

Figure 5.2 illustrates CBT venture preferred for the SVC. The CBT ventures that were mentioned more frequently by the participants in their order were: vegetable outgrowing, selling of food and wild fruit, selling of pottery, jewellery and embroidery. Other preferred CBT ventures, even though they appeared less frequently, were: music and cultural dance, wildlife conservation and provision of accommodation. Even though the community members were aware of some of the CBT ventures that they could start to enhance their livelihoods, they were limited by finance. In addition some respondents could not say with certainty the extent to which people would appreciate and adopt wildlife conservation CBT as a source of livelihood because of the chilling encounters some residents had experienced with stray game, and their apparent limited knowledge of animal behaviour. Some respondents did not even appreciate wildlife conservation CBT and viewed it with indignation, and expressed hostility and resistance to its introduction. On the other hand other respondents appreciated wildlife CBT with enthusiasm as illustrated in the responses that follow.

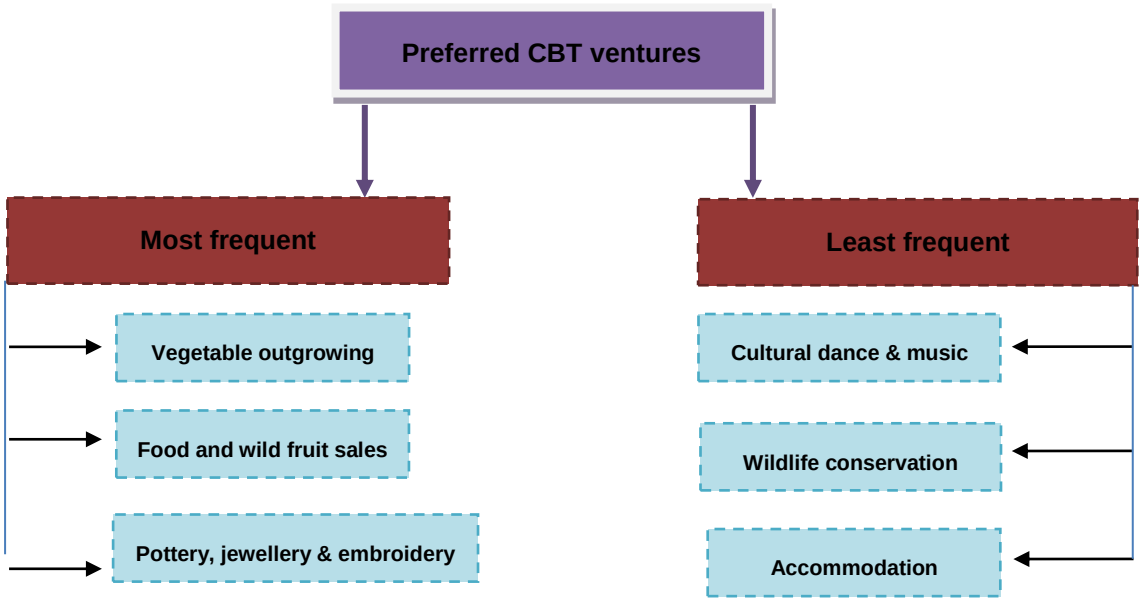

Figure 5.2: Preferred CBT ventures

'Allow the private enterprise to do most of the wildlife business side whilst members of the community learn and protect the resources they have, a programme similar to CAMPFIRE. The private sector has the money and know-how. The communities have the land. Combining the two is most lucrative'. ***(Safari Operator 1)***

'The tradition we learned from other countries is that of community conservancies and CAMPFIRE in some parts of Zimbabwe. The community should derive direct benefits from wildlife conservation run by safari operators. In Namibia there are laws to support the concept of community conservancies, a concept we feel must be taken on board to rationalise the relations between safari operators and local communities because local communities should derive benefits resulting in boosting local incomes'. ***(Top Council Official)***

'Two weeks ago we moved around with Council and identified area beyond those mountains we proposed for the community to wildlife management. We are not sure if the residents will agree to have their land used that way". ***(Chief)****.*

This group, however, who believed in promoting a CAMPFIRE model where the local people would be passive recipients of tourism proceeds. The responses above show that even the community leaders do not have progressive ideas on how to help their communities benefit meaningfully from tourism. The idea of taking more land from the people to use for wildlife conservation may not be a welcome option. The respondents mentioned that people have the land, but they do not have the knowledge and capital. The best option would not be to take the land from the people and give it to safari operators and have local people working for them for wages. The best CBT strategy would be to form a cooperative and get experts (safari operators) to train and mentor the members to run the conservancy themselves and be available for consultation for a fee. In addition the literature confirmed that providing new technical, leadership, entrepreneurial, and problem-solving skills to local people will lessen their dependency on the government and NGOs (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011).

The two responses that follow illustrate the strong belief in CAMPFIRE in official circles and traditional tourism players in spite of the bad results it yielded for local people. In addition there was clear divergence of views on the participation of local people. While some respondents believed that local people should give up their land to safari operators to do wildlife tourism because they lacked the requisite skills and experience, others expressed the wish for proper legislation, training and financing for local people to enable them to successfully participate in wildlife CBT by borrowing the Namibian model of community conservancies. Yet another informant

expressed resentment for wildlife CBT and reported that stray game animals were a menace to their crops, livestock and lives as illustrated below:

> *'We do not want wildlife CBT because if we decide to reserve a portion of our land for wildlife conservation like in SVC the wild animals will come out and eat all our livestock. We do not have an electric fence to confine the game animals inside the conservancy. We have caves only'.* ***(Village Head)***
>
> *'Normally, the first challenge is the acceptance by the local community themselves to take up the tourism projects. They may feel incapacitated to run the businesses in terms of finance and skills'.* ***(Chief)***

Such reports also exposed issues of lack of skills and expertise in management of wildlife and gravity of human-animal conflict. Essentially, a CBT facilitation framework would guide the integration of local community members into wildlife conservation CBT. Yet another set of respondents preferred joint ventures in CBT enterprises between local community residents and safari operators as illustrated in the following quotes:

> *'Safari operators should take part in joint ventures with residents in the villages where they will provide marketing of jewellery or works of art and running of the safari business on behalf of the community'.****(Chief/Safari Operator 2)***

The contradictions surrounding the appropriate CBT model suggest a dearth of knowledge and lack of an appropriate facilitation framework to bring competing parties together. Essentially, the complementarity of research results about CBT preferences and what the literature says about the projects should ultimate guide the formulation of a facilitation framework for CBT projects in and around SVC with the aim of reducing poverty while also promoting conservation of wildlife in the region.

5.2.4 Theme 4: CBT Ownership

Related to CBT preferences were issues of ownership and funding of the enterprises. The respondents largely concurred that any form partnership or collaborative ownership was more preferable to family/individual ownership such as co-operative or joint venture (as illustrated in Figure 5.3).

> *'People should form co-operatives and start community gardens where they will grow vegetables with the assistance of our neighbours in the conservancy. This is important in that those with problems will be assisted by others'.* ***(Village Head 3)***

'Local people should form and register cooperatives legally so that they can be assisted with training and resources'. ***(Top Council Official)***

'CBT should be owned through joint ventures with established tourism businesses. This is because often communities do not have either capital or capacity to start and run the businesses. ***(District Administrator)***

'People should form co-operatives. It is the best for doing business to share risks'. ***(Safari Operator 1)***

A similar study in South Africa found that handicrafts have been promoted successfully as part of the local economic development Initiative (LDEI) (a bottom-up approach) designed to counter the failure of top-down government approaches to combat unemployment and poverty by providing inclusivity and cooperation between local communities and various stakeholders (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015:2). A similar approach may be recommended for Save Valley.

Figure 5.3: Preferred CBT ventures ownership

As shown in Figure 5.3 the respondents emphasised that either cooperative or joint venture CBT project in which safari operators were part was very critical for success. This perception is discussed in greater detail in later sections. The responses were quite refreshing as plausible suggestions were made such as aid from government or NGOs, mukando (thrift savings as a group), pooling of available resources by members of a group, and livestock sales. What was clear from the various views

expressed by respondents was the admission that the local people by themselves were incapacitated to raise sufficient capital for meaningful investment in CBT, and that intervention by government and/or NGOs with requisite capital was critical.

> *'Our people should enter into joint ventures with those already in the business that have money'.* ***(Chief)***
>
> *'NGOs should offer CBT start-up capital and capacity building while safari operators provide guidance in meeting standards because they are the gurus in tourism in the region'****. (District Administrator)***
>
> *'In Bikita people have adopted mukando (thrift savings) where they put money together by contributing a dollar or more which they can invest. They can also raise money to invest by selling their livestock such as cattle, goats and sheep. First of all the co-operatives must be legal so that the relevant ministry, the Ministry of Enterprise Development can bring in experts. The local authority can also give the local people access to training. The safari operators can also train local people for free since they will be working in partnership as they operationalise tourism in the region'.* ***(Top Council Official)***
>
> *'People should pool their resources together through cooperatives. Government should also provide funding. The people alone will not be able to raise enough funds'.* ***(Village Head 2)***

As shown in the literature chapter the goal of collaboration in business projects such as CBT is to afford capacity building for those who have less economic and political power such as women and youths to lessen their dependency on the government and NGOs by transferring to them new technical, leadership, entrepreneurship, and problem-solving skills (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). Consequently, the emerging picture is that CBT investment in Save Valley can only succeed with external facilitation largely through government and NGO funding. These results were consistent with findings from earlier studies in other countries such as Sebele (2010) in Botswana, Kipleu *et al*. (2014:78) in Amboseli, Kenya, Nyakunu and Rogerson (2014: 7) in Caprivi, Namibia and Yusof *et al*. (2012); Salley*et al*. (2014) in Malaysia.

In addition respondents expressed high optimism that NGOs would provide the necessary funding. In addition, Zimbabwe has a rich history of external funding of community development projects such as CAMPFIRE which was funded using donor finances from USAID, Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD) and UK Department for International Development (DFID) (Frost and Bond, 2007, Kreuter*et al*., 2010). Similarly, if CBT projects were well planned, assistance could be secured from interested NGOs. These examples confirm that NGOs and the government,

should be at the centre of any sustainable CBT facilitation framework. There was clear evidence from the interview responses that without external funding CBT projects would not take off the ground in the Save Valley where mistrust and hostility between safari operators and local residents reigned.

In the facilitation equation the government, NGOs, and safari operators were expected to play critical roles for capacity building, funding and facilitation. More importantly, interviews revealed that the Zimbabwean Government was expected to enact laws and policies that would provide an enabling environment for CBT operations including providing guarantees of security of land tenure to safari operations for them to release

the much needed funding.

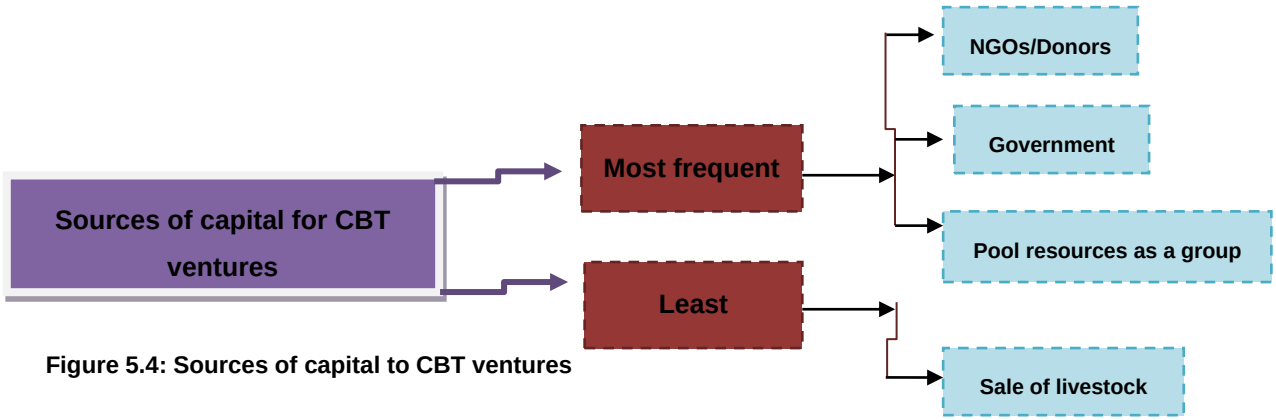

Figure 5.4: Sources of capital to CBT ventures

Figure 5.4 is a thematic analysis of the responses given in this regard. Respondents seemed to think that the most effective ways to raise capital to fund CBT ventures around the SVC would be approaching NGOs and Donor organisations, assistance from the government and local residents pooling resources together as cooperatives or joint ventures (as illustrated in Figure 5.4). The least mentioned way of funding CBT ventures was the sale of livestock in order to raise capital. Respondents felt that NGOs, donors and government had to contribute to the development of the local people advancing such reasons as poverty and duty or mandate on the part of the government.

5.2.5 Theme 5: Success factors for CBT in the Save Valley

The respondents raised a wide range of factors they believed were critical in ensuring the success and sustainability of CBT projects as illustrated in Figure 5.5, a thematic analysis of these perceived success factors of CBT ventures around the SVC. As shown in Figure 5.5 there were varying degrees of emphasis or frequency of critical success factors among the respondents. The most frequently identified factor was the need for education and training of CBT entrepreneurs without which projects would be doomed from the onset as illustrated (Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5: Success factors of CBT ventures

'Business management is a professional issue. There is also need for the safari operators in SVC to accept the products being offered so that the local entrepreneurs would be treated as partners on the marketing side'. ***(Top Council Official)***

'Our people need training to be able to run businesses'. ***(Village Head 2)***

'People must be given entrepreneurship skills such as keeping of books of accounts, banking and preparing financial statements so that they can see whether the business is benefitting them or not'. ***(District Administrator)***

'Anti-poaching and conservation awareness campaigns should be conducted'. ***(Safari Operator 3)***

As illustrated in the examples CBT entrepreneurs needed training in managing books of accounts and other entrepreneurship skills as well as participating in awareness education and anti-poaching campaigns. They also would like to be trained to maintain the fence (which always needs repair), skills to de-silt the dams, entrepreneurial and other business skills. It was interesting to hear them mention exchange visits to learn from other similar sutuations. In addition, though with reduced frequency, some respondents emphasised the need for new legislation, and marketing of tourism destinations as a package that included CBT ventures in order to promote market sharing and reduce competition.

> *'Government should assist through legislation, capacity building through training and arranging exchange visits with other regions to aid learning, and funding from the fiscus to ensure sustainability of projects'.* ***(Councillor)***
>
> *'Tourism destinations should be advertised as packages that also cover CBT ventures'.* ***(Safari Operator 2)***

Other respondents emphasised the need for infrastructure development such as roads, sources of water, and the perimeter fences of the conservancy. In addition some respondents argued that all these capacity development programmes should be buttressed on adequate funding by government and donor organisations as illustrated below.

> *'We expect people located closest to the fence to be employed doing activities such as repairing the fences. Funding should come from donors and government'.* ***(Chief)***
>
> *'Safari operators should help communities by repairing the roads and de-silting dams'.* ***(Village Head 3)***

5.2.6: Theme 6: Challenges of CBT ventures in Save Valley

The interview responses on this theme produced a very broad diversity of opinions of sub-themes ranging from poor social relations, non-participation in tourism by some groups, lack of skills, human-animal conflict, land invasions by community members, the collapsed perimeter fence and economic challenges. Each of the challenges is discussed in sufficient detail. Figure 5.6 is a thematic analysis of the sub-themes classified together as challenges because of their tendency to hinder adoption and sustainability CBT ventures. While some of the challenges were common in the

literature there are others that are unique to Save Valley that need special mention as indicated in Figure 5.6.

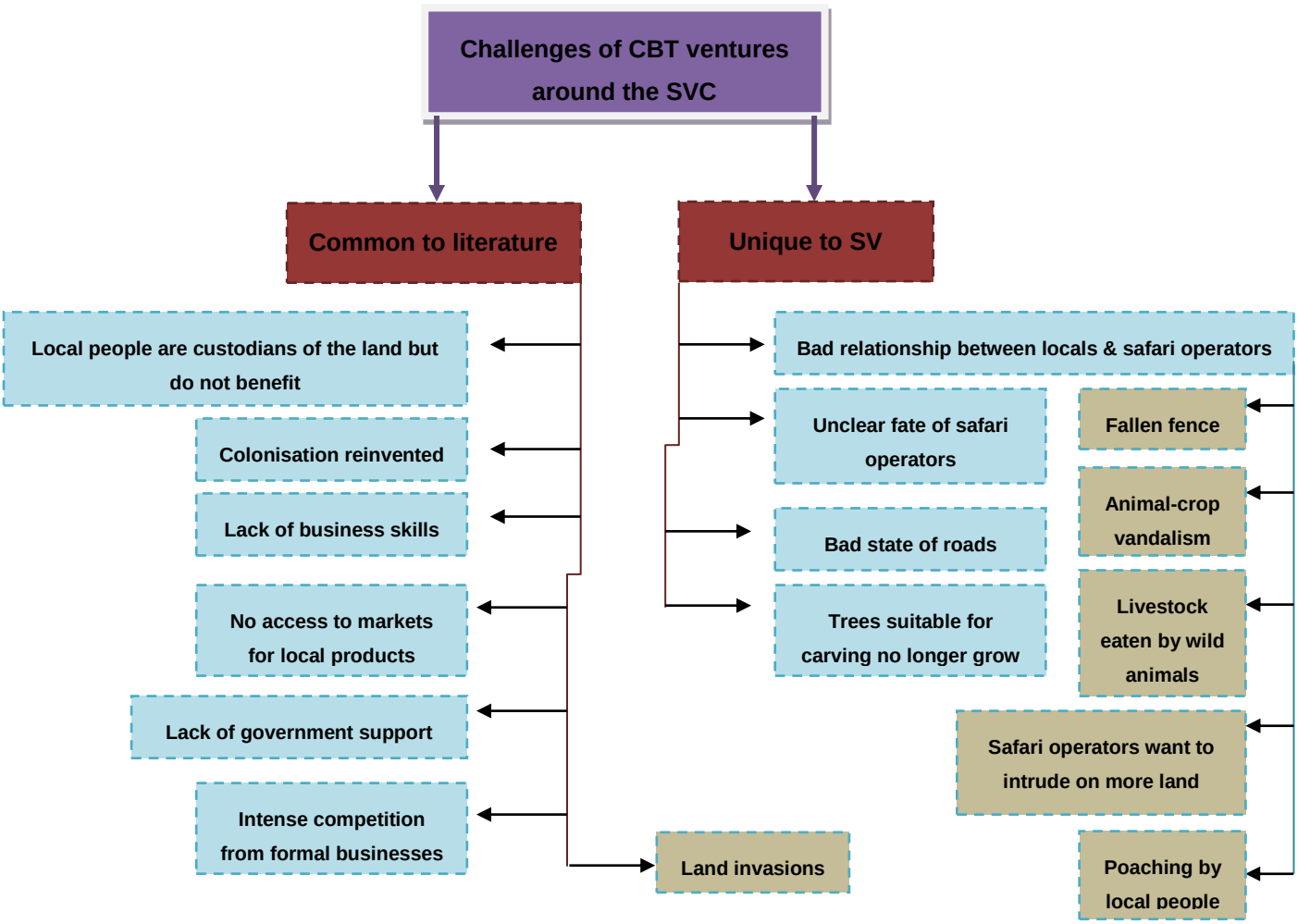

Figure 5.6: Challenges faced by CBT ventures around the SV

A thorough interrogation of interview reports revealed that the respondents concurred that bad social relations and human-animal conflict were the major challenges that would impede the introduction and successful adoption of CBT ventures in the Save Valley in spite of the potential to enable people to generate extra income to alleviate poverty while also contributing to wildlife conservation since the region has a huge sanctuary. An interpretation of the wide diversity of opinion on the existence of conflicts in the Save Valley concluded that it had an over-arching influence on most of the success factors such access to markets, capital, accessibility and technical

know-how. In addition bad relations between local people and safari operators and human-animal conflict seem to blur any prospects of sustainable implementation of locally-owned CBT projects involving the participation in management and decision making processes by local community residents. The groups traded accusations and counter-accusations, and denials on the issues of lack of cooperation, poaching, vandalism of the perimeter fence, and human-animal conflict. The following quotes are examples of attitudes shared by different groups of residents towards each other well known to government and other officials in the region.

