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Contents

EDITORIAL NOTE..................................................................................4

Rethinking tourist motivation: tourism as a rebel metaphor..................6
Patrick W. Mamimine and Vimbiso Ngara

The potential for tourism development in Chinhoyi (Zimbabwe)........23
Kanokanga Farai, Mamimine Patrick, Mapingure Charity, Mwando Molline
and Chidyafodya Nyasha

Differently-abled guests and hoteliers’ perceptions of the suitability
of facilities and hospitality service provision in Zimbabwean hotels ....45
Molline Mwando, Clotilda Kazembe, Tiisetso Mazibeli and Loice Mademutsa

Destination attributes and destination loyalty: A case of Zimbabwe ....62
Getrude Kwanisai, Elizabeth Kanyai and Sebastian Vengesayi

Stakeholders’ perceptions of the potential of dark tourism in Zimbabwe......85
Clotildah Kazembe, Vimbiso Ngara, Tiisetso Mazibeli, Ngonidzashe Ndoorwi
and Pauline Karigambe

Staging black sexuality: from Sara Baartman to Jacob Zuma ............97
Wonderful G. Bere

Implications of the colonial economic legacy on the prospects
and future of entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe.......................................110
Believe Mubonderi and Aaron Rwodzi

Determinants of the adoption of social media advertising................130
Nomagugu Moyo and Charles Makanyeza

Community perceptions of climate variability and livelihoods
in Zimbabwe.......................................................................................156
Dorah Mwenye, Chipo Plaxedes Mubaya and Patience Mutopo
Editorial Note

After two years of preparation, we are proud to introduce a new journal, the Annals of Social and Behavioral Sciences. The purpose of this first editorial is to introduce the journal and briefly provide answers to some of the questions you might have as a reader and researcher. The introduction of this journal is a first in two ways; not only is the journal coming out for the first time, it will also become the first publication by the CUT Publishing House, recently registered by Chinhoyi University of Technology. The control of the journal resides with an Editorial Board comprising local and international academics of indisputable standing.

The Annals of Social and Behavioral Sciences will be a discussion platform for academics and practitioners that are active in all fields of social and behavioral Sciences. The journal welcomes articles whose themes demonstrate the interaction of behavioral sciences, social sciences, natural sciences and technology. Contributions must show relevance to the development challenges of Zimbabwe and the wider world. Both scholars and practitioners are encouraged to demonstrate awareness of developments taking place in the other.

The journal will cater for a wide range of readers. This issue, in particular, contains papers covering varied subjects such as tourism, social media, climate change and sexuality, among others. These papers were selected from many that were presented at an International Conference hosted by the University in July 2015. Future issues of the journal will widen subject area coverage within the parameters of the broader subjects of social and behavioral sciences.

I would like to extend my sincerest thanks to the members of the Editorial Board for this issue (listed on the inside front cover) who worked so hard to
produce this first issue. Their commitment included two days of retreat to work as a team preparing the articles for publication. I also extend my gratitude to the reviewers who put their time into the reviews and their commitment to quality in the articles. I am grateful of having the opportunity of working with an editorial team with so much passion and commitment. This journal is a reflection of the growth and positioning of Chinhoyi University of Technology in the wider community of academia. I hope this first issue will encourage researchers to submit more articles of quality in order to share their research findings with the knowledge community.

As Editor-In-Chief I welcome all your comments and suggestions. Please feel free to contact us on the following e-mail addresses: zmuranda@cut.ac.zw or zororomuranda@gmail.com
Rethinking tourist motivation: 
tourism as a rebel metaphor
1 Patrick W. Mamimine and Vimbiso Ngara