> *'We have bad relations with safari operators. We are labelled poachers because we live close to the boundary fence. We are accused of laying snares to catch the game animals belonging to the white safari operators. But since we were resettled here over 30 years they have not captured a local poacher. All the poachers they have captured were from Botswana and Zambia'. (Village Head 1)*
>
> *'Problems such as poor building standards, lack of market, wild animals attack crops and livestock will affect us'.* ***(Village Head 2)***
>
> *'Currently, the relationship is not cordial or good because of what has happened. A lot of destruction of crops has occurred and losses have been recorded through livestock being devoured by the big five. The community have been further impoverished. If there is no co-operation from the safari operators the people may have problems in accessing the market since they may be competing for customers because some of the items the local people will be selling such as jewellery and traditional accommodation may already be on offer at safari operators' outlets. There is also need to build a relationship with the safari operators. The game farmers are alleging that the fence was destroyed by the villagers during poaching activities. They argue that the onus is on the communities who are being affected by the wild animals to repair the fence. This is also why the farmers are neither maintaining the roads nor assisting the communities'.* ***(District Administrator)***
>
> *'We always had problems with them (white safari operators) because they told us to shift and resettle on the other side of the road you used to come here. They wanted to extend their game farms into our land we were given by the government. This is why they are deliberately disabling the electric fence in order to unleash their lions and hyenas on us to make us suffer'.* ***(Village Head 3)***
>
> *'Handicraft may be affected by lack of market and skills. People may be demoralised because the market is the problem. For example, there are guys at Chibvumani doing very good basketry and carving but the market is a serious problem'. (****Chief)***

The interviewees regarded conflict as a divisive issue which would militate against any CBT initiatives from the onset, and weaken any facilitation framework. Furthermore the narratives above and other reports insisted that it was evident that successful resolution of conflict in Save Valley would unlock other socio-economic variables thereby making way for sustainable introduction and maintenance of CBT projects. As such the issue of improving relations in the Save Valley was viewed by

the respondents as a critical factor for the success of CBT ventures in the region. Safari operators were expected to play as key stakeholders and as both internal and external facilitators. In addition respondents stressed the importance of collaboration between the safari operators and local community residents as a key success factor for any CBT initiative. This meant that every other challenge quoted such as lack of access to markets, poor accessibility, low skill levels, and lack of capital, were essentially, secondary hindrances for successful introduction and adoption of CBT ventures in Save Valley.

> *'Many problems will affect CBT such as lack of market or visitors; land invasions by peasants and lack of variety of handcraft products i.e. so often the handicrafts are all the same from group to group'.**(Safari Operator 1)***
>
> *Local's projects may face competition from established tourism businesses. Lack of capital and raw materials for handicrafts are a major concern'. **(Safari Operator 2)***
>
> *'When first settled here people used to make carvings which were then transported to distant places for sale. Nowadays there is no more carving going on because there is no means of transport because the roads are in a very bad state. People travel over 8.5 km to get to the nearest shops at Mbuya Nehanda Business Centre just to buy a bar of soap. The trees that were used in the past for carving are nowhere to be found such as the red mahogany'. **(Village Head 1)***

Another hot issue which emerged as a sub-theme was the land question as illustrated below.

> *'The relationship got sour when the government gave allegedly allocated the 10 km wide buffer zone safari farmers'. **(Top Council Official)***
>
> *'The land on which the conservancy was established belongs to the people who now live in the surrounding communal lands that are now overpopulated. The fate of the game farmers is very unclear because land ownership models have changed over time. At one point there was an opinion in government to indigenise the conservancies and offer letters were given out to black farmers. At a later stage the offer letters were withdrawn. Government ended up proposing the current modus operandi where a safari community ownership trust was formed involving safari operators, National Parks representing government, and communities represented by chiefs'.**(Chief)***

As can be established from the responses and other reports some respondents used the lack of benefits from tourism and the historical background of the establishment of SVC to explain why there was disgruntlement and conflict between groups of people in the Save Valley. They reported that SVC was established on land that belonged to them before they were driven out to live in communal lands that were now crammed and overpopulated. As contained in the example above the interview

results also showed inconsistent government policy on land tenure which aggravated the conflict situation and anxiety in the Save Valley by causing uncertainty among safari operators who invested heavily in their businesses.

In addition by making SVC a subject of the land reform programme, some respondents revealed that government caused land tenure uncertainty, anxiety and aloofness among safari operators, and scuttled any hope of their involvement in outreach programmes. As a result the safari operators were not keen to cooperate with local communities and assist in CBT ventures for as long their investments were being threatened by the lack of security of tenure, hence the need for such government guarantee. Non-participation in wildlife tourism by the local residents of the Save Valley created a pre-cursor for human-animal conflict and a situation where the local people and the safari operators see each other as 'us and them'. Respondents reported that they viewed game negatively and lacked the know-how and appreciation for wildlife conservation as a source of livelihood.

There was also evidence from the interviews that there was lack of willingness and pompous attitude through non-attendance to meetings on the part of safari operators and non-involvement of local residents as entrepreneurs in wildlife tourism other than as safari employees or recipients of remittances. In addition some of the respondents reported a different scenario where local residents regarded wildlife conservation as a preserve for the white safari operators, where local participation was only through employment. Other respondents reported hostility towards safari operators and dislike of wildlife conservation as they regarded it as a menace to their crops, livestock and lives. Bond *et al*. (2004); Cumming (2005); Lindsey *et al*. (2008) believe that conflicts between safari operators in SVC and the neighbouring poor farmers were almost inevitable from the onset due to non-participation, hence the reactionary practices that do not augur well for CBT projects. Resentment cited by Sebele (2010:143) indicates that the local residents value their agricultural and livestock farming more than wildlife CBT projects and that human-wildlife conflicts

were a result of farmers retaliation for the agricultural loss or damage as evidenced by killing of 140 elephants in 2013 by local residents nearby Hwange National Park (Mhuriro-Mashapa *et al*., 2017:1678). This scenario makes external facilitation more relevant and urgent. The report that stray game animals were a menace to their crops, livestock and lives was repeated over and over. On the other hand safari operators blamed local community members for vandalising the fence (see Figure 5.7) during poaching activities. Yet local residents viewed the lack of maintenance of the fence as punishment for refusing to give up more land to wildlife conservation.

Figure 5.7: A section of the boundary fence of SVC that collapsed. (Source: Author's own photograph)

The respondents revealed that the bone of contention was the responsibility to repair and maintain the electric fence that should keep wildlife in confinement which was in a state of disrepair at the time (Figure 5.7). The results of the interviews showed the two groups blamed each other for state of the fence. In spite of the contestations about who is to blame for the collapse and non-maintenance of the fence thereby allowing animals to stray into the villages, some respondents reported that stray wild animals from SVC continued destroying crops, killing livestock and injuring or killing people without compensation as confirmed by the following assertions. The local people put a lot of value in their livestock and crops (as their only source of

livelihood), hence the hatred for the marauding animals from SVC as illustrated below. In as far as this research is concerned this is a serious issue if at all CBT ventures have to be adopted sustainably leading to poverty reduction while also contributing wildlife conservation. Essentially, the issue of restoring the electric fence was critical in order for cordial relations to develop.

> *'The conflict between the residents and the animals will be made worse. If we utilise that land beyond those mountains it will be like drawing the problem animals closer to the people. There must be a very good approach to the issue. It is our tradition that economic status of a black person in this area is measured in terms of the number cattle one has. Ninety percent of the people from this area who graduated went to school using money from the sale of cattle. Now the fence has not been maintained for the past 4-5 years while game animals are straying out killing our cattle, elephants destroying crops, buffaloes spreading diseases to cattle. How can relations be good in this situation?' (**Chief)***
>
> *'Our relationship with white safari operators in SVC is bad. When we invite them to meetings they do not come or run away, and only sent their guards. They (safari operators) deliberately removed the solar powered fence to punish us for settling on land they wanted for themselves'. **(Village Head 1)***
>
> *'The safari farmers are alleging that the fence was destroyed by the villagers during some poaching activities. They are reluctant to maintain the fence because the onus to repair the fence is on villagers who are being affected by the wild animals after destroying the fence. This is why also they are neither maintaining the roads nor giving anything to the villagers'. (**Top Council Official**)*

Other studies conducted in conservancies made similar observations about the conflict situation in the region. For instance, Mhuriro-Mashapa, Mwakiwa and Mashapa (2017:1678); Mombeshora and Bell (2009: 2602) confirmed that human-wildlife conflicts were a serious concern for local communities that lie adjacent protected areas in Zimbabwe such as SVC. Essentially, scholars have since observed that managing human-wildlife conflict has become a critical aspect of most local communities peripheral to wildlife sanctuaries in southern Africa. A research in communal lands adjacent SVC found out that elephants, buffaloes, hyenas and lions were the most problematic animals in the area (Mhuriro-Mashapa *et al*. (2017:1678).

Quite a number of challenges highlighted were unique to the SV and thus made for original contribution (Figure 5.7). These included trees used for carving being extinct, bad state of the roads resulting in inability to transport products to other places and a number of issues emanating from the bad relations between local

residents and safari operators. In addition, reactionary practices such as bushmeat poaching and vandalising of the perimeter fence reported by some respondents could be interpreted as expressions of despair and resentment due to *manipulation, therapy* or *tokenism* by elitist and bureaucratic development planners, government, politicians and local authorities in a region (Arnstein, 1969, Okazaki, 2008). On the other hand some scholars (Bond *et al*., 2004; Wolmer *et al*., 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008) interpreted the destructive practices as the negative effects of an exclusionist top-down approach to community development, and political machinations, which leave local community residents with no alternative sources of livelihood.

As discussed earlier, challenges that respondents reported Figure 5.6 and Figure 5.7 were mentioned at different frequency but seemed to be equally important. Most respondents opted for co-operative CBT business ownership to express lack of capital of their own because they perceived that development partners preferred to fund groups rather than individuals. These responses did not come as a surprise as they had been raised in other studies such as lacking credit worthiness (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016), scarce financial resources (Tosun, 2013:624) and inadequate business skills (Kontogeorgopoulos *et al*., 2014, Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2017). Some of the challenges were similar to those cited by Halstead (2003); Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2012); Chili and Mabaso (2016); Lucchetti and Font (2013); Dodds *et al*. (2016) including lack of access to foreign markets, threat of economic collapse poor marketing capability as some of the challenges faced by CBT enterprises and poor business skills (Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018).

5.2.7 THEME 7: Possible solutions to CBT challenges

The respondents appeared very clear on what they thought should be done to increase the success of CBT projects in Save Valley. Figure 5.8 is a thematic analysis of some of the captured opinions of the respondents regarding possible solutions to the CBT challenges in the SV. As shown in Figure 5.8 the solutions include forming joint ventures which enable CBT to access the market, training,

creating an enabling environment through government policy and legislation, resolving land tenure issue, promoting participation of local people in tourism, erecting the perimeter fence, involving people in decision making in programmes such as Save Valley Chiefs Trust, and eviction of illegal settlers.

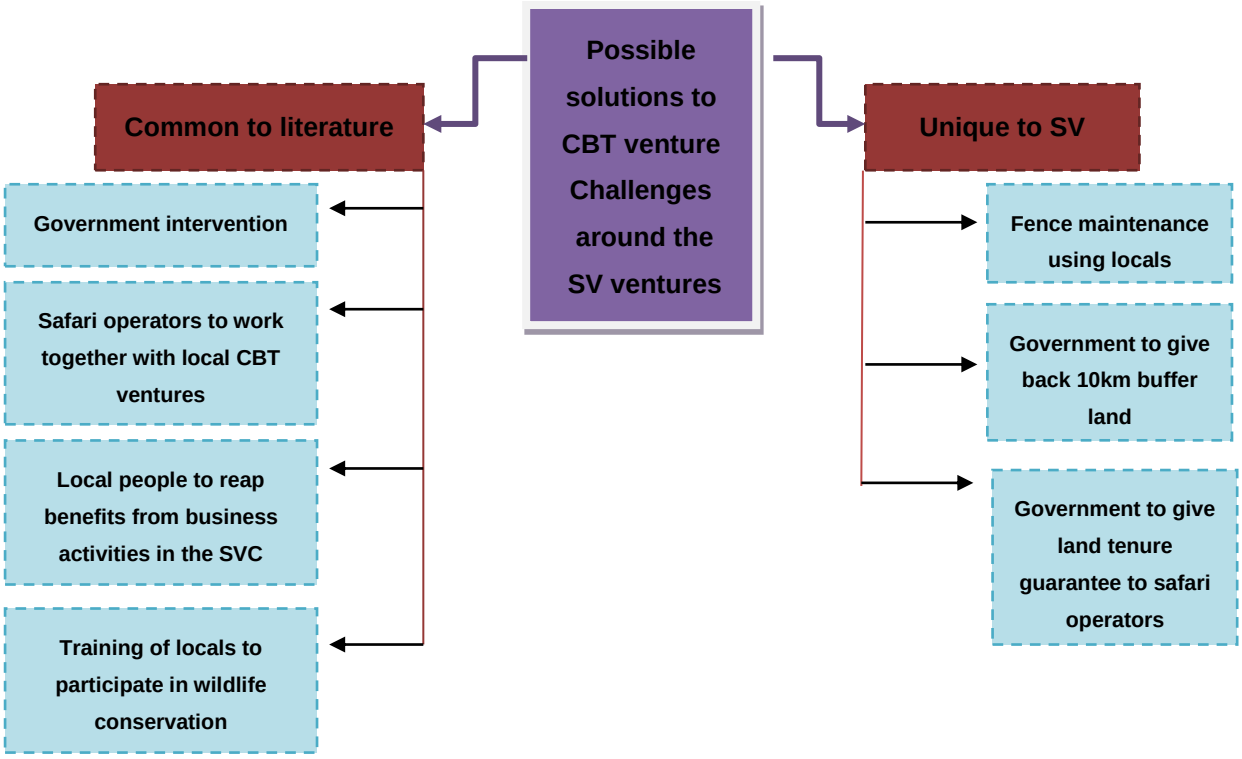

Figure 5.8: Possible solutions to CBT challenges around the SVC

> *'Safari operators should take part in joint ventures where they will provide marketing and running of the safari business on behalf of the community. There need for government intervention to break that impasse'. (**District Administrator**)*
>
> *'It is the responsibility of the safari operators and the community to come together to harmonise their operations so that the community derive benefits. As it is, the local communities are bitter in that they are not getting benefits from the hunting occurring in SVC'. (**Top Council Official**)*
>
> *'Safari operators should assist the communities with technical advice. Government must work to create an easy working environment for joint ventures to operate in without too much red tape and interference'. (**Councillor)***

Because most respondents admitted that relations between safari operators and local communities in Save Valley were sour and were impeding community

development, there was therefore need to explore option they preferred to bring about better relations to stimulate cooperation between the two groups as well as ensuring that tourism benefits trickle down to local people as shown in Figure 5.8. Figure 5.8 shows that some respondents called upon government to intervene and assist in easing tensions caused by human-animal conflict. They also felt that the government was supposed to bring to finality the land tenure security guarantees to ease the anxiety and uncertainty among the safari operators to enable them to collaborate with their neighbours in the surrounding communities in initiating and developing CBT ventures. Furthermore some respondents saw the need for the residents to cooperate with each other while the government was called upon to be proactive in promoting and expanding private wildlife enterprises championed by the capital rich safari operators leading to skills transfer to local communities.

> *'It is the responsibility of the safari operators and the community to come together to harmonise their operations so that the community derive benefits. As it is the local communities are bitter in that they are not getting benefits from the hunting occurring in SVC'. (**Village Head 3**)*
>
> *'Government must allow the private enterprise to do most of the business side whilst members of the community learn and protect the resources they have. The private sector has the money and know-how. The communities have the land. Combining the two is most lucrative'. (**Safari Operator** 1)*

Some respondents acknowledged that the government was aware of the need to intervene by creating conditions that would ensure local people also benefit from tourism in the Save Valley as exemplified below.

> *'Currently we are in the process of finalising the Save Valley Chiefs Trust. We have done the deed of trust and opened a bank account. We have signed an M.O.U. whereby communities will get 30% of the proceeds from hunting through ZimParks'. (**Chief)***

They reported that a non-participatory stance to share ownership called Save Valley Chiefs' Trust (SVCT) which in the process of being finalised to try to quell the unrest and ameliorate conflict in the area. The report further stated that a memorandum of understanding (MOU) had been signed between the chiefs in communal lands

surrounding SVC, government represented by National Parks, and the safari operators, which would award 30% of the profits from hunting safari to SVCT. The money would be remitted to the trust account through National Parks to be used to assist communities. However, there was no report from the respondents about consultation, participation or involvement of ordinary community residents in the programme, which was meant to bring benefits to the local residents directly or indirectly. This raised pertinent questions about its sustainability and effectiveness in reducing conflict and eventually poverty in the area.

In addition, some respondents seemed to appreciate the need for inclusivity in wildlife conservation CBT to attain a win-win contractual agreement. Others were of the view that their possible involvement wildlife conservation would lead to further losses of both land and livestock. Safari Operators wanted eviction of evicting community members who invaded some parts of the conservancy, depoliticising safari operations, and giving back to local people the buffer zone as illustrated below.