Abstract

The days of the innocent tourist, if ever they existed, seem to have ended with the era of the Grand Tour, yet contemporary theoretical constructs on tourism continue to harp on the ‘knowledge seeking’, ‘adventure-fond’, ‘wonder-lust’ and ‘leisure-driven’ tourist. This largely romanticised and popularised narrative of tourist traits is not only naïve but also obscures the rebel attributes which has become an integral part of modern tourism. A rebel view of tourism provides scholars and destination planners with hindsight on the destructive and rebellious2 character of some tourists and how the latter could cope with playing host to both tourists and pseudo-tourists (rebels) to ensure the safety and security of their people. Using a content analysis of literature, this paper draws a parallel between rebel3 and tourist culture. What emerges from the literature is evidence of the term ‘tourist’ sometimes being used as a metaphor for masking the true identity of a globe-trotting community of rebels. The rebel culture is the other face of tourism which reminds us that tourism is not solely and not always a leisure seeking phenomenon but a disruptive and destructive force masquerading as tourism.

On the 4th of October, 2012 the lead author of this paper shared a prison-cell with three French tourists who had been arrested in the City of Chinhoyi (Zimbabwe) for

1 Department of Hospitality and Tourism, Chinhoyi University of Technology
2 The term ‘rebellious’ is used herein to describe the wayward behaviour of some tourists which has close resemblance to fugitives from norms and values prevailing in their own home countries and their temporary assumption of the ‘rebel’ role at various destinations.
3 The word is used here to mean the same with the term deviant.
smoking marijuana in public and the Police detail who arrested them asked the tourists whether they would have behaved the way they did if it were in France; to which the tourists responded with an honest: “No Sir!”

**Introduction**

The dominant conceptualisation and selling point of tourism in literature is that of a leisure phenomenon that steers economic growth and development (see Fayissa *et al*, 2007, UNWTO, 2005, Bezmen, 2006; Sinclair, 1998; Durbarr, 2004). The motivation for tourism is classified into two types, i.e. “push” and “pull” factors (see Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Pearce, 1993; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994). In the presentation of the spectrum of push and pull motivational factors tourism is generally portrayed as a pleasure and well-intentioned undertaking such as escaping from a perceived mundane everyday life (Cohen 1972, 1979, Turner & Ash, 1975), relaxation (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) prestige (Doran, Larsen & Wolff, 2014), enhancing relationships (Prayag & Rayan, 2011), experiencing the Other, novelty and education. In sum, the norm is to present tourism from a positive angle.


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4 This incident provided inspiration to the writing of this paper.
of crimes. Generally then, the concern and thrust of most of the scholars is about crime against ‘innocent’ tourists wherever they are.

The September 11, 2001 incident in which 19 militants associated with the Islamic extremist group al-Qaeda hijacked four airliners and carried out suicide attacks against targets in the United States, is one of the testimonies that the term tourist is not only fluid and abused but has also become a mask that may be used by rebels to gain access to any part of the world under the guise of tourism. This situation warrants the broadening of existing tourism research and theorization to embrace the ‘rebel’ dimension of tourism.

To date, there is hardly any literature, dedicated to theorising this rebel dimension of the tourism phenomenon. While the crimes of hosts against tourists attract a lot of publicity and scholarship; the crimes of tourists against the hosts, are either underplayed or romanticised. Crimes committed by tourists are viewed more as accidental behaviour and not as a manifestation of a deep-seated and pre-meditated subversive instinct. Where literature recognises the rebel nature of tourists it is done in a manner indicative of attempts to protect the tourist image. For

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**Tourist fined for defacing Rome’s Colosseum**

Rome-A Russian tourist caught red-handed trying to carve his initials on a wall of Rome’s Colosseum was ordered on Saturday to pay a fine of €20 000, ANSA reported.

The 42-year old was using a sharp-edged stone to engrave a large K, about 25cm tall, onto the brick surface, the Italian news agency said. The judge also handed down a suspended four-month jail sentence. He was the fifth visitor to the Colosseum to be penalised for defacing the famous monument this year. The others were an Australian father and son, two teenagers, from Canada and Brazil. The Roman daily II Messaggero said authorities would increase the number of surveillance cameras and step up visual and audio warnings against vandalism. The Colesseum, the biggest amphitheatre built during the Roman Empire standing 48.5m tall, welcomes more than six million visitors a year.