> *'The illegal settlers should be evicted. Fences should be erected. Local people should partner with other SVC operators and introduce wildlife and get the areas operating again'. (**Safari Operator** 1)*
>
> *'Government should give its political blessing and support for the operation of community based tourism businesses'. (**Safari Operator 2**)*
>
> *'Government should give back to us the 10km buffer zone'. (**Village Head 2**)*

During the interviews the respondents cited other strategies that would improve community relations such restoring the original electric fence to confine wildlife in SVC, convening stakeholders meetings on a regular basis, sub-contracting fence maintenance to local communities, education and awareness programmes, and involvement of local communities in wildlife tourism through CBT. It would be, therefore, prudent to take into account both the contradictions and points of agreement into the design of the CBT facilitation framework that would ensure adoption of the programmes and their sustainability. For instance, in Namibia laws were passed to support the concept of community conservancies, a concept that some respondents alluded to ensure local communities derive benefits from and see

value in wildlife conservation. Similarly new legislation is required to all the contested issues particular land tenure and wildlife conservation. This approach would naturally quell both human and human-animal conflicts in the region as well as diversify sources of income for the local communities.

The literature also confirms that tokenism or manipulation is widespread globally where local communities within natural environments similar to Save Valley received only minor benefits such as employment as guides, cleaners, drivers, or casual labourers earning low wages that contributed minimally to uplifting local living standards (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Sebele, 2010) such as the example of Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, Uganda where the forest used to be the main source of livelihood for locals before being turned into a national park (Mugyenyi *et al*., 2014:1). As illustrated in Figure 5.8 possible solutions to challenges unique to the SV revolve around the perimeter fence that was fallen at the time of the study. The safari operators claimed that locals deliberately destroyed the fence because they wanted to poach, while locals shared that safari operators deliberately left the fence unrepaired because they wanted wild animals to destroy their crops and kill their livestock with the hope that they would retreat thus leaving more land to the SVC.

5.2.8 Theme 8: Internal facilitation of CBT ventures in Save Valley

During interviews it emerged that facilitation of CBT could only be achievable with vibrant and committed *internal* and *external* facilitation which would address the critical challenges cited such as conflict, funding, access to markets and other issues summarised in Figure 5.9. The respondents seemed to think that internal facilitation was the responsibility of local stakeholders who should form a CBO with the chief, councillors, village heads or chairpersons and safari operators as key members. In addition, they emphasised the inclusion of local community members in the CBOs in order for them to collectively own and respect their CBT facilitation operations in the area.

> *'All stakeholders in the area should be represented in a CBO such as village chairpersons, safari operators, and interested NGOs e.g. Rhino Trust, Malilangwe'. (**District Administrator**)*

*'People such as village heads, chiefs, councillors and selected individuals with some knowledge of project management officials should constitute a CBO'. (**Top Council Official**)*

*'Chiefs, village heads, and civil servants such as EMA and Agritex staff should form a CBO'. (**Village Head 3**)*

*'All stakeholders in the area should be represented should fully represented'. (**Safari Operator 2).***

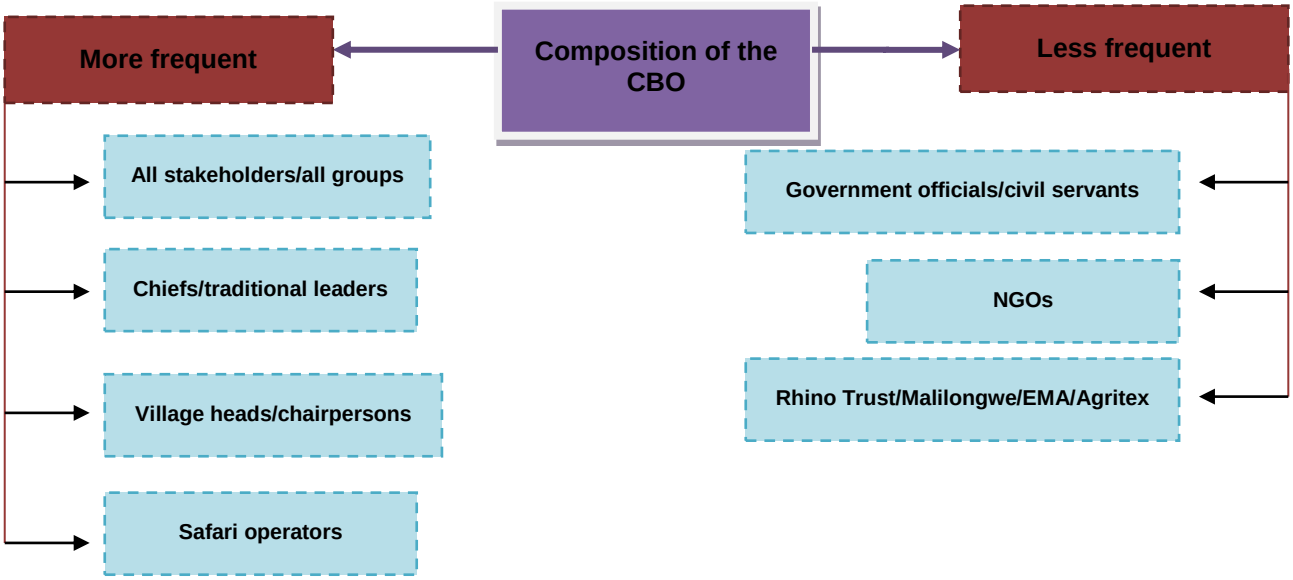

Figure 5.9: Composition of the CBO around the SV

Most of the respondents were in agreement that CBT could be a lucrative source of livelihood for the poor residents of the Save Valley who have for long been excluded, not only from participating in tourism actively, but also in deriving direct benefits for households from the wildlife tourism occurring in the region. It was the shared view of the respondents that CBOs comprising the chief, councillors, village heads or chairpersons, local NGOs, government representatives in the area, and safari operators would play the role of internal facilitators as narrated below and illustrated in Figure 5.9. The respondents felt that the safari operators could play the role of internal facilitation in those CBT projects with their requisite knowledge, skills and funding. Internal facilitation would ensure local community participation in decision making or top-down approach to decision making which excluded the views and wishes of ordinary community members as the main challenge to the effectiveness of CBOs. In other words, if people were not involved in the decision making that affected their welfare they would not support or own the decisions the CBO would

make. This perception conforms to what Abegunde (2009); Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010); Theerapappasit (2012); and Giampiccoli and Kalis (2012) who discovered that CBT should occur when supported and facilitated by the local community and when it takes a participatory bottom-up approach. Figure 5.9 shows that the respondents seemed to think that the wider the representation of stakeholders in the CBOs, the better the chances of them being successful in carrying out the interests of the local people and CBT ventures.

Figure 5.10 is a thematic analysis of the numerous CBT facilitation duties proposed by respondents such as out-sourcing capital for CBT projects, marketing of wares, confidence building, conflict resolution, education and training, and anti-poaching awareness campaign could be initiated. The respondents also shared what they perceived as the major constraints to the effectiveness of CBOs such as poor leadership skills, exclusion of some eminent members, corruption, and lack of funding. Some of the shared views on this matter are illustrated below:

> *'The CBO should not be dictatorial but should operate on a consultative basis where they get to the people and get to know how they want their affairs managed inter alia the management of their businesses. There is also need for the people to own the operations of the CBO. The major duty of a CBO is resource mobilisation and awareness campaign. The CBO can also be part of anti-poaching groups, and can also assist in the resolution of conflicts so rampant in Save Valley. They can also assist in infrastructure construction Poor leadership is a major weakness among local communities. We are also worried that there might exclusion of some members of the community'.* ***(Top Council Official)***
>
> *'CBOs should co-ordinating tourism projects owned by local people. They can also assist by sourcing funds to finance CBT projects. Lack of leadership skills is a serious problem I foresee'.* ***(Safari Operator 1)***
>
> *'CBOs should work to unite the people and resolve conflicts in the area. They should link up with the council or government. We may fail to get adequately qualified people in our area'.* ***(Village Head 3)***
>
> *CBOS should work together with the people coordinating the local tourism projects Lack of funding could be a serious problem for them. There is no way they could be effective without money.* ***(Safari Operator 2)***

Figure 5.10 captures the main duties and responsibilities of the CBOs according to the key informants. The interviewees in general cited failure to involve the community in decision making or top-down approach to decision making which excluded the views and wishes of ordinary community residents as the main

challenge to the effectiveness of CBOs. In other words, if people were not involved in the decision making that affected their welfare they would not support or own the decisions the CBO would make. However, the literature emphasised more on underfunding of CBOs by the government to provide the essential organisational functions required to meet their mandate as the most critical constraint (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Abegunde, 2009).

Figure 5.10: Main duties of CBOs

These duties are consistent with the description in the literature that CBOs should be voluntary, non-profit and highly localised institution whose objective is to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community, play a significant role as facilitators and supporters of CBT planning together with other external facilitators such as government and NGOs (Abegunde, 2009; Giampiccoli and Nauright 2010; Theerapappasit, 2012; Ali and Ali, 2014; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014). Figure 5.10 shows that the most frequent responses included fundraising, finding investors and donors, capacity development to enable CBT operators to run sustainable ventures and conflict resolution especially between local residents and safari operators. Other responses included dealing with corruption and exclusion of some people, project planning and coordination of CBT activities, liaison with the government and anti-poaching campaigns.

5.2.9 Theme 9: External Facilitators of CBT projects in the SV

A facilitation framework to promote CBT in the Save Valley should be able to address the expectations of the people and the challenges so that CBT can be embraced as an alternative or addition to subsistence farming to help improve the socio-economic lives of the people and aid wildlife conservation. In the facilitation equation the government, NGOs and safari operators were expected to play critical roles for capacity building. Typically, during the interviews the facilitation role of government was emphasised by the participants such as passing laws that legalised CBT operations and guaranteed security of tenure for all residents in the Save Valley, training of CBT entrepreneurs through its various arms, and development of infrastructure such as a good road networks.

The respondents felt that it was important for NGOs to work hand in hand with the local communities to provide the lacking skills, access markets and together with the government provide funding to initiate CBT ventures in the SV. The NGOs could provide training and funding. The external facilitators were also expected to play the role of conflict resolution to level the playing field for CBT ventures to prosper, while the government was expected to provide rules and regulations. A careful textural analysis in Figure 5.11 revealed a clear picture of high expectation from government, NGOs and safari operators. Respondents also picked on NGOs specifically for capacity building of local communities through funding and training so that they could easily take up CBT initiatives on a sustainable basis. For instance, some respondents suggested that NGOs could build standard thatched traditional huts or chalets, which they could then handover to some local CBT entrepreneurs keen on offering tourism accommodation.

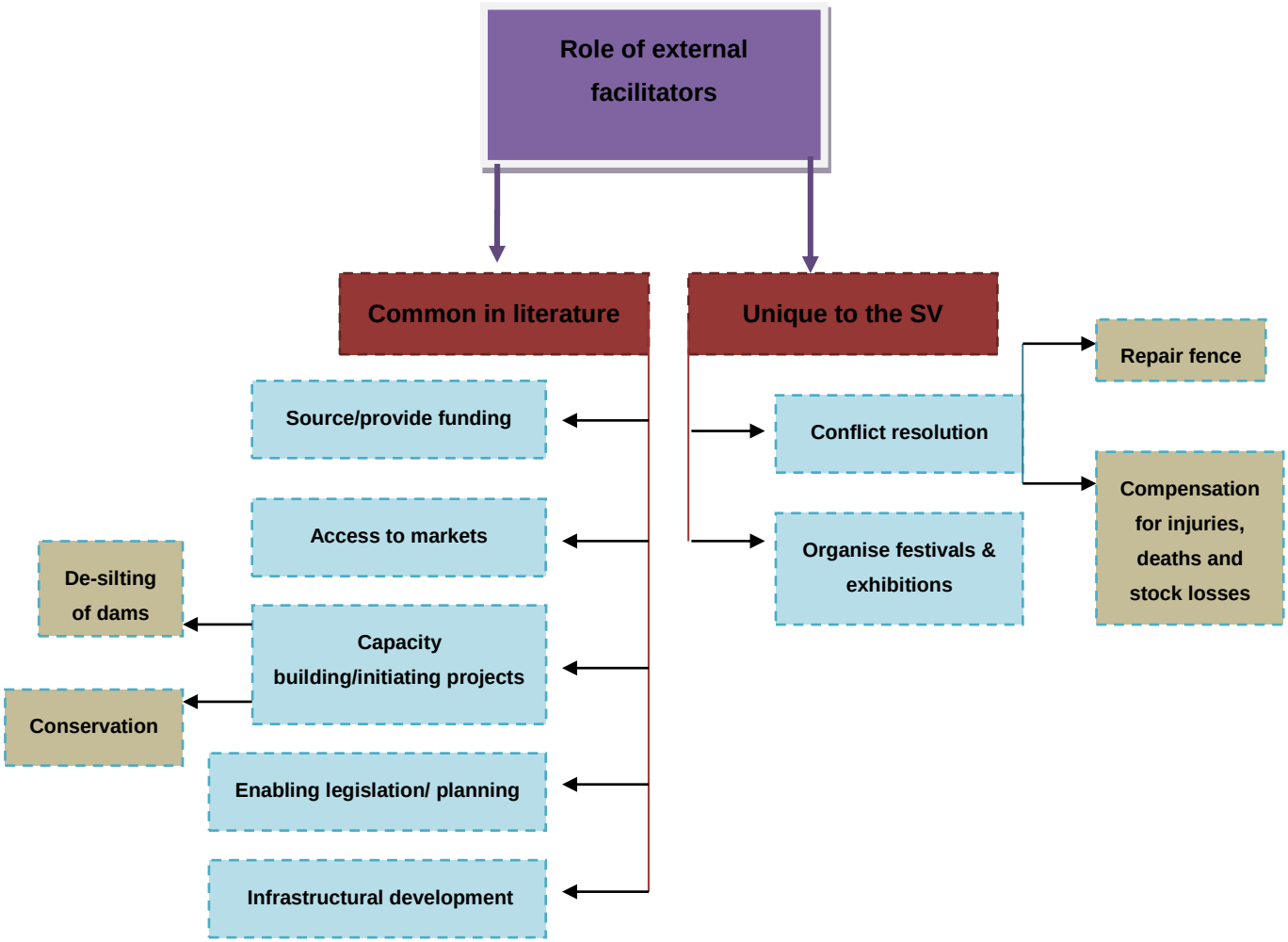

Figure 5.11: Duties of external facilitators around the SVC

Other interviewees proposed that NGOs could provide funding for erecting electric fences around community conservancies which would be run by the local residents themselves with technical assistance from safari operators. Some of the views pregnant with ideas expressed by the respondents are given below:

> *Donors and safari operators should initiate CBT for local people. Government should also play a role such as passing laws which harmonise safari operations CBT and providing funding such as loans and grants'.* ***(Village Head 2)***
>
> *Marketing, adverting and organising exhibitions should be done by government with support from NGOs. Safari operators should market products from local people.* ***(Councillor)***

*Safari operators should take part in joint ventures where they will provide marketing and running of the safari business on behalf of the community as well as training and initiation or awareness campaigns on wildlife conservation CBT. (**District Administrator**)*

*'NGOs should assist through providing finance for fencing and training. The government should sub-contracting local residents to repair game fences'. (**Chief)***

More importantly, responses from interviews revealed that the Zimbabwean Government was expected to enact laws and policies that would provide an enabling environment for CBT operations including providing guarantees of security of land tenure to safari operations, and conflict resolution. These results are consistent with findings from earlier studies in other countries such as Sebele (2010) in Botswana, Kipleu *et al*. (2014:78) in Amboseli, Kenya, Nyakunu and Rogerson (2014:7) in Caprivi, Namibia and Yusof *et al*., 2012; Salley *et al*., 2014) in Malaysia. Respondents expressed high optimism that NGOs would provide the necessary funding, training and other facilities for capacity which would not be unique to Zimbabwe as NGOs have a fundamental role in assisting local communities involved in CBT ventures through skills training and marketing of wares, access to credit and business training in areas such as Jordan (Mustafa, 2011:148), and South Africa (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015: 4). Figure 5.11 is a thematic analysis of the perceived roles of external facilitators of CBT projects because of the mandate they carry, financial muscle, knowledge and skills or legitimacy as community leaders.

The majority of the perceived duties of CBT external facilitators are common in literature as illustrated in Figure 5.12. These included sourcing of funding, facilitation of access to markets, capacity building, enabling legislation by the government and infrastructural development. Only two responses were unique to the SV and they were resolution of the conflict between local communities and safari operators caused by the fallen fence leading to vandalism of their crops and killing of their livestock by stray wild animals. They also indicated that conflict resolution had to include compensation for loss, injuries and even deaths in some cases. The respondents also expressed a wish that external CBT facilitators organise festivals and exhibitions to bring people to the area which would enable them to sell their products and market themselves.

5.3 QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The questionnaire survey was used because of its ability to gather descriptive data from a big number of people cost and time effectively while also covering a range of themes (Creswell, 2009; Glasow, 2005). In addition, the surveys were capable of eliciting data about the attitudes or perceptions of households' leaders in the Save Valley. The questionnaires were distributed to 54 households in the three villages, Village 3 in Ward 24, Village 10 in Ward 25, and Village 20 in Ward 26 selected using stratified convenience sampling technique to try and distribute sample selection equitably across all three wards and villages. Households were selected due to accessibility as well as location close to the SVC from all the three wards. The questionnaire was composed of a variety of elements, which included demographic and social-economic data of the respondents such as gender, age, marital status, sources of income (important to determine who they were and what their socio-economic status was), aspects of CBT such as source of capital, type of CBT, challenges to CBT and solutions. The questionnaire also contained items on attributes of CBOs and external facilitators of CBT such as government, NGOs and safari operators as identified from the interviews. All the questionnaires were returned and usable because either the researcher of a research assistant was present to assist in completion and collection.

From each of the household the head was selected as the respondent. In this study the household head was defined as the adult male or female individual who played leadership or support roles in the family and was present at the time of the survey. Ultimately all 54 questionnaires were returned constituting 100% of the sample and they were all usable. Research assistants were used to deliver and help administer the questionnaires containing structured and semi-structured question items. In cases where the respondent was literate the questionnaire was self-administered allowing respondents to complete it by him/herself. However, in cases where the respondents were illiterate, the researcher or assistants administered the questionnaire as it happened in 14.8% of the cases. The questionnaires were

collected by the researcher or assistants immediately after completion while the outstanding ones were collected at a later date.

This subsection concentrates on presenting, analysing and interpreting data collected through a questionnaire survey with general informants who were household heads. Abeyasekera (n.d) argues that quantitative data analysis approaches are quite helpful when the qualitative data has been collected in some structured way. The structure of data presentation was guided by the structure of the questionnaire. Because the bulk of the data collected was nominal data a number of descriptive statistical techniques were used such as percentages, pie charts, bar graphs, and cross tabulations data analysis and presentation. It is important to highlight that the number did not always add up to 54 because the respondents were allowed to select more than one option on the questionnaire.

5.3.1 Demographic data

The questionnaire survey targeted household heads. In the survey 63% of the respondents were women while men constituted 37% as shown in Figure 5.12. The survey results on gender are indicative of the predominance of female headed households in Save Valley, a factor that has negative implications on access to resources such as land or livestock.

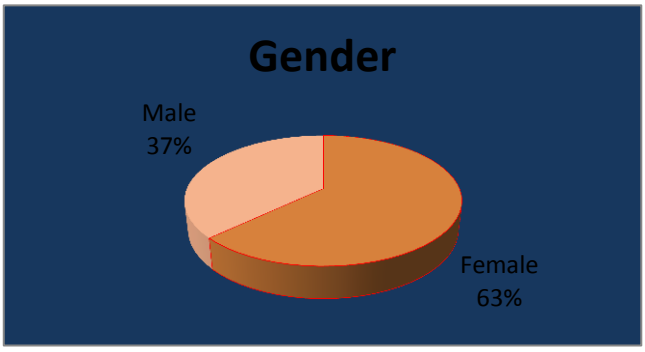

Figure 5.12: Gender of respondents

The gender composition of the respondents would be correlated with other variables that emerged from the survey to bring out the bigger picture of the potential of CBT facilitation in the Save Valley.

5.3.2 Gender and highest level of education attained by household head

Educational attainment of the household heads that comprised the sample in the survey was also studied as it influences, to a high degree, the capability of a household to raise resources for its well-being as well as adopting alternative livelihoods such as CBT.

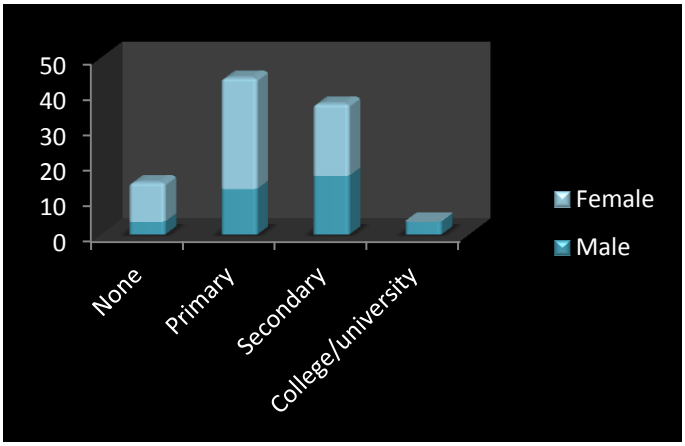

Figure 5.13: Percentage composition of respondents by gender and highest education attained by respondents

The survey revealed that the mode, as shown in Figure 5.13, was primary level with 44.4% of the respondents, most of whom 31.5% were female household heads while 37% of the respondents had secondary education. The respondents who reported having never attended school comprised 14.8%, and the majority of them were female as shown in Figure 5.13. The statistics contained in Figure 5.13 create an insight into the gender capacity of the people in the Save Valley to adopt alternative livelihoods associated with CBT. A bigger picture of the effect of educational attainment CBT facilitation would emerge when correlated with other variables covered in the survey. The significantly high number of respondents in the sample

who attained secondary was indicative of the trainability of the population in new skills to diversity livelihoods. The fairly high literacy rate of 85.2% is also an indicator of high versatility in taking up new livelihoods such as CBT with appropriate facilitation.

5.3.3 Marital status and source of income of household head

As illustrated on Figure 5.14, 74.1% reported being in a form of marriage. The statistics showed that marriage as an institution was almost universal in communities of the SV. Marital status is an important factor in the communal areas of Save Valley because it influences access to and ownership of important resources such as land and castle. The high value of household heads in marriage is a positive factor for adoption of CBT in Save Valley.

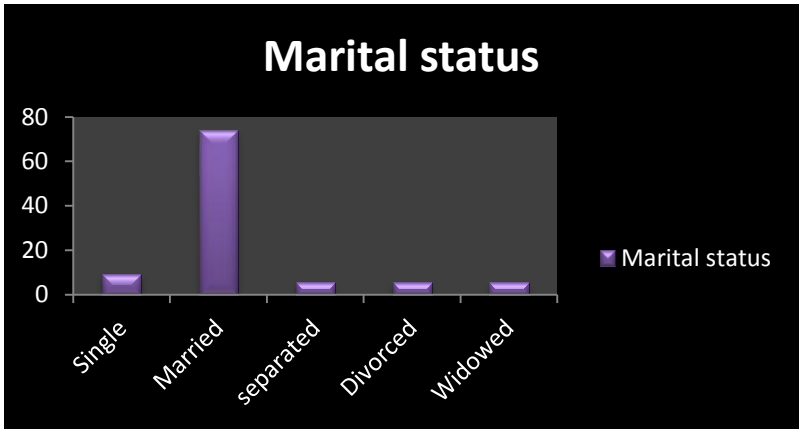

Figure 5.14: A bar chart showing percentage composition by marital status of respondents

In that regard the population of vulnerable households of those outside marriage though relatively small, was still quite significant (12.1%) and comprised widowed persons, divorcees and the separated who would need greater attention during CBT facilitation as they were the sole bread winners. By correlating age at last birthday and sources of income interesting scenarios emerge as illustrated on Table 5.2. Essentially, the results show that all age groups of the respondents including the elderly, (61.9%) who depended heavily on farming while 27.8% performed casual work and 14.8% were self-employment suggesting high vulnerability to poverty as

these livelihoods were unreliable and susceptible to periodic shocks such droughts typical of the region and other hazards.

Table 5.2: Cross tabulation of age at last birthday and source of household income

		Main source of income %						
		Formal employment	Casual work	Self employment	Livestock	Crops	Formal business	Total %
Age at last birthday	19-40	0.0	14.8	9.3	3.7	13.0	1.9	42.6
	41-60	3.7	5.6	5.6	11.1	11.1	0.0	37.0
	61-80	0.0	7.4	0.0	7.4	3.7	0.0	18.5
	81-100	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	1.9
Total		3.7	27.8	14.8	24.1	27.8	1.9	100

By correlating gender and source of income as shown in Table 5.3, survey results show that female headed households (63.0%), which depended, largely on crop farming (24.1%), performing casual work (22.2%), livestock (7.4%) and self-employment (9.2%) vastly outnumbered their male counterparts (37.0%) indicating higher vulnerability to poverty. This scenario brings into the fore the need for a CBT facilitation framework which addresses the needs of the different groups in the society including disadvantaged households particularly female headed ones. Essentially, the CBT facilitation should be one that ensures community beneficiation and gender empowerment to alleviate poverty, develop capacity and facilitate participation in CBT.

Table 5.3: Cross tab of Gender and sources of income

		Main source of income %						
		Formal employment	Casual work	Self employment	Livestock	Crops	Formal business	Total %
Gender	Male	3.7	5.6	5.6	16.7	3.7	1.9	37.0
	Female	0.0	22.2	9.2	7.4	24.1	0.0	63.0
Total		3.7	27.8	14.8	24.1	27.8	1.9	100

5.3.4 Level of education attained and choice of CBT venture

The survey explored the most suitable types of CBT ventures the respondents would choose to adopt willingly as a means to diversify their sources of household income, mindful of the fact that they lived next to or within an active tourist attraction, the SVC. Table 5.4 correlates the level of educational attained by a respondent household head and the preferred CBT venture. This study argues that there is a direct correlation between a respondent's level of educational attainment and the CBT venture preference. Relating the two variables brought about an understanding of the respondents' CBT preferences and current level of participation in tourism which would inform the formulation of a facilitation framework to enhance participation in and improve sustainability of CBT ventures. Table 5.4 illustrates that vegetable outgrowing was preferred as the modal CBT venture to 63.0% of the respondents, the majority of whom (46.3%), were lowly educated with only primary schooling or none.

Table 5.4: Highest education attained and CBT choice

		Highest level of education %				
		Primary	Secondary	College University	None	Total %
Suitable tourism projects for local members	Provide visitors with overnight accommodation	0.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	3.7
	Making handicrafts and artwork	3.7	13.0	0.0	1.9	18.5
	Cultural dance and music	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	7.4
	Outgrowing vegetables and other businesses	35.2	16.7	0.0	11.1	63.0
	Wildlife conservation	3.7	1.9	1.9	0.0	7.4
Total		44.3	37.2	3.7	14.8	100

These respondents regarded vegetable outgrowing as a low skill activity and felt that they already had the requisite skills to produce the vegetables on contract with established tourism businesses. They also assumed the existence of a ready market for vegetables at the tourism business establishments in SVC such as lodges, hotels and compounds. The number does not add up to 54 households because each respondent was allowed to select more than one option. Respondents with higher levels of education accounting for 40.0% of the total such as secondary and tertiary

were more versatile in their preference for CBT ventures, and were prepared to venture into new businesses such as offering tourist accommodation, cultural dance and music, handicrafts making, and wildlife conservation.

Table 5.5: Gender and choice of CBT venture

		Gender %		
		Male	Female	Total %
Suitable tourism projects for local members	Provide visitors with overnight accommodation	3.7	0.0	3.7
	Making handicrafts and artwork	11.1	7.4	18.5
	Cultural dance and music	5.6	1.9	7.4
	Outgrowing vegetables and other businesses	9.2	53.7	63.0
	Wildlife conservation	7.4	0.0	7.4
Total		37.0	63.0	100

Therefore, basing on the low skill levels shown in Table 5.5 (14.8% no formal education at all and 44.3% with only primary level of education totalling to 59.1%), it would be naïve to ignore the precarious economic situation in Save Valley if wildlife conservation in SVC has to be sustainable. Table 5.5 shows a clear gender bias of CBT choices as most of the respondents amounting to 53.7% who selected vegetable outgrowing were female respondents. More so 62.9% of all respondents preferred vegetable outgrowing despite recurrent droughts and crop vandalism by wild animals escaping the SVC due to poorly maintained fence.

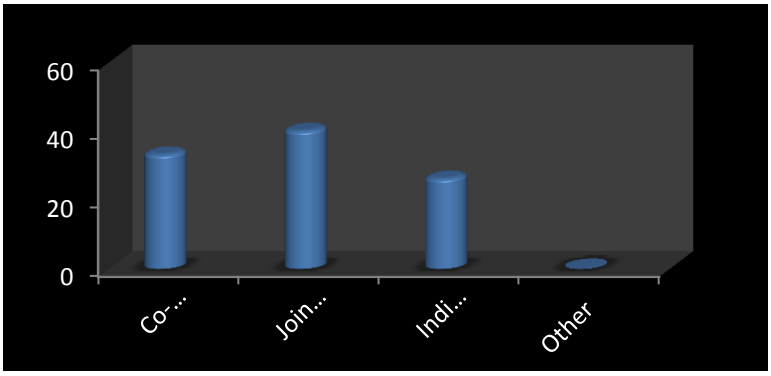

Figure 5.15: Preferred CBT ownership arrangements as a percentage (%)

On the other hand male respondents were more versatile in their choices and willing to venture into new areas such as wildlife conservation (7.4%), handicrafts (11.1%) accommodation (3.7%) and cultural dance and music (5.6%). In terms of business ownership arrangements, household heads reported ownership preferences such as co-operative (about 37.0%), joint ventures with established tourism businesses in the area (about 45.0%) and individual/household ownership (about 30.0%) as shown on Figure 5.15.

5.3.4.1 Reasons for preference of CBT ownership arrangement

Table 5.6: Reported reasons for preferring a particular ownership arrangement of a CBT business

Individual/family	Co-operative	Joint venture
A family business is easy to run or manage.	There is sharing of ideas and costs.	Established tourism businesses have the capacity to sponsor CBT.
A family project is well-guided by relationships and discipline.	Chances of success are high.	It enables transfer of managerial skills.
		It enables access to tourism market facilities.

It is clear from Table 5.6 that a collaborative ownership arrangement was preferred by the majority of respondents (82.0%) because they promote sharing of ideas, improve chances of business success, attract sponsorships, promote transfer of skills and enhance access to markets. This information would inform the formulation of a CBT facilitation framework for the region. The results of the survey on a variety of indices show similarities and contrasts with studies conducted elsewhere in similar context. Furthermore a wide range of factors that influence choice of CBT ventures emerged from both the results of the survey and the literature. For instance gender and educational attainment of the potential CBT entrepreneurs in this study were similar to observations made in the buffer zone around Chitwan National Park in Nepal. In this study respondents with primary level constituted 44.4% most of whom, 31.5%, were female household heads while 37.0% of the respondents had

secondary education. These results were consistent with provisions of the 'participation and power redistribution theory' which underpinned this study in that local people were incapacitated by poor education and lacked decision making power (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008).

It was thus not surprising that the majority of respondents in the survey selected vegetable outgrowing which they regarded as a low skill activity which they already had acquired, and assumed ready market for vegetables at the tourism business establishments in SVC such as lodges, hotels and compounds. The results of the survey portray low levels of community participation in wildlife tourism which may be regarded as non-participation, tokenism, manipulation or placation (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). Agricultural CBT projects reported as popular by mostly women in this survey were also reported as the main source of livelihood in Nepal where vegetable and fruit production, fish, eggs, and chickens were critical livelihoods for lowly educated youths and women in the buffer zone around Chitwan National Park sold to nearby lodges, restaurants and hotels (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011: 1355).

In agreement with the results of this survey gender, source of income and education were regarded as critical factors in CBT choice. Rogerson and Rogerson (2011:11736) argued that lowly educated women in underdeveloped regions chose handicraft production because it increased their sense of dignity and well-being. Indeed the dominance of women in this survey and in CBT ventures in general, the majority of whom lacking formal education has been attributed to desperation and opportunity seeking. Furthermore, the results of the survey show a clear gender and educational divide in the choice of CBT so that male respondents with higher levels of education such as secondary and tertiary were more versatile in their preference for CBT ventures, and prepared to venture into new businesses such as offering tourist accommodation, handicrafts making, and wildlife conservation. In this study 37.2% of the respondents had secondary and higher education, and their choices of CBT were spread across the list including accommodation and wildlife conservation. Yet the least educated and poorest (mainly women) shunned accommodation and wildlife conservation.

However, research results from studies conducted elsewhere show neither significant influence of educational attainment, nor gender on the choice of CBT in situations where local people benefitted from capacity building and devolution of decision making power, and were operating at higher rungs of the 'participation and power redistribution theory'. For instance, in South Africa lowly educated and poorest members of communities, owned SSMEs which dominated in the niche tourism markets supplying backpacker and cultural accommodation, and guesthouses most of which were located in townships and remote rural areas (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016; Hlengwa and Thusi, 2018). Studies carried out in south-east Asia have shown that the homestay programmes have been widely adopted the poor mainly women and the elderly in countries such as Malaysia and Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos*et al.,* 2015; Ibrahim and Razzaq, 2010). In Ghana small accommodation businesses were largely family owned and operated more or less like homestays without any gender or educational bias (Mensah-Ansah, 2014:2).

Studies conducted in other countries indicate that other factors were more important in influencing CBT choices than level of education or gender as implied by this study as an indication of devolution of decision making power to the local people. For instance, in Asia studies have also shown that the decline in natural resources tended to influence villagers to increase their willingness to participate in tourism enterprises such as trekking tours and homestays through a bottom-up approach (Theerapappasit, 2012:270). It is likely that as the communal people around SVC experience resource depletion due to recurrent droughts and acquire greater decision making power they will become versatile in adopting CBT projects such as homestays or lodges, and wildlife conservation with proper facilitation and capacity building to diversify their sources of family income and reduce poverty levels. Other studies have noted that once people have decision making power they can operate CBT projects profitably even with little or no infrastructure or even operating from their homes using locally available materials, and applying simple traditional skills and technology passed on from generation to generation in CBT ventures such as handicraft CBT ventures without gender or formal education bias envisaged in this study (Makhado and Kepe, 2006; Mustafa, 2011; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015) as in

Malaysia handicrafts were started by the poor and marginalised people with little education or capital who resided in villages and who had extensive traditional knowledge (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015:5).

The results of the survey also expose the influence of lack of a CBT facilitation framework to guide local communities in CBT ventures creation and sustainability other than gender or level of education. For instance in Caprivi, Namibia and Botswana, wildlife, accommodation, handicrafts and other CBT ventures were adopted successfully irrespective of gender or level of education due to the existence of facilitation frameworks (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014). In South Africa handicrafts have been promoted through CBT framework known as the Local Economic Development Initiative (LDEI) (a bottom-up approach) designed to counter the failure of top-down government approaches to combat unemployment and poverty through the promotion of inclusivity and cooperation between local communities and various other stakeholders (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015:2). Therefore, an appropriate facilitation framework was required to enable the initiation and adoption CBT ventures through collaboration and bottom-up approach in order to alleviate poverty in local communities while also contributing to biodiversity conservation taking into cognisance gender, education and other biographic limitations of the SV communities.

5.3.5 Initiation of CBT projects in Save Valley

Another highly contested item was about the responsibility to initiate CBT projects since none existed. Table 5.7 captures gender preferences of the responsibility to initiate CBT ventures in Save Valley. As illustrated on Table 5.7, responses to the question of who should initiate CBT projects in the SV were quite diverse for both male and female respondents.

Table 5.7: CBT initiation responsibility as a percentage (%)

		Who should initiate CBT projects?					
		Safari operators in neighbouring conservancies	Donor agencies	Government	Local people	Local people and support groups	Total
Gender	Male	3.7	7.4	11.1	1.8	13.0	37.0
	Female	1.8	13.0	16.7	5.5	26.0	63.0
Total		5.6	20.4	27.8	7.4	39.0	100

However, notable was that more female respondents (26.0%) than their male counterparts (13%) preferred collaboration of all local stakeholders. Also significantly rated in CBT project initiation were the roles of NGOs and donor agencies (20.4%) and government (27.8%). This perception would guide the formulation of a collaboration CBT facilitation approach. The survey also explored the challenges the respondents anticipated which could hinder the viability of CBT projects. Table 5.8 summarises the perceived hindrances to the success of CBT ventures in Save Valley according to gender. An appropriate facilitation framework should ensure that that these expected hindrances are taken into account. All the hindrances to success were rated as important for any of the proposed CBT projects by both male and female respondents.

Table 5.8: Gender perception of CBT success challenges as percentage (%)

		Gender %		
		Male	Female	Total %
Worst challenge hindering success of locally owned tourism micro-enterprises	Lack of access to markets for products	9.3	16.7	26.0
	Low quality products and services	9.3	13.0	22.2
	Lack of capital	11.1	25.9	37.0
	Poor infrastructure	1.8	1.9	3.7
	Lack of managerial skills for entrepreneurs	5.5	5.6	11.1
Total		37.0	63.0	100

Notable from Table 5.8 was that both male (11.1%) and female respondents (25.9%) rated lack of capital as the worst hindrance (37.0%). Both male and female respondents viewed the lack of market (26.0%) and lack of managerial skills (11.1%) as also important. The low quality of products and services (22.2%) was also cited as a hindrance to the success of CBT ventures in the SV.