Long-delayed repairs to the 2 000-year-old monument, once used for bloody gladiatorial contests, began in September. Funded by Italian billionaire Diego Della Valle, the refurbishment is expected to end in 2016.-AFP.
instance, de Albuquerque and McElroy (1999) reflecting on Ryan and Kinder (1996)’s hot spot theory of crimogenic places in tourism, argue that “some of the crime these areas generate is of course victimless since tourists themselves often engage in deviant behavior (such as drugs) with criminal consequences”. The question is what does one mean by ‘victimless’ crime? Ryan and Kinder (1996) recognize that many tourists can misbehave (drug trafficking, paedophilia), but by and large the tourist’s share of blame in crime at destinations is not a subject of research.

The definition of ‘rebel’ has not yet received any serious scholarly attention other than Camus (1956) who defines a rebel as “somebody who confronts an order of things which oppresses him with insistence on a kind of right not to be oppressed beyond the limit that he can tolerate”. Though of less scholarly outfit, an Online dictionary, Dictionary.com (2014) also defines a rebel as “a person who resists any authority, control, or tradition”. Noteworthy is that in ordinary talk, the term rebel is commonly used to refer to ‘insurgents’, ‘challengers’, ‘deviants’, ‘bandits’, ‘revolutionaries’ and ‘terrorists’ on the extreme end. Above all, to most people, the term rebel evokes images of cold blooded killers, rapists and destroyers.

Boswell and Dixon (1993) instead of defining a rebel, focuses on a rebellion which they define as extensive violent actions against a state. It is construed to be an uprising or a revolution against a government. However, a rebellion does not only exist in a warfront. Rebellions and uprisings occur in almost every area of life, in schools, at workplaces, in homes and almost any place where people are found. One of the most common characteristic of a rebellion or rebel is primarily the use of either physical or symbolic violence as a means to an end. Nonetheless, it is worth acknowledging that peaceful rebellions have and do occur and at times the use of violence is only a last resort. In this conceptual paper, we argue that there is strong resemblance of characteristics between a rebel and a tourist.
Voluntary assumption of risk

Of all the defining characteristics of a tourist, is the central tendency of them delving into the unknown (see UNWTO, 2007 ‘travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment’) in pursuit of leisure and other ulterior motives. This trait has a lot in common with the rebels’ voluntary assumption of risk. Petersen (2001) contends that rebellions involve the acceptance of risk. When a person decides to rebel, there is inevitable risk involved. Visiting any tourist destination involves some form of risk. The very nature of products meant for tourism, that is, intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and others means that one can never be really sure of what they are going to experience until the point of consumption, just as a rebel can never be sure of the actual consequences of their action until they have taken action. Certain forms of tourism such as adventure tourism are highly risky in nature hence tourists intending to engage in it are usually asked to sign forms to the effect that they are aware of the risk involved and they accept such risk without prejudice to the tour operator. No wonder why some tourists have certain self-perceptions of “risk-takers” (see Fuchs and Reichel, 2004). Plog (1994) characterises this category of tourists as novelty-seeking, adventurous, active and risk-taking.

Juxtaposition of moral and immoral conscience

Rebels can be classified into two groups; “good” rebels and “bad” rebels. Monin, Sawyer and Marquez (1998) categorised a group of “good” rebels whom they termed ‘moral rebels’. They defined these moral rebels as, “individuals who take a principled stand against the status quo, who refuse to comply, stay silent, or simply go along when this would require that they compromise their values” (Monin, Sawyer and Marquez 1998:76). The so
called eco-tourists of the present day can be likened to the moral rebels. The behaviour of moral rebels was seen as inspiring to uninvolved observers, but threatening to people in the situation (Monin, Sawyer and Marquez 1998). The study conducted by Monin, Sawyer and Marquez however, showed that moral rebels are not always accepted (seen as good), but are often rejected and seen as a threat to an individual’s own morality and as personal rejection. On the one hand, such green-washing may serve to assuage the environmental ‘guilt’ of consumers; tourists may feel more ‘responsible’ by going on ecotours, for example, whether or not such holidays are genuinely ‘green’ (Robbins, 2008). In any case, the emergence and popularisation of ecotourism is a direct admission that tourism as a phenomenon carries with it some ‘eco-terrorists’ or elements bend on destroying the very environment on which tourism subsists.