5.3.6 Strategies for success and sustainability

Respondents proposed appropriate strategies to ensure the success of CBT projects in their contexts. Table 5.9 reflects the most important considerations cited by respondents by gender to ensure success of CBT projects. There was consensus across gender that training of CBT entrepreneurs was the most critical CBT success factor (77.8%), followed by access to markets (14.8%) while advertising (3.7%) and the quality of products (3.7%) were regarded as peripheral factors. This understanding would guide the formulation of an appropriate CBT facilitation in the region as skills training would have to top the agenda. While all the suggested enabling factors were considered as important, it regarded as critical according to the respondents to resolve human-wildlife and implement a new government policy that would bring the land issue to finality as also highlighted in the interviews.

Table 5.9: CBT success factors as a percentage (%)

		Gender %		
		Male	Female	Total %
How to ensure that local micro-tourism enterprises do not collapse	Skills training for entrepreneurs	27.8	50.0	77.8
	Access to markets	5.6	9.2	14.8
	Provision of advertising facilities	1.8	1.9	3.7
	Offer high quality tourism products	1.8	1.9	3.7
Total		37.0	63.0	100

Table 5.10 is comparative summary of the gender views on resolving human-wildlife conflict to pave way for local participation in wildlife CBT and collaboration with safari operators. There was consensus among male and female respondents about the need to erect perimeter fences by both government and safari operators (46.4%).

Table 5.10: Solutions to human-wildlife conflict as a percentage (%)

		Gender %		
		Male	Female	Total
Solution to human-wildlife conflict	Operators to build boundaries	5.6	13.0	18.6
	Government to rectify wildlife acts and erect fences	5.5	11.1	16.6
	Boundary fence need to be re-erected	14.8	13.0	27.8
	Poachers should be arrested and controlled	5.6	0.0	5.6
	Management workshops by government and operators	1.8	1.9	3.7
	Government policy to support locals	3.7	24.0	27.7
Total		37.0	63.0	100

Government policy support was also recommended much more by female (24.0%) than male respondents (3.7%) which could result in extension of the boundary of SVC by absorbing more communal dryland to create communal conservancies that would be run and managed by the local people themselves with assistance from safari operators and government. The scenario on Table 5.10 would guide the facilitation roles of the government and safari operators to ensure success of CBT projects.

5.3.7 Types and composition of CBOs

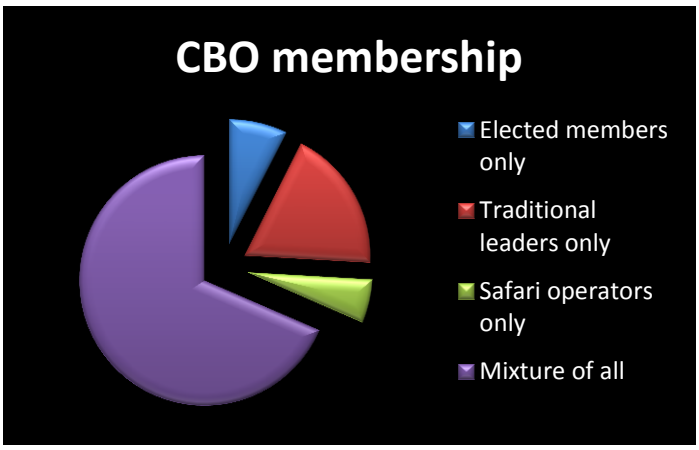

Figure 5.16: A pie-chart showing the preferred composition of a CBO

The respondents showed high appreciation of the role of CBOs in facilitating the establishment CBT ventures in Save Valley.

Table 5.11: Preferred composition of CBO as a percentage (%)

		Who are the people to constitute a CBO?				
		Elected community members only	Traditional leaders only	Safari operators only	A mixture of all the above groups	Total %
Gender	Male	1.8	9.2	3.7	22.3	37.0
	Female	5.5	9.2	1.9	46.3	63.0
Total		7.4	18.4	5.6	68.6	100

This preferred composition of the CBO should help to inform the structure of the CBT facilitation framework to ensure poverty reduction while also promoting wildlife conservation as it received an overwhelming majority (68.6%) over the other options. The survey also explored the duties respondents envisaged for the CBOs. Table 5.11 correlates the level of education and CBO duties suggested. The survey results showed that they were not decisive on particular duties as their choices spread across the list of proposals. However, the least educated (primary level) regarded coordination of CBT projects as the most critical duty (14.8%) while those with secondary education preferred most initiation of CBT projects (14.8%). Settling of internal disputes was marginally rated as important as shown in Table 5.12.

This understanding of the perceptions of respondents towards CBOs would inform the facilitation roles of CBO that will be enshrined in CBT facilitation framework to reduce poverty while also promoting the conservation of wildlife in Save Valley. According Table 5.12 lack of support for CBO was elected by 20.4% of the respondents with secondary education whereas 11.1% of with primary education were of the same view. On the other hand far more respondents with primary education (14.8%) regarded lack of funding as a more serious hindrance to effectiveness of CBOs as compared to 1.9% with secondary education.

Table 5.12: Perceived duties of CBO as a percentage (%)

		Most important duties and activities of CBOs					
		Convening meetings with Save Valley residents	Initiating tourism projects with locals	Co-ordinating local tourism projects	Sourcing external funding for CBT projects	Settling disputes	Total
Highest level of education	Primary	3.7	9.3	14.8	7.4	9.2	44.4
	Secondary	5.6	14.8	9.3	7.4	0.0	37.0
	College University	0.0	1.9	1.9	0.0	0.0	3.7
	None	1.9	7.3	0.0	5.6	0.0	13.0
Total		11.1	33.3	26.0	20.4	9.2	100

There was a general consensus between the surveyed respondents and the literature about the necessity of CBOs on local facilitation of CBTs for sustainability purposes. The results of the survey and the literature concurred with the provisions of the 'participation and power redistribution theory' which underpins this study. The majority of respondents preferred a CBO comprising a mixture of elected local officials, traditional leaders, and safari operators from SVC. Comparatively, the literature also remarks that CBOs, as voluntary, non-profit and highly localised institutions, play a crucial role as facilitators and supporters of CBT planning and development (Abegunde, 2009; Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010; Ali and Ali, 2014). Studies have confirmed that villagers had trust for their local leaders like headmen, local committees, and representatives who voiced their needs to local authorities through a bottom-up approach (Toyobo and Muili 2008; Abegunde, 2009). Essentially, local community leadership should be emphasised as a key success factor for collaborative approach to internally facilitate CBT, and building community capacity for tourism development (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012:182).

The results of the survey showed five key duties listed in descending selection order as follows: initiating tourism projects, co-ordinating CBT ventures, sourcing funds, convening stakeholder meetings, and settling disputes. Literature reviewed concur with the survey results that CBOs were capable of luring external funding from NGOs, donor organisations and government to empower the local communities and unlock their socio-economic opportunities for the future (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Lindsey *et al*. 2008; Lapeyre, 2010). However, studies noted a more detailed fundraising role than the survey results such as from internal sources including levies of members, aid, donations, appeal funds, fines, organisation of bazaars, and loans from wealthier members (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Ali and Ali, 2014).

Research has also shown that the collaborative and partnership role of CBOs, consistent with the 'participation and power redistribution theory', lowers the risk of failure of CBT entirely initiated and owned by the community as well as acting as the tourism committee that ensure local management and empowerment through adult

education and skills training to members (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Halstead, 2003; Kiss, 2004; Dodds*et al.,* 2016).

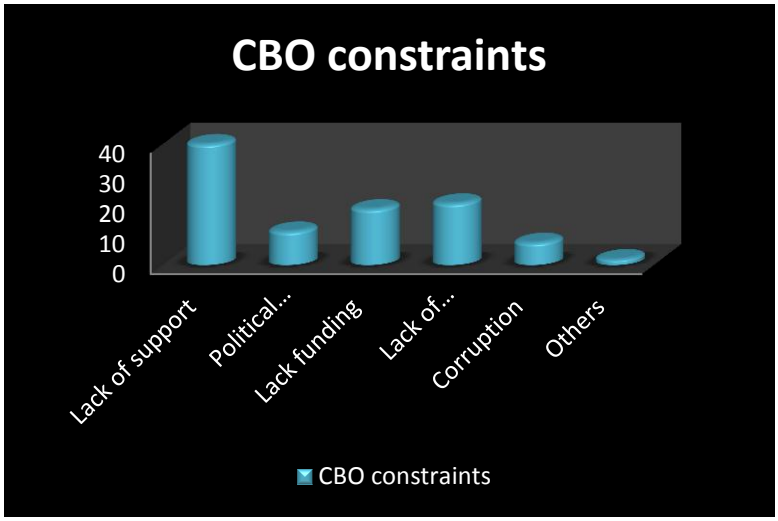

Figure 5.17: A bar chart showing the constraints of the CBO rated as a percentage

Essentially, an appropriate CBT facilitation framework would necessarily take cognisance of the role of CBOs, gender, education and other biographic attributes of the local people. An understanding of these constraints would inform the formulation of a facilitation framework for CBT in Save Valley. The results of the survey as indicated on Figure 5.17 and Table 5.13 highlighted lack of support (40.7%), lack of leadership skills (20.4%) and lack of funding (18.6%) as the major constraints limiting the effectiveness of CBOs.

Table 5.13: Worst challenges limiting effectiveness of CBOs

		Worst challenges limiting effectiveness of CBOs						
		Lack of support	Political interference	Lack of funding	Lack of leadership skills	Corrupt practice	Others	Total
Highest level of education	Primary	11.1	3.7	14.8	9.3	3.7	1.9	44.4
	Secondary	20.4	7.4	1.9	3.7	3.7	0.0	37.0
	College University	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	3.7
	None	9.2	0.0	1.8	3.7	0.0	0.0	13.0
Total		40.7	11.1	18.6	20.4	7.4	1.9	100

An understanding of the inherent challenges would inform the development of a suitable facilitation structure for success and sustainability of CBT ventures resulting in poverty alleviation and wildlife conservation. However, the literature emphasised more on underfunding of CBOs by the government to provide the essential organisational functions required to meet their mandate as the most critical constraint (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Department of Environmental Affairs (DEAT, n.d).

The results of the survey confirmed the existence of constraints that threatened the viability and sustainability of CBT ventures. The constraints were consistent with the lower rungs of the 'participation and power redistribution theory' which would lead to non-participation, tokenism or manipulation of the local people. In descending order of citation, the potential constraints to the initiation and sustainability of CBT projects in Save Valley included lack of capital, lack of markets, low quality products, lack of managerial skills, human-wildlife conflict, and poor infrastructure particularly roads. These results suggest community incapacitation and lack of decision-making power. The results concur with the literature where the sustainability of CBT ventures has been doubted (Lapeyre, 2010: 1) because of these numerous hindrances. These hindrances to CBT development in poor areas in LEDCs have been articulated by many scholars such as Goodwin and Santilli (2009); Lapeyre (2010); Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010); Lucchetti and Font (2013); Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2015); Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017).

The results of this study and the literature are consistent with aspects of the underpinning theory, 'participation and power redistribution theory' because by citing those constraints respondents were communicating despair and resentment due to *non-participation* in tourism by local residents*, manipulation, therapy* or *tokenism* by elitist and bureaucratic development planners, government, politicians and local authorities(Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008). Some scholars consider human-wildlife conflict in Save Valley as almost inevitable from the onset due to non-participation

(Bond *et al*., 2004; Cumming, 2005; Lindsey *et al*., 2008). Other scholars have interpreted the poaching scenario implied by Table 5.13 as a consequence of despair and resentment by the local people, the negative effects of an exclusionist top-down approach to tourism development, and political machinations, which leaves them with no alternative sources of livelihood (Bond *et al*., 2004; Wolmer*et al*., 2004; Lindsey *et al*., 2008).Similarly, in Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, Uganda, the persistent high poverty levels in local communities were blamed for poaching for bushmeat and other unauthorised resource use (Mugyenyi*et al*., 2014:6). Essentially, a suitable CBT facilitation framework may be overdue because biodiversity must pay for its conservation by generating income for local people (Kiss 2004:232).

On the other hand, lack access to markets for CBT ventures alluded to in the survey was regarded in the scholarly world as a consequence of lack of knowledge of demand variables and business skills among local community entrepreneurs, limited cooperation and marketing networks in the area which created barriers to market access as well as competition for clients (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al*., 2011; Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds*et al*., 2016). In support, Tosun (2000:620) points out that most of the local communities in LEDCs were not adequately informed about tourism development leading to low participation. The scenario exposed in this study makes a facilitation framework for CBT urgent.

5.3.8 Facilitation of CBT

Table 5.14 shows that there were mixed views regarding involvement of government in CBT facilitation. Male respondents (16.6%) rated advertising as the most important role that the government has to play, while 22.2% of female respondents considered setting of regulations and marketing as the most critical role of the government. Marketing (selected by 20.4% of the respondents) was also regarded as an important role to be played by the government. Respondents (18.5%) also felt that the government had a role to organise exhibitions and festivals to bring more visitors to the SV. It was strange that only 5.6% of the respondents thought that

provision of funding was a responsibility of the government. Such mind-sets would inform the formulation of the CBT facilitation framework for the region.

Table 5.14: Facilitation role of government

		Gender %		
		Male	Female	Total
Roles played by government for the success of CBT projects	Provide funding	3.7	1.8	5.6
	Set regulations and standards of operation	3.7	22.2	25.9
	Advertising	16.6	13.0	29.6
	Marketing	5.6	14.8	20.4
	Organising exhibitions and festivals	7.4	11.1	18.5
Total		37.0	63.0	100

This standpoint should be viewed together with the expected roles as perceived by the respondents. This section explores and interprets the strategies that emerged from the survey that could be adopted by external development partners to facilitate CBT ventures in Save Valley. Essentially, the concept of facilitation is consistent with devolution of decision making power to local people for which a development project is intended. As such, an understanding of the facilitation strategies would inform the formulation of a facilitation framework for the development of sustainable CBT ventures in the area in the context of the 'participation and power redistribution theory'.

The respondents, either by gender or level of education overwhelmingly reported that the involvement of the government in CBT facilitation was very necessary with their key roles being the setting of laws and regulations that would guide the formation and operation CBT ventures in Save Valley and assisting with financing of the projects. These perceptions were consistent with the 'participation and power redistribution theory' which emphasises the devolution of decision making power to the local people. In addition, this perception was consistent with views and actions

observed in studies in southern Africa and globally. For instance, in Botswana, the Botswana Tourism Policy placed much emphasis on local participation and beneficiation in the tourism sector contributing to the success of CBT ventures (Sebele, 2010). In Amboseli, Kenya, human-wildlife conflicts were causing biodiversity loss, and in response the government facilitated the introduction of community-based conservation through the Wildlife Act, 2014, in which local people would derive economic benefits from lodges and camp sites (Kipleu*et al*., 2014:78). Local participation in wildlife conservation Save Valley would enable the local communities to value natural resources around them to ensure sustainable and continued supply.

Similarly, in Caprivi, Namibia, legislation was passed in 1996 to give communities rights to wildlife and other natural resources which prompting the formation of CBT ventures based on community conservancies within the national vision which proposed the use of tourism as a vehicle for Namibians to transform from natural resource exporters to foreign currency earners (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014:7). In Malaysia the Ministry of Tourism and Culture facilitated homestay CBT by setting the standards which participating villagers followed such security, cleanliness, basic infrastructure, accessibility, attractive landscape, and interesting products such as food, handicrafts, culture, traditional dance and others (Yusof*et al*., 2012; Salley*et al*., 2014).

Another example of external facilitation of CBT comes from South Africa where the Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP) provides assistance to historically disadvantaged black South African CBT entrepreneurs in the form of funds, creating attractive tourism products, and marketing services (Rogerson, 2008; Chili and Mabaso, 2016). Still in South Africa, through the Industrial Action Plan, the government identified the handicraft sector as a strategic economic sector to contribute to economic growth and alleviation of poverty and deprivation (Rogerson, 2015). The author further explains that the aim of government was to create a

market-driven handicraft industry with linkages between the crafters and markets. Furthermore, the SA government established departments after 1994 that facilitated handicraft CBT such as the Department of Trade Industry (DTI), and the National Department of Tourism (NDT), and the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA), and Community Tourism Organisations (CTOs).

The South African examples illustrate the central role the government should play in effectively facilitating the creation of CBT opportunities to economically revitalise poor rural areas that have suffered many years of poverty and deprivation, ideas that are in keeping with the expectations of respondents in the survey. DTI, for example, has programmes to facilitate handicraft CBT called Enterprise Investment Programme (EIP) while NDT has its programme known as Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP) (Rogerson, 2007; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011). Furthermore, the CATHSSETA's main thrust is skills development through the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) III it launched in 2011 to promote and fund research projects in national skills needs in the subsectors including CBT (DEAT, n.d). Essentially, each of the departments and programmes have well-defined facilitatory activities for handicraft enterprises which confirms that government support was critical for the success of CBT (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Lucchetti and Font, 2013). The SA case study goes a long way in illustrating the critical role that the government should play CBT facilitation, and should be used to inform the inclusion of government role and support in the facilitation framework for Save Valley. However, in other situations such as in Uganda and Zimbabwe (through CAMPFIRE) government-directed facilitation approaches have failed because the centralisation of planning, authority and decision making led to non-participation and tokenism in tourism development while poverty levels remained high in local communities (Arnstein, 1969; Frost and Bond, 2007; Okazaki, 2008; Mugyenyi*et al*., 2014).

The roles of NGOs as external facilitators cited by respondents were consistent with the literature which reiterates that NGOs play a vital role in capacity building and skills development to those who have less economic and political power to lessen their dependency (Halstead, 2003; Frost and Bond, 2007; Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). In keeping with the expectations of the respondents in the survey, the literature has demonstrated that NGOs play a fundamental role in assisting local communities involved in CBT ventures through skills training, marketing of wares, and access to credit and business training such as Jordan River Foundation in Jordan which was established to initiate economic projects for women (Mustafa, 2011: 148). In Zimbabwe the CAMPFIRE was funded using donor finances from USAID, Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD) and UK Department for International Development (DFID). These examples confirm that NGOs, just like the government, should be at the centre of any sustainable CBT facilitation framework.

5.4 CONVERGENCE BETWEEN QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE DATA

This section examines the correlation between qualitative data from interviews with eminent persons selected through purposive and snowball sample and quantitative data from questionnaire surveys with ordinary local community residents selected through multi-stage cluster sampling as summarised in Table 5.15 which depicts an interesting and informative picture of the CBT scenario in Save Valley from different perspectives. This mix shows the richness of the data in this research. On reading this section reference must always be on Table 5.15. Table 5.15 gives a synopsis of the results from interviews and questionnaire based surveys. It can be established from that the two methods of data collection contributed valuable data for each objective. For instance on Objective 1 interviews produced detailed accounts of what respondents viewed as appropriate CBT ventures for the local people such handicrafts, employment, food sales, vegetable outgrowing and others. Similarly, the questionnaire survey confirmed the choices but went further to quantify the choices. In a nutshell, combining the two approaches would help to construct the vivid story of

probable CBT in the region and what to consider in the facilitation framework. On Objective 2 respondents who participated in interviews gave detailed accounts of who to include in CBOs and the justification for their inclusion. On the other hand the survey managed to quantify the perceptions of the respondents towards each group of community members who could comprise CBOs thus applying triangulation of methods. Again, here convergence of opinions was evident which would be valuable in the formulation of the facilitation framework.