Butcher (2005) in his book titled The Moralisation of Tourism: Sun, Sand and ...Saving the World, defines a new breed of tourists who he terms “the new moral tourist.” This tourist is juxtapositioned against the mass tourist who is believed to be the embodiment of everything evil in tourism. According to Butcher (2005:63), “tourism in its traveller form has always been associated with freedom”. Tourist having “too much freedom” is what leads to most of the problems associated with tourism. The new moral tourist on the other hand is guided by a set of codes of conduct that ultimately inhibits certain behaviours that are seen to be unacceptable and inappropriate. He is viewed as a thinking being in search of a deeper travel experience than his/her more frivolous counterpart, perhaps a connection with authentic cultures and a desire to be closer to nature (Butcher 2005). However, despite the morality seemingly epitomised by this type of tourist, both types of tourists ultimately exploit tourism resources such as indigenous cultures and the natural and built environment.
Living in the ideal World

Cohen (1979) contends that if tourism were to become central in one’s life, an individual would become deviant as he would be seen to be retreating or opting out of the duties imposed on him by society. By becoming a deviant the tourist becomes a rebel of sorts, rebelling against societal norms and expectations by escaping into a world of permanent leisure, an idealised world, which is ultimately the goal of most rebels. “Tourists themselves collude in the creation and perpetuation of an idealised and authenticated image of their chosen destination, one that excludes the inconveniently placed signifiers of modernity, of poverty, environmental degradation or social and political decay” (Smith and Duffy 2003: 118). The tourist recreates the destination into an unrealistic and idealised version of their dreams, an escape from reality.

The concept of escapism is rampant in tourist literature (Hiller 1976, Kubalek 2008, Edensor 2001, Urry, 2002). Sharpley and Telfar (2014) contend that tourist motivation can depart from the need to escape from personal and interpersonal environments. The “rebel” also seeks an escape from reality that is perceived to be restrictive. In the act of rebellion, an abstract ideal is chosen (Bower 1956). In the same ambit, Smith and Duffy (2003:1008)) contend that “it is the search for the authentic that creates tourist motivations to visit new and ‘unspoilt’ peoples and places”. Such places ultimately exist only in the minds tourists, being the perfect tourist utopia that in reality usually turns out to be nothing but a pipe dream. A rebel within his own society would be a hero only in the ideal world where he would create a future through revolt (Gillespie 1994). Thus both rebels and tourists live in a world driven by fantasy.
Social stigmatisation

Rebels are normally subjected to stigmatisation in the communities in which they live (Jetten et al 2001, Medovoi 2005, Jetten and Hornsey 2010). In a study of Germans visiting Samoa, when travelers were asked whether they considered themselves as tourists, very few answered yes, implying that being a tourist may carry a social stigma in some contexts (Fischer 1984; Hennig 1997:31 in Jacobsen 2000). While tourism may not necessarily be perceived as being “evil” per se, tourists seem to be ashamed of what being a tourist entails. Hall and Tucker (2004) stipulate that the negativity associated with tourism has its genesis in the substitution of ‘traveller’ for ‘tourist’, with traveller being portrayed as a non-tourist aware of the negative impacts of tourism and the social stigmatisation of tourism, particularly mass tourism.

According to Hall and Tucker (2004), the unsavoury image of mass tourism has developed into a wholesale denial of the identity of the tourist as a tourist. Mass tourism has become associated with all forms of evil with the tourist being the perpetrator of rape (abusing virgin untamed destinations), sacrilege, plunder and vandalism; behaviours that are commonly associated with rebels. However, even other seemingly ‘good’ and ‘innocent’ forms of tourism are still stigmatised. The Great Britain: All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism (2011) indicated that individuals who participate in social tourism, a form of tourism that benefits the poor and marginalised in society are stigmatised and often made to feel unworthy because they need assistance to go on holiday. This is supported by Hall and Tucker (2004) who argue that the term tourist itself has acquired negative connotations that far surpass those of mass tourism.
**Predatory nature of the engagement**

Collier (2000) defines rebellion as a form of predation of natural resources, which is a criminal activity. He argues that natural resource crime is a large scale activity to which government responds by attempting to defend the resources and this gives rise to violent conflict. In the context of tourism Cohen (1972) predicted that mass tourism in developing countries, if not controlled and regulated destroys whatever there is still left of unspoiled nature. Would this not be a form of predation of natural resources? Cohen goes further to liken the international tourist to conquerors and colonialists, who were also rebels of their time.

Robinson *et al* (2013) contend that tourism is heavily dependent on natural resources such as landscapes, water and energy. Without an exploitation of natural resources, there would virtually be no tourism. Bella (2006) proposed a model based on a predator-prey analysis of the biological evolution of two species of ants, the one referred to as the residents, and the other one as the visitors, both dwelling in the same green field, to get an insight into the effects of mass-tourism on the economic management of an open access natural resource base. In this model, Bella likens tourists to a colony of predating legionarie ants, which “move across the forest destroying everything on their path, with their terrible crunching mouths” (Bella, 2006:11). Tourists are thus seen as predators preying on the natural resource base of a destination.

**Acts of Eco-terrorism**

A destructive tendency ostensibly follows rebels wherever they go. Nameth (2010) alludes that the rebel is spurred by a stranger's voice in his head that tempts him to commit immoral destructive acts. In the wake of the rebel's trail,
are to be found dead bodies, vandalised buildings and trees, destruction and havoc. Is this any different from the trail of dead carcases left behind by a sport hunter, or the graffiti on ancient monuments and trees modelled by the mass tourist? Unmistakably, even the most sustainable forms of tourism, for example ecotourism leaves a trail of destroyed vegetation and compacted soils. Becker (2013) contends that tourism could be one of the most destructive enterprises of the present global era. Cases of acts of ‘eco-terrorism’ (ecological destruction) committed by tourists in many parts of the World are quite commonplace in literature (see Sunlu, 2003; Framework, 2001; Mehta 2013)

Illegal acquisition of assets

MacCannel’s concept of ‘sightseeing’ in tourism which involves recording of ‘signs’ on digital cameras is indeed a celebration of the democratisation of visual piracy. In this practice also lie an industry of the illegitimate acquisition of visual assets by tourists. Again as potent ‘markers’ of the tourist’s physical presence at a particular destination; the visual assets become a scarce resource to be strived for and secured at any cost. Just like in rebel operations, rules do not apply at all. ‘Sightscapes’, mementos, artefacts and trinkets illegally acquired represent a tourist’s travel conquests, a trophy which must be taken to a tourist’s home again at any cost. Turning to rebels, looting is their hallmark or a defining characteristic. This behaviour is also an expression of superiority over the existing rules or regulations. The rebellion provides the actors with an opportunity to be the law unto themselves just as tourism provides the visitors with an opportunity to violate the existing cannons of visual appropriation wherever they go.
Search for authenticity

The whole idea of the search for authenticity in tourism literature is an enterprise in the study of the dreams of society’s rebels. The motivation behind the search for authenticity is romanticised by MacCannel to be alienation with modern life. Bower (1956: 9) contends, “rebellion is born of the spectacle of irrationality, confronted with an unjust and incomprehensible condition, but its blind impulse is to demand order in the midst of chaos, and unity in the very heart of the ephemeral thus it protests, it demands, it insists that the outrage be brought to an end, and that what has up to now been built upon shifting sands should henceforth be founded on rock and its preoccupation is to transform”. The ‘authenticity-seeking’ tourist is irrational and unfair in his demands for an experience that is primitive and exotic in as much as he seeks to reward lifestyles frozen in time, when in his own home country people have changed so many times adjusting to changes in the environment and pushing the frontiers of development.