Table 5.15: Correlation between qualitative and quantitative data

Eminent community leaders and safari operators	***Research Objectives***	*Sampled community members*
Jewellery, embroidery, pottery, traditional type of accommodation, wild fruit and berries, local food and mufushwa, employment as security guards, provision of vegetables, provision of meat to accommodation facilities, gardening, carvings, handicraft, basketry	*To examine the types of CBT ventures appropriate for the local communities in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.*	*Vegetable outgrowing (62.9%), handicrafts and artwork (18.5%), cultural dance and music (7.4%), wildlife conservation (7.4%), overnight accommodation (3.7%)*
Cooperatives, mukando, help of outside experts for training, joint ventures with safari operators, government support, combination of financial resources and skills from safari operators and land from local communities will be lucrative	*To explore the types and composition of community-based organisations (CBOs) needed to facilitate CBT in the area of study.*	*A mixture of all groups of stakeholders (68.6%), traditional leaders only (18.4%), elected community members only (7.4%), safari operators (5.6%)*
Reluctance by local people to be involved in CBT, incapacity, lack of skills, lack of finance, lack of cooperation, poor relationship with safari operators, business management skills, financial management skills, reluctance of safari operators to accept products from local communities, fear of re-colonization, conflict, animal-human conflict, too much red tape, overpopulation, hostile relationships, safari operators do not come to meetings.	*To highlight anticipated challenges to CBT ventures and CBOs in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.*	*Lack of support (40.7%), lack of leadership skills (20.4%), lack of funding (18.6%), political interference (11.1%), corruption (7.4%)*
	To explore the conflict obtaining between local communities and the safari operators around the Save Valley Conservancy.	*Human-animal conflict revolved around the fence with majority of participants 63.0% complaining about the fallen fences. About 6% (5.6%) complained about poaching along the perimeter fence.*
	To develop a framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.	*Polycentric CBT facilitation framework discussed in Chapter 5 (Figure 5.19).*
	Make recommendations that could help facilitate CBT in the SVC.	*Outreach programmes to develop skills and capacity, inclusion of women and youth in CBT, revitalisation of partnerships, effective facilitation of CBT by an external body, rebuilding and maintenance of boundary fence to reduce animal-human conflict, meaningful inclusion of local people in policy making, honest willingness by safari operators to facilitate CBT using bottom-up and collaboration traditions, collaborative marketing strategies*

On Objective 3 the interview results exposed much more detail about the challenges that currently afflict Save Valley such contestation of land ownership, invasions of part of SVC by peasants, poaching, and human-wildlife conflict. The interview

results also gave a critique of role of internal and external CBT facilitators. In other words, the two concepts emanated from the interviews. On the other hand the survey results augmented the interview results on this objective by quantifying the frequencies of each challenge as can be read from Table 5.15, the reference point. It was, therefore, on the basis of triangulation of the findings from the two methods that a CBT facilitation framework was proffered in Section 5.5 as an original contribution to the study of CBT in the region and in similar contexts in general.

5.5 ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTION: FRAMEWORK FOR FACILITATION OF CBT IN THE SAVE VALLEY

Originality in research has been perceived as making a synthesis of borrowed ideas that have been used by other authors and making them yours in ways that have not been done before, re-contextualizing them showing their applicability to new situations, demonstrating its effectiveness and then communicating them from your own angle (Phillips and Pugh, 2005).

Phillips and Pugh (2005) further argue that one can contribute to knowledge by coming up with a different approach to solving an identified problem, making different methodological choices to answer research questions, and so on. On the other hand Shaparenko and Joachims (2009) suggest novelty and impact that the contribution has to the particular community or field of study, while Baptistaa, Frickb, Holleyc, Remmikd, Tesche and Âkerlindf (2015) associate originality with the quality that adds doctorateness. One of the objectives of this study as stated in chapter 1 was to develop a framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around the Save Valley Conservancy in Zimbabwe.

5.5.1 A facilitation framework for community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around the SVC

A framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around SVC has been developed by applying the research results discussed in

detail in this chapter, theory underpinning the study, *the participation and power redistribution theory*, and cited literature on CBT. Because facilitation of community participation in CBT is largely about the redistribution of decision-making power in a systemic manner, the facilitation framework has been termed *a poly-centric CBT facilitation framework for Save Valley* largely because it comprises the collaboration of various centres of power identified in the study area. South Africa, for example, has several government departments, and NGOs whose responsibility is external facilitation of local economic development initiatives (LEDI) such as CBT including CATHSSETA's whose main mandate is skills development through the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) (CATHSSETA, 2013: 1). This created a scenario of poly-centricity on a national scale. A poor region such Save Valley can have an integrated facilitation framework that targets CBT development within a polycentric scenario as illustrated in Figure 5.18.

This facilitation framework is remarkably unique and represents a shift away from top-down approaches often used with disastrous results because of lack of support by the local communities. In support, research has also shown that a top-down tradition preferred by government officials tended to lead to a situation where incentives to local communities in return for wildlife conservation are misconstrued for entitlements. In addition, research elsewhere has also shown that local people in natural environments similar to Save Valley do not desire to be treated as primitive, helpless and miserable. As illustrated on Figure 5.18, the key pre-condition for CBT facilitation is inclusivity of all stakeholders in the area in decision making processes. Each of the stakeholders acts as a centre of decision-making power, hence the poly-centricity concept. In essence, decision making and associated LEDI in the form of CBT projects should involve all the stakeholders, namely local communities, particularly women (who formed the majority of household heads), and the CBOs, safari operators (the private

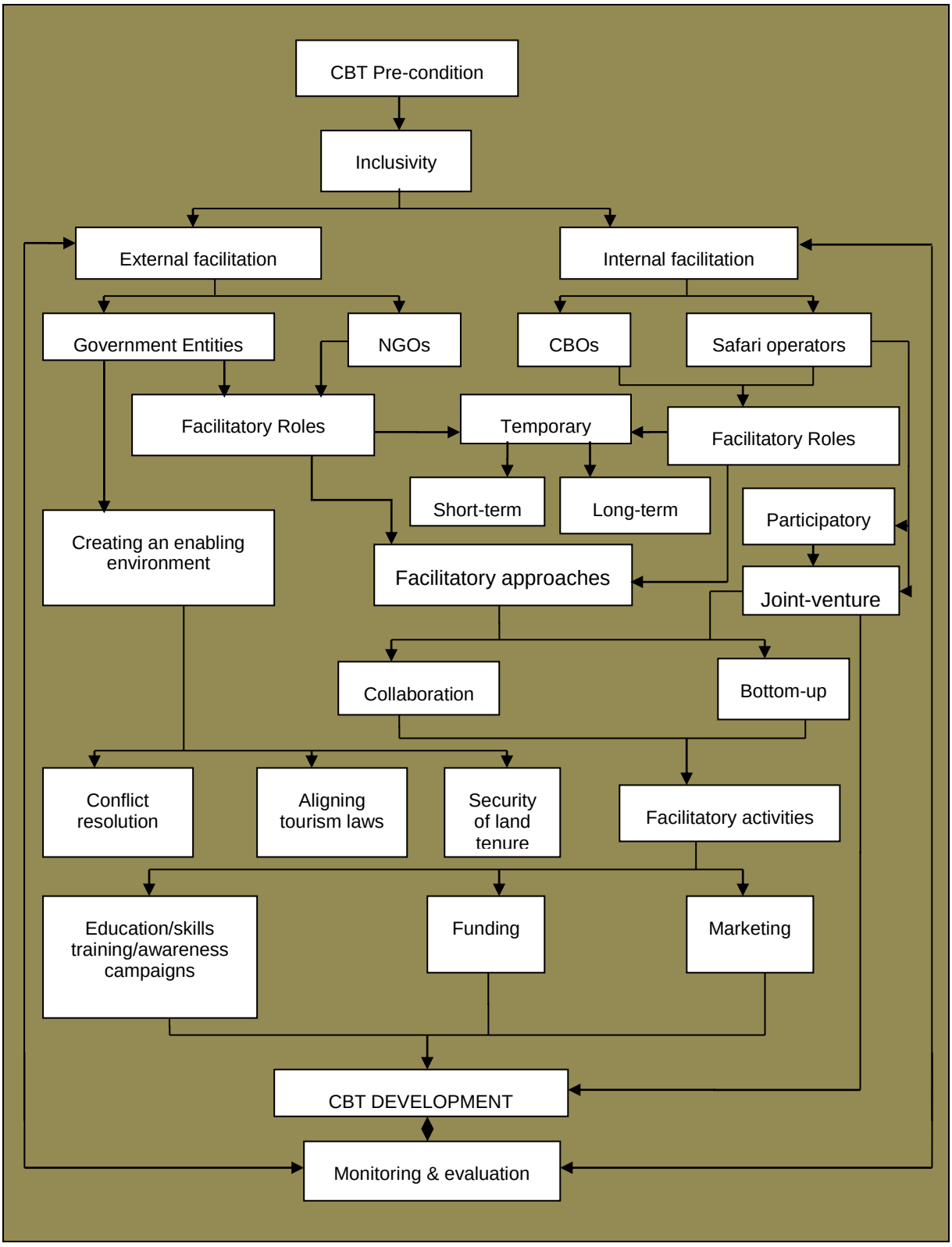

Figure 5.18: Poly-centric CBT facilitation framework for Save Valley in Zimbabwe

sector) and government entities, who have an edge over private sector and NGOs because naturally the government is expected to nurture and develop communities (Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2017: 4). Emphasis is on local community participation in decision making through a CBOs which act as a power broker for sustainable development of CBT. Therefore, partnership offer local communities legitimate bargain power during decision making which is most effective when a CBO exists and acts as an organised power base in the community (Arnstein, 1969: 221). Essentially, community participation shifts power from the bureaucrats to local communities. This notion, which emerged from the results, is also supported in the literature. For instance, Mak *et al.* (2017:1) reiterate that community participation is inherently essential for sustainable development of tourism, as the industry has close links with the livelihoods of the local community.

Abegunde (2009: 237) similarly regards community participation as a mechanism for sustainable development as it enables the creation of a true sense of belonging and ownership among members of the community. In terms of the timeframe, facilitation should be a temporary process either short-term or long-term as suggested by Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017). The facilitators are divided into external and internal facilitators. External facilitators comprise organisations such as government entities such as MTHI, Bikita RDC, ZimParks, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), and NGOs. According to the framework the government is a critical external facilitator because naturally it is expected to nurture and develop communities. In addition to other facilitation activities such as education and training, funding, and marketing, the government has the responsibility of creating an enabling environment for CBT development in Save Valley particularly enacting appropriate laws, resolving the vastly reported conflicts, and providing the much needed guarantees of security of land tenure to safari operators to deal with the anxiety and aloofness on these important stakeholders.

Theerappaisis (2012:290) argues that stakeholders such as government should also take interest in dealing with conflicts and disagreements as well as monitoring and evaluation of projects. NGOs have always been important as development partners to government and local communities through proving education, funding and access to markets, hence their inclusion under external facilitators. In the framework internal facilitation is a preserve for local stakeholders of Save Valley themselves and the CBOs constituted of elected local officials, traditional leaders, and representatives of safari operators. This structure is also widely supported in the literature. For instance, Jamal and Getz (1995: 198) regard CBOs as the conveners in CBT because they have legitimacy and authority, and may also have expertise and resources. Hence, a CBO as the convener is important at the problem-setting stage of CBT projects where it identifies and brings together all the key stakeholders to the negotiating table.

Furthermore, the involvement of CBOs in local CBT facilitation as local representatives reduces the tokenism associated with referendums and surveys often conducted by local development planners (Arnstein, 1969; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). Jamal and Getz (1995: 198) suggested that if local people feel that they can exercise control over their development process, resistance to tourism development in their area fizzles out. CBOs will also participate in monitoring and evaluation of CBT projects.

The preferred facilitation approaches, according to the research results, are collaboration and bottom-up which are also identified as critical success factors for implementing sustainable tourism. The facilitation process contained in the framework is consistent with *partnership* in the 6th rung of the Arnstein theory, a pre-condition for collaboration approach, which suggests that negotiation is carried out between the local residents of an area targeted for a programme or project, and the power-holders, usually local authorities or government, thereby redistributing the power and responsibility for planning and decision-making. The theory emphasises

that a partnership offers people legitimate bargaining power and is most effective when a CBO exists and acting as an organised power base in the community (Arnstein, 1969: 221). *Delegated power,* the seventh rung on Arnstein theory*,* by implication means that the local residents of Save Valley, through their CBOs as internal facilitators, will assume more substantial authority over decision-making and preside over CBT development programmes in their area with little external facilitation once initial successes have been achieved.

The research results have also confirmed that safari operators, as private tourism sector in the area, are critical internal CBT facilitators because they have the capital, expertise, and access to markets for tourism products. Results also show that the creation of an enabling environment for private tourism businesses will unlock the assistance CBT entrepreneurs require for take-off and growth. As the survey results show, among the local population, education was lacking as the mode was primary level. This created the need to educate and train prospective participants in CBT. The involvement of safari operators will also assist in gaining access to information, markets as well as fiscal support, key hindrances to community participation in CBT which have also been cited in the literature as well (Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin, 2000; Lucchetti and Font, 2013). Safari operators can also participate in joint ventures or partnerships with local communities in CBT projects such as lodges and communal conservancies while facilitating other more popular ventures such as vegetable outgrowing, cultural dance and music, and handicrafts. In the literature it has been emphasised that without partnerships with established tourism operators and hoteliers, foreign markets were not accessible to CBT businesses (Halstead, 2003; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012; Chili and Mabaso, 2016). It has also been retorted that CBT destinations tend to face the threat of economic collapse even if their products and services were in demand due to poor marketing capability (Lucchetti and Font, 2013; Dodds *et al*., 2016). Essentially therefore, market knowledge is crucial for CBT enterprises to attain commercial viability such as market size, visitor's length of stay, visitor expenditure, and products and services

(Kontogeorgopoulos, *et al*., 2014; Lucchetti and Font, 2013). Safari operators, as tourism experts, would participate in monitoring and evaluation of CBT projects.

5.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the methods that were used to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data were discussed briefly just as an appraisal. The greater part of this chapter dealt with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of primary qualitative and quantitative data collected for this study. The interpretation focused on how the research results addressed the research aim, objectives the research questions. Indeed it emerged from the interpretation of both qualitative and quantitative results that for CBT projects to be initiated in and around SVC with any degree of success, a facilitation framework was necessary that would alleviate poverty while also promoting wildlife conservation. Essentially, this set the stage for the formulation and description of the facilitation framework for Save Valley as an original contribution of the study of CBT. Next is Chapter 6, which focuses on findings of the study in alignments with the research objectives while also making recommendations meant to guide the successful implementation of CBT initiatives in Save Valley especially utilising the polycentric facilitation framework.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on discussing the summary of the research findings from both the questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews presented and analysed in Chapter 5 in keeping with the research aim, objectives and questions. The objectives are restated and the findings from both survey and interviews are summarised and examined for convergence or deviations. Furthermore, the overview of the polycentric CBT facilitation framework is given as well as a discussion of recommendations as guided by the aim, objectives and research questions of the research, the theory underpinning of the study, and the existing literature, areas of possible future research, and limitations of the study. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

6.2 FINDINGS

The findings of the study are discussed in alignments with the research objectives as stated in chapter 1. This was done in order to show the reader how the research satisfied the objectives of the study in the findings. It is, therefore, important to restate the research objectives that drove the study from the beginning with the aim of aligning them to the findings in an attempt to conclude the study.

6.2.1 Restatement of the research objectives

- To examine the types of CBT ventures appropriate for the local communities in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.

- To explore the types and composition of community-based organisations (CBOs) needed to facilitate CBT in the area of study.
- To highlight anticipated challenges to CBT ventures and CBOs in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- To explore the conflict obtaining between local communities and the safari operators around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- To develop a framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around the Save Valley Conservancy.
- Make recommendations that could help facilitate CBT in the SVC.

Objective 1: *Types of CBT ventures appropriate for the local communities in and around the Save Valley Conservancy*

The questionnaire survey demonstrated that establishment of the community gardens was a popular CBT project elected by 58% of the participants for vegetable outgrowing for SVC while handicraft making was chosen by 20%.Furthermore the survey also established that cultural performances such traditional music and dance were preferable to 12% of the informants. The least attractive CBTs were wildlife conservation (7%) and accommodation such homestays, lodges or bed and breakfast (3%). Essentially, vegetable outgrowing was a popular choice as 50% of participants proposed that the tourism business establishments in SVC such as lodges, hotels and compounds could subcontract vegetable growing to their CBT.

Similar results emerged from in-depth interviews which demonstrated that a variety of CBT ventures were appropriate in the regions such as vegetable outgrowing in community gardens, handicrafts, and wildlife conservation, and traditional accommodation and SSMEs. More importantly, the interviewees cited handicrafts and vegetable outgrowing within a co-operative setup as the most appropriate CBT ventures for people in the villages same as in the survey. The interviewees also reported that if community gardens were introduced people would grow vegetables which would be absorbed by the hotels and lodges in SVC with the co-operation and

assistance of the safari operators. In both cases joint ventures with established businesses, or co-operatives were approved as the most appropriate ownership arrangements for CBT projects in and around SVC enjoying both external facilitation by government entities and NGOs, and internal facilitation by CBOs and safari operators.

Objective 2: *Types and composition of community-based organisations (CBOs) needed to facilitate CBT in the area of study*

Research results demonstrated that participants were upbeat about the involvement of CBOs in local facilitation of CBT projects in and around SVC. In addition both interview and survey participants generally emphasised that it was prudent for the inhabitants of Save Valley to constitute the CBOs in order for them to collectively own and respect their CBT facilitation operations in the area. For instance, the survey results showed that 71% of the participants reported that they preferred a CBO comprising a mixture of elected local officials, traditional leaders, and safari operators from SVC. The remainder had mixed feelings with 7% preferring elected local officials only while 5% were for safari operators only, and 17% preferred traditional leaders only such as chiefs, headmen and village heads. Similarly, interview participants perceived local facilitation of CBT projects in the area as the responsibility of local stakeholders who should constitute a CBO such as the chief, councillors, village heads or chairpersons and safari operators as key members. In addition, the participants had varying perceptions about the key facilitation duties the CBOs would perform in the development of CBT ventures. The respondents cited several CBT facilitation duties such as out-sourcing capital for CBT projects, marketing of wares, confidence building, conflict resolution, education and training, and anti-poaching awareness campaigns.

Objective 3: *Challenges to CBT ventures and CBOs in and around the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC)*

The questionnaire survey and interviews produced similar results on the challenges that may hinder the sustainability of CBT projects in and around SVC. For instance, 46% of the survey participants cited the lack of managerial skills as the worst hindrance followed by lack of markets for the souvenirs and wares such as carvings, mats, or art works (22%) while a further 16% cited lack of raw materials as critical hindrance for those keen on undertaking handicraft making. Only 10% of the participants regarded lack of technology or capital a major factor that might hinder residents from participating in souvenir making while 5% reported competition from commercial/industrial products. Similarly, the mode was 56% of survey participants who reported lack of market or visitors as the main inhibiting factor for potential CBT entrepreneurs. A further 15% cited competition from hotels and lodges run by safari operators in SVC as an insurmountable hindrance for accommodation CBT. Another 14% acknowledged lack of skills to run and manage successfully accommodation businesses as a key stumbling block for potential CBT entrepreneurs. Wildlife was yet another least understood and less popular CBT venture as shown in Figure 5.4. Human-animal conflict was cited as the main obstacle by 73% of the participants.

On the other hand, interview results revealed a whole range of constraints similar to those exposed by the survey which included lack of capital, lack of markets and competition, lack of raw materials, poor road infrastructure, lack of managerial skills and technical know-how, and human-animal conflict. From the interview stifling constraints were those that included legal, regulatory and other institutional arrangements which made it difficult for poor local people to penetrate and participate in tourism development. In summary interviews revealed mostly the challenges which caused anxiety and lack of willingness to participate in tourism development particularly socio-economic constraints such lack of capital and financial support, lack of markets, opportunity costs of CBT, and lack of

entrepreneurial skills in the community among others. Each of these constraints was believed to be quite significant in own right implying the need for appropriate solutions.

More results emerged from the survey than from the interviews on this item. From the survey the effectiveness of CBOs in executing their CBT facilitation duties would be compromised by a lack of popular support of their initiatives from residents of Save Valley as a whole (30%) while others felt their initiatives may lack funding (24%). A sizeable number of informants were sceptical about the lack of leadership skills (21%) among local stakeholders. On the other hand participants in interviews only cited failure to involve the community in decision making or top-down approach to decision making which excluded the views and wishes of ordinary community residents as the main challenge to the effectiveness of CBOs. In other words, if people were not involved in the decision making that affected their welfare they would not support or own the decisions the CBO would make, a response that is similar to what was reported during the survey by 30% of the informant as stated earlier.

Objective 4: Explore the conflict obtaining between local communities and the safari operators around the Save Valley Conservancy

There was consensus between the sampled local community members and especially the safari operators about human-animal conflict. The major cause of the conflict appeared to be the fallen and poorly maintained perimeter fence allowing wild animals to reach the fields and destroy the crops or even kill and feed on the livestock. The safari operators were adamant that the local residents were vandalising the fence in order to access the conservancy and poach animals for a variety of reasons including (Table 5.9) bushmeat poaching. The safari operators were of the view that the activities of the local community erode biodiversity, while on the other hand local communities rely of natural resources surrounding them to support their livelihoods.

Objective 5: *Develop a facilitation framework for community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around Save Valley Conservancy (SVC)*

A framework to facilitate community participation in and beneficiation from CBT in and around SVC (Figure 5.18) was developed and discussed in chapter 5 based on the responses of the samples (both qualitative and quantitative) as well as reviewed literature on CBT. The facilitation framework was termed *a poly-centric CBT facilitation framework for Save Valley* largely because it comprises the collaboration of various centres of power deriving in the study area. More importantly, the framework introduces new concepts in the science of facilitation of community development notably *internal* and *external* facilitation. Internal facilitation is more permanent and is championed by CBOs and safari operators who are resident in the region and could shareholders in joint ventures or cooperatives. Their role is regarded in this study critical for adoption and sustainability of CBT ventures. On the other hand this study takes to external facilitation to refer to the temporary but critical role played by government and other resource rich development partners such as NGOs in local community programmes such as CBT. The sum total of the roles these facilitation entities ensures success and sustainability of CBT as contained in the poly-centric model recommended by this study.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations are targeted at traditional leaders who continue to wield significant power and influence over the local community residents in and around SVC, government departments keen on tourism and wildlife conservation, local development planners, policy makers, local authorities, NGOs, politicians and CBT entrepreneurs. The recommendations are buttressed on the implementation of the *poly-centric CBT facilitation framework* developed in this study for Save Valley as guided by the research results, the literature, and the 'participation and power redistribution theory' (Arnstein, 1969). In support, Jamal and Getz (1995: 186) argue that CBT destination planning and development must not occur in isolation, outside

any form of facilitation, but as an interactive system within a large tourism market. Mindful of these viewpoints the recommendations suggested in this section should, therefore, ensure sustainable initiation and adoption of CBT projects that will have the effect of alleviation of poverty while also contributing to wildlife conservation, the mandate of SVC. It is, therefore, recommended in this study that:

- Outreach programmes that have long been contemplated as a way of transmitting tourism benefits from tourism occurring in SVC to local community residents, particularly women and the youths, should be transformed into CBT projects to bring about community participation in tourism to achieve sustainability of the conservation mandate. According to Abegunde (2009: 237-238) community participation means sharing in decisions about the goals and objectives, what should be done, how and by whom it should be done. Without meaningful community participation in tourism by mostly women and the youths in Save Valley resentment to the conservancy project will persist. Resentment will continue to be expressed in the form of destructive practices such as bushmeat poaching and killing of wildlife similar to the cyanide killing of 140 elephants in 2013 by local residents nearby Hwange National Park (Mhuriro-Mashapa *et al*., 2017: 1678). Such reactionary practices are interpreted by Arnstein (1969) as expressions of despair and resistance due to *non-participation* in tourism, *manipulation, therapy* or *tokenism* by elitist and bureaucratic development planners, government, politicians and local authorities in the region. Without meaningful community participation any form of tourism benefits reaching the local residents in communal areas around SVC will be treated as entitlements which have little impact on the mindset towards wildlife conservation, the mandate for SVC. No wonder why, because of the failure of CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe, scholars have observed that managing human-wildlife conflict has become a critical aspect of most local communities peripheral to wildlife sanctuaries (Mhuriro-Mashapa *et al*., 2017: 1678).

- CBT facilitation should foster participation by mostly women and the youths to attain community beneficiation which should be understood, according to the Mountain Institute (2000: 6) as the process of value-addition, building of natural and cultural assets around existing livelihoods leading to extra income for the local population, and incentivising biodiversity conservation. These objectives of community beneficiation are also captured in the SDGs as capacitation and empowerment, inclusive economic growth through creation of employment and business opportunities and protection of natural, cultural and heritage resources.
- Facilitation of CBT in Save Valley should commence for local attainment of some of the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals such as Goal 1: to end poverty, Goal 5: gender equality and empowerment of women and girls, Goal 8: promotion of inclusive and sustainable economic growth and productive employment for all, and Goal 17: to strengthen the means of implementation through revitalisation of partnerships for sustainable development.
- Effective CBT facilitation should be fostered. This can be achieved through application of the *poly-centric CBT facilitation framework* developed in this study for Save Valley can turn the fortunes of Save Valley around and for the better. If carefully applied, the challenges observed in this study could be overcome such as anxiety and aloofness, lack of willingness to participate in tourism development, and socio-economic constraints such lack of capital and financial support, lack of access to markets, opportunity costs of CBT, and lack of entrepreneurial skills in the community among others.
- External facilitation is required because it is a critical component of the CBT facilitation framework. It is usually the source of financial resources required to invest in CBT projects that are usually very scarce and not readily available in LEDCs (Tosun, 2013; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2015).
- In Save Valley facilitation, as recommended in the framework, should commence with the creation of an enabling environment for CBT. In particular, scholars have long believed that conflicts between safari operators

in SVC and the neighbouring poor farmers were almost inevitable from the onset due to non-participation and lack of a facilitation framework (Bond *et al*., 2004; Cumming, 2005; Lindsey *et al*., 2008), a situation which does not augur well for sustainable CBT development.

- Human-wildlife conflict should be resolved urgently. Research findings overwhelmingly showed that the issue of human-wildlife conflict in the region was so over-arching that it tended to overshadow the influence of other constraints to the extent that bringing finality to conflict resolution partly unlocks solutions for the remaining challenges such as lack of funding or access to tourism markets.
- As part of conflict resolution the electric perimeter fence of SVC should be restored and maintained sustainably as confirmed by the research findings.
- Education and training of CBT entrepreneurs should be treated as critical for the success of the projects, and should incorporate training in managerial skills for entrepreneurs to acquire knowledge of the market needed such as market size and seasonality, and visitor's length of stay, visitor expenditure, products and services (Lucchetti and Font, 2013: 4). The need for education and training is supported by Tosun (2000: 620) who points out that most of the local communities in LEDCs are not adequately informed about tourism development leading to low participation in tourism. The author further argues that this lack of information increases the knowledge gap between local communities and the elitist decision-makers making it difficult for the host communities to participate in tourism development processes. In deed the research results showed that in Save Valley the population of illiterate people and primary school graduates is quite significant.
- Policy makers and decision makers should considers highly the role of local facilitation of CBT projects by CBOs. Essentially, local stakeholders should form CBOs with the chief, councillors, village heads or chairpersons and safari operators as key members. Essentially, CBT should occur when facilitated by the local community and when it takes a participatory bottom-up or collaboration approach (Abegunde, 2009; Giampiccoli and Nauright2010;

Theerapappasit, 2012; Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). In addition, research carried out elsewhere in Africa such as in Nigeria has also confirmed that villagers tended to trust CBOs that comprised their traditional leaders like headmen, local committees, and their representatives who would voice their needs to local authorities through a bottom-up approach (Toyobo and Muili 2008; Abegunde, 2009).

- CBOs should be used in providing adult education and training as well as luring external funding from NGOs and government (Toyobo and Muili, 2008; Lapeyre, 2010).
- Safari operators, as members of the private sector, should play a leading role in CBOs and local facilitation of CBT projects because they have expertise and resources particularly in wildlife farming. The literature also emphasises partnerships with established tourism operators and hoteliers which enables access to foreign markets that were not accessible to CBT businesses (Halstead, 2003; Andrade, and Rhodes, 2012; Giampiccoli and Mtapuri, 2012; Chili and Mabaso, 2016).
- This study recommends a bottom-up or collaboration approach in CBT facilitation. It must be known to the policy makers and facilitators as they foster collaboration that the stakeholders are independent; solutions emerge by consensus; decisions are jointly owned; and stakeholders assume collective responsibility over development decisions (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2014). Phanumat *et al.* (2015: 917), similarly, argue that collaboration approach balances the power between the parties involved in CBT to create a win-win contractual situation and devolves decision making, responsibility and benefits to the local people.
- Marketing of mainstream tourism and CBT destinations should be done as a package as a strategy for effective collaboration approach which recognises the interdependence of stakeholders in the tourism sector as they share amenities, resources, and tourism attractions (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Kayat, 2014). This should be done to avoid scenarios of power struggles and competition over resources created by fragmented and independent CBT

planning decisions by various stakeholders. To this end, a top-down approach is discouraged in this study because it is exclusionist and bureaucratic thereby disenfranchising the local people who, already, have little opportunity to influence the programmes designed to benefit them, and have neither the channel to give feedback nor the power to negotiate (Arnstein, 1969: 219).

- In this study bottom-up or collaboration approach is recommended because it empowers people, including women and the youths, to make their own decisions about the types of CBT projects they desire. CBT ventures should not be imposed onto the people. This study revealed that the local community residents in and around SVC preferred vegetable outgrowing, handicrafts, accommodation SSMEs, and wildlife conservation.
- CBT projects should be initiated in and around SVC to alleviate poverty while also promoting wildlife conservation. Research results demonstrated that appropriate locations for CBT projects exist such as scenic locations, junctions of main roads, and other sites appropriate for the establishment of homestays or lodges, handicraft shops, and performance of cultural activities such as music and dance, exhibitions, and food and drinks (Yusof *et al*., 2012; Mapjabil *et al*., 2015).

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Because this study used a mixed methods approach, it cost more in time and resources. To counter the effects of limited time and resources on the quality of the results this research was only confined to Save Valley Conservancy North and three border communal wards 24, 25, 26, and Ward 27 (the conservancy) of Bikita District where accessibility, a precondition for CBT, is relatively high. The sample for questionnaire survey was quite small, as pointed out by the examiner. The researcher could have added to the sample using the snowballing technique. The study was cross-sectional in design, implying that the trends could not be determined particularly in the area of study as would have been the case in a longitudinal study.

However, extensive literature review gave the research a good idea of what had been obtaining in other parts of the world. The results of the study are therefore not generalisable to other situations and beyond the specific population or contexts to which the research sample relates due to the fact that the study adopted a case study design.

Instilling confidence and trust in the informants who visibly sceptical about strangers in this poor remote rural area with low literacy levels, was a real challenge that could have affected the quality of data from surveys in spite of the accurate introductions. To reduce the impact on results the research assistants were adequately oriented on observance of ethical issues and accurate interpretation of the items on the questionnaire. The researcher was also on the ground to support the distribution, administration, interpretation and, collection of the completed questionnaires. Indeed there was clear evidence of mistrust of strangers particularly for political results while others misconstrued our team for donor agents. All these misconceptions and lack of trust and confidence needed to be dispelled. However, the extent to which this task was achieved could not be ascertained with certainty although the surveys went on without disruption.

6.5 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Following this study, several themes were identified for further research to bring about a thorough and holistic understanding of CBT and the enabling conditions. This study established that further research is required to convincingly establish the relationship between local participation in tourism and poverty in order to establish the strategies that can be adopted to increase cash benefits from CBT to attain financial sustainability without continual reliance on external funding by development partners. This study only exposed the conditions for sustainable CBT in the presence of external facilitation without specific reference to financial sustainability. In addition, most current studies mention the relationship as speculative statements that lack empirical justification.

The study also revealed that there was need for further research to gauge whether CBT is contributing to community development in LEDCs or it is yet another subsistence activity, in spite of its global popularity. Such a study will demonstrate whether successful CBT entrepreneurs may abandon their original livelihoods altogether. The knowledge can help to establish the strategies that the entrepreneurs can adopt so that their participation in CBT does not distract their usual subsistence activities thereby elimination the contradictions that may arise between adoption of CBT and usual subsistence activities. In addition, it is also suggested here that further research is required to establish the most appropriate CBT facilitation tradition in contexts of LEDCs as respondents in this study tended to regard collaboration and bottom-up approaches as synonymous or just sides of the same coin even though they are different, although they both aim to empower communities. It is felt strongly that further research should be conducted on their effectiveness as most studies have tended to focus more speculatively on the economic functions of the two traditions

6.6 CONTRIBUTIONS TO LITERATURE

This study has rejuvenated a theory that is half a century old, *the participation and power redistribution theory* by Arnstein (1969) also known as ladder of participation. The term 'ladder of participation' is simply a metaphor generated by Arnstein to make it simple to understand whether the participation by local people in development programmes was genuine, honest, effective and sustainable, and whether their concerns had the opportunity of influencing the outcomes of decisions. This unique appreciation of the theory suggests to the academia that it is still vastly relevant particularly in LEDCs where many people continue to live a traditional way of life characterised by socio-economic deprivation in underdeveloped and impoverished regions such as the Save Valley in Zimbabwe. This study also demonstrated that 'the participation and power redistribution theory' could be applied in a variety of scenarios to gauge the level of community participation in LEDIs such

as CBT and other programmes meant to benefit the local population. The concept of sustainability is also implicitly embedded in the theory because any LEDIs such as CBT that comes without community participation in the projects will have a brief life span because of lack of local support.

The study has also contributed a poly-centric CBT facilitation framework which is consistent with the Arnstein theory which can be applied in different geographical localities of similar context to encourage participation and poverty alleviation among local communities. The framework holds that to facilitate CBT effectively decision making is the culmination of the collaboration of various centres of power within a geographical space. The framework is versatile, cyclic or systemic, making it unique and useful to local development planners, policy makers, local authorities and CBT entrepreneurs.

This study has also contributed support for collaboration and bottom-up traditions in that while they may be criticised for slowing down decision making processes, they improve success and sustainability of pro-poor development programmes. Therefore, this study argues that without community participation (including women and the youths) in decision making, CBT ventures are doomed from their inception, a standpoint firmly supported by the Arnstein theory (1969) used to buttress this study.

The study has also enshrined the concept of *internal facilitation,* which is carried out by local stakeholders such as CBOs and safari operators who double as facilitators and beneficiaries from CBT through activities such as joint ventures or partnerships. This study argues that CBT facilitation is not a preserve for external facilitators such as government entities and NGOs. It is evident in the framework developed in this study that CBOs suit the definition of the facilitator defined as a person or group whose main duty is to help individuals or groups in achieving their goals. The role of the facilitator is limited to providing the necessary methods and tools to the people receiving facilitation in order to make it manageable for them to attain their goals.

Furthermore, it emerged from the results that CBT ventures co-facilitated with CBOs are more likely to be adopted with greater enthusiasm and have a longer life span than those externally facilitated only.

The framework produced in this study applauds CBOs as conveners who are important at the problem-setting stage of CBT projects by identifying and bringing together all key stakeholders to the negotiating table. Furthermore, the involvement of CBOs as local representatives reduces the tokenism associated with referendums and surveys often conducted by local development planners thus reducing resentment of tourism development by local communities. Essentially, through CBOs local people feel that they can exercise control over their development process, and resistance to tourism development in their area fizzles out. CBOs will also participate in monitoring and evaluation of CBT projects, typically a local assessment and appraisal approach whose results and recommendations are more likely to be respected and adopted by local tourism entrepreneurs.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This study discovered that the challenges of CBT as discussed in chapter 3 tend to be common in many developing countries. Even though on inception, CBT is targeted at the poor local communities, literature, and this study, have shown that a few influential people tend to benefit at the expense of the poor majority. Policies may be in place, but they get manipulated by the vociferous ambitious few to benefit themselves. This study has also demonstrated that there are numerous CBT opportunities especially for the selected villages which are located in close proximity to the affluent Save Valley Conservancy and the transport networks. However, the benefit do not accrue to these local community members who lack capacity, funds and support. The study also showed that those households that focus on subsistence farming, tend to lose their livestock and crops to rampant wildlife exacerbating animal-human conflict along the fallen fence, while safari operators blame local communities for vandalising the fence. This study used the ‘participation

and power redistribution theory', the literature and some of the responses from the participants to develop a CBT facilitation framework for Save Valley. Keynote in the CBT facilitation framework is that successful decision making on CBT ventures should be the culmination of the collaboration of the various centres of power within the geographical space. Furthermore, recommendations, limitations of the study, and future areas of research were also discussed marking the end of the study.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure A: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Topic: “Developing a framework for facilitation of community-based tourism in wildlife areas: A Case of Save Valley in Zimbabwe”.

Procedure to be followed before the commencement of interview session:

The researcher will introduce himself to the participant and clarify the purpose of the interview session.

- Appreciating the participant’s willingness to be interviewed;
- A brief but synthesised outline of ethical considerations will be given putting emphasis on confidentiality and anonymity.
- The researcher will bring up the issue of recording or videotaping the session, sharing with them the reasons for such an exercise.
- The researcher will give assurance to the participant on the safekeeping of the collected data.
- Participant will be requested to de-role.

PART A: BIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF RESPONDENTS

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Marital status
4. Highest level of education attained
5. Position

PART B: COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM ENTERPRISES

6. What types of community- based tourism (CBT) projects or enterprises are suitable for people in your community for them to generate income for themselves?

7. Give reasons for your choice in (6) above.

8. How should the CBT projects be owned? Give reasons for your choice.

9. What is the best way of raising capital to start such micro-tourism projects? Give reasons for your suggestions.

10. What should be done to ensure that the CBT enterprises succeed and do not collapse?

11. What Challenges are likely to be faced by different types of CBT ventures?

A) Homestay/accommodation for tourism

B) Handicraft and art

C) Traditional dance and music

D) Outgrowing of vegetables

C) Micro-business enterprises

PART C: THE ROLE OF CBOs

11. Community- based organisations (CBO) play an important role in assisting local people to participate in tourism occurring in their areas.

a) Who are the people in Save Valley who should make up such a body? Give reasons for your choice types or groups of people.

b) What do you suggest as the main duties of such an organisation? Probe

c) What problems are likely to limit the effectiveness of CBOs?

d) What advice would give to these people to be effective in their job?

PART D: FACILITATION FRAMEWORKS

12. In your opinion, who should initiate CBT projects in Save Valley? Probe

13. What roles should organisations and groups such as government, safari operators, and donor agencies play towards the success of CBT projects in this area? Probe

THE END

Thank you for participating in this interview.

Annexure B: INTERVIEW GUIDE IN SHONA

Musoro: “Developing a framework for facilitation of community-based tourism in wildlife areas: A Case of Save Valley in Zimbabwe”.

Procedure to be followed before the commencement of interview session:

- The researcher will introduce himself to the participant and clarify the purpose of the interview session.
- Appreciating the participant’s willingness to be interviewed;
- A brief but synthesised outline of ethical considerations will be given putting emphasis on confidentiality and anonymity.
- The researcher will bring up the issue of recording or videotaping the session, sharing with them the reasons for such an exercise.
- The researcher will give assurance to the participant on the safekeeping of the collected data.
- Participant will be requested to de-role.

CHIKAMU A: Zvavanhu

6. Zera
7. Murure/mukadzi
8. Kuroora
9. Dzidzo
10. Chigaro

CHIKAMU B: COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM ENTERPRISES

6. Ndeapi mabhizimisi ezvevashani angaitwavo nevanhu venharaunda ino kuti vawedzere mari yavanowana?

7. Ipa zvikonzero.

8. Vanhu vangatanga sei mabhisimisi aya? Tsigira minduro yako.

9. Vanhu vangawana sei mari yokutangisa mabhizimisi avo ezvevashanyi? Tsigira

10. Ndezvipi zvingaitwa kuti mabhizimisi aya ezvavashanyi abudirire uye kuti asadonha? Bvunzurudza

11. Ndezvipi zvigozhero zvingakonesa Vanhu kutanga mabhizimisi anotevera?

A) Kupa vashanyi pokurara

B) Mibato yamaoko

C) Mitambo yechinyakare nekuimba

D) Kurimira varungu vemhuka murivo

C) Zvitoro

PART C: THE ROLE OF CBOs

11. Community- based organisations (CBO) play an important role in assisting local people to participate in tourism occurring in their areas.

a) Ndivanaani vanokodzera kupinda muCBO? Tsigira mhinduro yako.

b) Ndeapi mabasa angaitwa neCBO? Bvunzurudzo

c) Ndezvipi zvigozhero zvinakosa CBO kubudirira mumabasa ayo?

d) Ndeapi mazano aungapa kuCBO?

PART D: FACILITATION FRAMEWORKS

12. Semaonero ako ndiani anofanira kuvamba mabhizimisi ezvavashanyi kuti Vanhu vabatsirikane? Tsigira minduro.

13. Hurumende, madona, nevarungu vemhuka vangaita chiivo kuti vabatsire Vanhu kutanga mabhizimisi avo ezvavashanyi?

THE END

Ndinotenda nokudavira mibvunzo kwamaita.

Annexure C: QUESTIONNAIRE

NUMBER_____

INTRODUCTION

I am Albert Maruta, a Doctoral student in Management Sciences (Tourism) at Durban University of Technology. I am carrying out a research project in tourism as partial fulfilment towards the Doctoral degree requirements. My topic is entitled: 'A framework for facilitation of community-based tourism in natural environments: A case of Save Valley in Zimbabwe.' To make this project a success may you assist by answering the following questions as truthfully as possible.

How to answer the questions

Either tick in the appropriate box or write your answer in the space provided. ***Shona*** *may be used to write responses.*

SECTION A: Bio-demography Data

1. Sex/Gender — Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age ☐
3. Marital status — Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Others ☐ (Specify)_____

4. What is the highest level of education you attained?

Primary ☐
Secondary ☐
College/university ☐
None ☐

5. What is your main source of income?

Formal employment ☐
Casual work ☐
Self-employment ☐
Livestock ☐
Crops ☐
Formal business ☐
Others ☐
(Specify)_____

SECTION B: COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM ENTERPRISES

6. a) Choose specific tourism projects you consider as **most** suitable for members of local community for them to make extra income.

Providing visitors with overnight accommodation ☐
Making handicraft and art works ☐
Performing cultural dance and music ☐
Outgrowing of vegetables and other businesses ☐
Wildlife conservation ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

b) Give reasons for your choice.

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. a) How best can local people in your area start their own micro-tourism businesses? Choose **one**.

As an individual or family ☐

As a co-operative ☐

Through a joint venture with established tourism businesses ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

b) Give reasons why you feel your choice is the **best** ownership arrangement for small tourism businesses.

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. (a) In your opinion, how should people in local communities raise the capital to start their own tourism enterprises? Choose **one** option that you consider as the **best.** ☐

Accumulating savings from wages, salaries and other earnings

Pooling resources together as a group ☐

Obtain aid from donors or government ☐

Obtain loans ☐

☐

Sponsorship from private partners

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

(b) Give a reason for your choice.

_____

_____

9. What should be done to ensure that locally owned tourism micro-enterprises do not collapse? Choose **one**.

Skills training for entrepreneurs ☐

Provision of access to markets ☐

Provision of advertising facilities ☐

Offering high quality tourism products ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

SECTION C: CHALLENGES TO COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM PROJECTS

10. What is the **worst problem** that may hinder investment in tourist accommodation by people in your area?

Lack of market/visitors ☐

Poor building standards ☐

Competition from established hotels and lodges ☐

Lack of managerial skills ☐

Hygiene and sanitation issues ☐

Accessibility ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

11. What is the **worst hindrance** for local people local communities to participate in handicraft making?

Lack of skills ☐

Lack of access to markets for souvenirs ☐

Lack of appropriate technology ☐

Competition from commercial products ☐

Lack of raw materials ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

12. a) Which problem do you consider to be **the worst hindrance** for local people to participate in wildlife based tourism projects in Save Valley?

Bushmeat poaching by local villagers ☐

Poaching by external syndicates ☐

Land invasion by peasants ☐

Wild animals attacking livestock, crops and people ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

b) What do you suggest as the **solution(s)** to the problem? (*You can write more than one solution*.)

_____

_____

13. What do you suggest as the **worst challenge** that may hinder the success of locally owned tourism micro-enterprises in this area?

Lack of access to markets for products ☐

Low quality of products and services ☐

Lack of capital ☐

Poor infrastructure ☐

Lack of managerial skills by entrepreneurs ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

SECTION D: THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATION IN COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

14. (a) Community-based organisations (CBOs) play an important role in assisting people to participate in tourism occurring in their area. Who are the people who should constitute CBO?

Elected community members only ☐

Traditional leaders only ☐

Safari operators only ☐

A mixture of all the above groups ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

(b) Give reasons for your choice.

_____

_____

_____

15. What do you suggest to be the **most important duties** and activities of CBOs? (*You can select more than one duty or activity.)*

Convening meetings with residents of Save Valley ☐

Initiating tourism projects for local people ☐

Co-ordinating local tourism projects ☐

Sourcing external funding for CBT projects ☐

Settling disputes ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

16. Which are the **worst challenges** that are likely to limit the effectiveness of CBOs? (*You can select more than one role*.)

Lack of support ☐

Political interference ☐

Lack of funding ☐

Lack of leadership skills ☐

Corruption ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

SECTION E: FACILITATION FRAMEWORKS

17. In your opinion, **who** should initiate community-based tourism (CBT) projects to help local people to generate extra income?

Safari operators in neighbouring conservancies ☐

Donor agencies ☐

Government ☐

Local people themselves ☐

Local people in collaboration with other support groups ☐

Other ☐

(Specify)_____

18. How do you rate the involvement of government for the success of CBT projects?

Very necessary ☐

Necessary ☐

Unnecessary ☐

19. How do you rate the involvement of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) for the success of CBT projects?

Very necessary ☐

Necessary ☐

Unnecessary ☐

20. How do you rate the involvement of safari operators in the conservancies for the success of CBT projects?

Very necessary ☐

Necessary ☐

Unnecessary ☐

21. Select the most appropriate **roles** that should be played by organisations and groups for the success of CBT projects in Save Valley such as: (*You can select more than one role.)*

a) **Safari operators**

Provide funding ☐

Set regulations and standards of operation ☐

Advertising ☐

Marketing ☐

Organising exhibitions and festivals ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

b) **Donor agencies**

Provide funding ☐

Set regulations and standards of operation ☐

Advertising ☐

Marketing ☐

Organising exhibitions and festivals ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

c) **Government**

Provide funding ☐

Set regulations and standards of operation ☐

Advertising ☐

Marketing ☐

Organising exhibitions and festivals ☐

Others ☐

(Specify)_____

THE END. Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire. Your contribution shall go a long way in making this study project a success.

Annexure D: SHONA QUESTIONNAIRE

NUMBER_____

INTRODUCTION

Ini ndinonzi Albert Maruta, Doctoral student in Management Sciences (Tourism) pa Durban University of Technology. Ndiri kuita tsvakurudzo mune zvavashanyi iri zadziso ye doctoral degree. Musoro tsvakurudzo unoti: 'A framework for facilitation of community-based tourism in natural environments: A case of Save Valley in Zimbabwe.' Munokumbirwa kubatsira nokupindura mibvunzo inotevera pachokwadi.

How to answer the questions

Tsvunha kana kunyora minduro mumutsara yakapiwa.

CHIKAMU A: Zvavanhu

4. Munhui ☐ Murume
   ☐ Mukadzi
5. Zera ☐
6. Kuroora ☐ Kwete
   ☐ Ndakaroora
   ☐ Ndakafirwa
   ☐ Takasiyana
   ☐ Takarambana
   ☐ Zvimwe
   (Zadzisa)_____

4.Whasvika papi nedzidzo?

Primary ☐
Secondary ☐
College/university ☐
Hapana ☐

5.Unowana mari kubva kupi?

Kubasa ☐
Maricho ☐
Kuzviseenzera ☐
Zvipfuyo ☐
Zvirimwa ☐
Business ☐
Zvimwe ☐
(Zadzisa)_____

CHIKAMU B: COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM ENTERPRISES

6. a) Sarudza basa rezvavashanyi raunofunga kuti ringakodzera kuvanhu vemunharaunda menyu kuti vakwanisa kuzviwanira mari.

Kupa vashanyi pekurara ☐
Kuita mibato yemaoko ☐
Kuita mitambo yetsika nokuimba ☐
Kurima murivo wekutengesera veconservancy ☐
Kuchengeta mhuka dzesango ☐
Zvimwevo ☐
(Zadzisa)_____

b) Nyora zvikonzero zvinotsigira sarudzo yako.

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. a) Vanhu vangaita sei kuti vatangevo mabhisinesi avo anoita zvevashanyi?.

Ngavaite semunhu ari ega kana semunhu ☐

Semushandirapamwe ☐

Semubatanidzwa ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

b) Nyora zvikonzero zvinotsigira sarudzo yako.

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. (a) Semaonero ako Vanhu vangaita sei kuti vawane mari yokutangisa ma bhizimisi ezvavashanyi? Sarudza mhindiro imwe chete.

Kuunganidza mari kubva mumuhoro ☐

Kuunganidza mari se group ☐

Kuwana rubatsiro kubva kuhurumende ☐

Kuwana chikwereti ☐

Rubatsiro rwevamwe vamabhizimisi ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

(b) Nyora zvikonzero zvinotsigira sarudzo yako.

_____

_____

9. Zvingaitwa sei kuti mabhizinisi evanhu vemuno munharaunda arege kuparara?

Kudzidziswa zvamabhizimisi ☐

Kuwana kwekutengesera ☐

Kushambadza ☐

Kutengesa zvinhu zvemhando yapamusoro ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

CHIKAMU C: ZVIGOZHERO KU COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM PROJECTS

10. Ndechipi chigozhero chakakurisa chingatadzisa vanhu kuita bhizimisi rokupa vashanyi pokurara?

Kushaya vashanyi ☐

Dzimba dzisisna kunaka ☐

Kutorerwa vashanyi nema hotels ne ☐

Kushaya kwekutengesera ☐

Kushaya utsana ☐

Migwagwa yakaipa ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

11. Ndechipi chigozhero chakakurisa chingatadzisa vanhu kuita mibato yamaoko?

Kushaya ruzivo ☐

Kushaya kwekutengesera ☐

Kushaya midziyo yokushandisa ☐

Makwikwi nezvimwe zvigadzirwa zvekunze ☐

Kushaya zvokugadzirisa ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

12. a) Ndechipi chigozhero chakakurisa chingatadzisa vanhu kuita zvekuchengeta mhuka dzesango muno muSave Valley?

Vanhu vanodziuraya kuita nyama zvisiri pamutemo ☐

Dzinouraiwa nevanhu vekunze ☐

Hondo yeminda ☐

Mhuka dzinoparara pfuma nezvirimwa ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

b) Chii chingaitwa kuti vanhu vabudirirevo mukuchengeta mhuka dzesango?

_____

_____

13. Ndechipi chigozhero chakakurisa chingatadzisa vanhu kuita bhizimisi ekutengesa?

Kushaya kwekutengesera ☐

Zvitengeswa zvisina kunaka ☐

Kushaya mari yokutangisa ☐

Kushaya zvifambiso ☐

Kushaya ruzivo ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

SECTION D: THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATION IN COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

14. (a) Masangano anomirira zvido zvevanhu munzvimbo (CBOs) anoita basa rakakosha kubatsira vanhu kuti vatangevo mabhizimisi avovo anoita nezvavashanyi vanouya munzvimbo. Ndivanaani vanokodzera kupinda muCBO?

Vanhu vanenge vasarudzwa chete ☐

Madzishe namasabhuku chete ☐

Varungu vanochengeta mhuka ☐

Musanganiswa wavanhu vose ☐

Vamwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

(c) Nyora zvikonzero zvinotsigira sarudzo yako.

_____

_____

_____

15. Ndeapi mabasa anozoitwa neCBO?

Kudana musangano wevagari vemu Save Valley ☐

Kutangisa maproject ezvavashanyi ☐

Kufambisa maproject ezvavashanyi ☐

Kutsvaga mari yokutangisa maprojects ☐

Kuyananisa maboto ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

16. Ndezvipi zvigozhero zvakakurisa zvingatadzisa CBOs kuita basa zvakanaka? Kushaya rutsigiro rwavanhu ☐

Kupindira kwezvamatongerwo enyika ☐

Kushaya mari ☐

Kushaya ruzivo rwoutungamiriri ☐

Uwori ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

SECTION E: FACILITATION FRAMEWORKS

17. Semaonero ako ndivanaani vanofanira kubatsira kuti vanhu Vanhu vatangise mabasa ezvavashanyi?

Varungu ari kuchengeta mhuka ☐

Madona ☐

Hurumende ☐

Vagari vemunzvimbo ino ☐

Vagari venzvimbo vachibatsirana nemasangano mamwe ☐

Vamwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

18. Hurumende yakakosha zvakadii mumabasa azvashanyi evanhu munzvimbo?

Yakakoshesha ☐

Yakakosha ☐

Haina kukosha ☐

19. Madona akakosha zvakadii mumabasa azvashanyi evanhu munzvimbo?

Yakakoshesha ☐

Yakakosha ☐

Haana kukosha ☐

20. Varungu vemhuka akakosha zvakadii mumabasa azvashanyi evanhu munzvimbo?

Yakakoshesha ☐

Yakakosha ☐

Yakakosha ☐

21. Sarudza mabasa makuru angaitwa nevanotevera kuti maprojects evanhu ezvavashanyi abudirire mu Save Valley.

a) **Varungu vemhuka**

Kupa mari ☐

Kugadzira mitemo ☐

Kushambadza ☐

Kutengesa ☐

Kuita ma exhibitions and festivals ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

b) **Madona**

Kupa mari ☐

Kugadzira mitemo ☐

Kushambadza ☐

Kutengesa ☐

Kuita ma exhibitions and festivals ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

c) **Hurumende**

Kupa mari ☐

Kugadzira mitemo ☐

Kushambadza ☐

Kutengesa ☐

Kuita ma exhibitions and festivals ☐

Zvimwevo ☐

(Zadzisa)_____

THE END. Ndinotenda zvikuru. Rubatsiro rwenyu ruchaita kuti tsvagurudzo iyi ibudirire.

Annexure E: LETTER OF CONSENT

CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, Albert Maruta (name of researcher), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: none,
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

_____ _____ _____

Full Name of Participant **Date** **Time** **Signature / Right Thumbprint**

I, _____ (name of researcher) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

_____	_____	_____
Mufakazi (kana achidiwa)	**Zuva**	**Ruoko**
_____	_____	_____
Zita romutariri (kana richidiwa)	**Zuva**	**Ruoko**

Annexure G: GATEKEEPERS' LETTERS

SAVÉ VALLEY CONSERVANCY
P.O Box M13
Mabelreign
Harare
ZIMBABWE

admin@savevalleyconservancy.org
www.savevalleyconservancy.org

27 October 2016

Attention: Mr Albert Maruta

Dear Sir,

RESEARCH PROJECT

This letter serves to confirm that you have been permission to carry out a tourism research project within Savé Valley Conservancy and that you will be conducting intervies with Mr Gary Duckworth of Mokore Ranch and Mrs Lisa Jane Campbell of Chishakwe Ranch.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you have any queries.

Yours sincerely

Julie Price
Administrator
Savé Valley Conservancy

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