Child Sex

Child sex tourism is a growing phenomenon in today’s rapidly shrinking world and the sexual crimes of tourists against children are well documented (see Ecpat, 1996; 2006, Song 2005; Klain, 1999; Davison and Taylor 1996) whereas tourism scholarship seems to suffer from an acute eclipse of moral conscience with reference to tourism and child sex. The sheer imagination of a market acknowledging that there is a form of tourism called ‘child sex tourism’ is on its own tantamount to legitimising vice on the basis of prevalence. To talk about child-sex-tourists is indeed an abuse of the terminology ‘tourist’. It is testimony of an erroneous reference to a global syndicate of child sex offenders as a tourist and a form of impersonation of the ideal tourist. Undeniably, this is one
of the cardinal complexities and weaknesses of attempting to define tourism generally from a functionalist point of view. Indeed, there are similarities between rebel culture and tourism culture here in that in most rebel operations the sexual exploitation of girls and women by rebels is not only the norm, the thrill and the exploits of banditry but also the trophy of rebel sexual fantasies. Bower (1956) asserts that the fountain-head of rebellion is the principle of superabundant activity and energy. Rebels are endowed with considerable surplus energy and much of this is released in sexual activity. This is not different from the sexual tourism point of view. It is usually an activity engaged in by young men and women of hyper-active ages and in the prime of their sex drive.

**Conclusion**

Current scholarship in tourism is mainly directed at understanding both tourism and the tourist from a business point of view. In this approach, the aspects of tourism and a tourist studied are meant to assist hosts at visitor destinations to have a ‘good’ understanding of the two phenomena for the purpose of tailoring services that at least meet customer expectations and more desirable, at most exceed customer expectations. This business view of tourism hardly provokes scholars to take a detour and investigate some of the sinister motives of certain travelers who masquerade as tourists. What seems trendy at the moment is for scholars to view the nefarious acts of some tourists as unintended, accidental, pardonable and not worthy of serious scholarly attention. The problem with this biased view of tourists is that it poses a serious risk to national safety and security of many destinations with its failure to articulate the rebel nature of certain visitors masquerading as tourists.

There is therefore indeed a case for building a corpus of literature around the illusory nature of the UNWTO definition of tourism, which views the activity
as travel and stay for ‘leisure, business and other purposes not related to
the exercise of an activity remunerated.’ It is this window of ‘other purposes’
which requires amplification and scrutiny to illuminate on the nature of rebel
activities and why some visitors never known to be rebels in their countries
of origin engage in rebel activities once they are in foreign lands. This paper
tried to draw a parallel between the phenomena of tourism and rebellions,
a tourist and a rebel to red-flag the existence of a theoretical gap in tourism
studies.

The importance of the rebel view of tourism lies in its attempt to give salience
to the juxtaposition of the benign tourists and rebels masquerading as tourists
at various destinations in the world. Scholarship on tourists and rebels would
shed light on how destinations could cope with playing host to both tourists
and pseudo-tourists (rebels) to ensure the safety and security of their people.

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The potential for tourism development in Chinhoyi (Zimbabwe)

Kanokanga Farai, Mamimine Patrick, Mapingure Charity, Mwando Molline and Chidyafodya Nyasha

Abstract

Tourism development tends to follow anchor attractions including cities and their surroundings while marginalising small towns and their environs. This is despite the fact that the small towns and their hinterlands can also offer competitive tourism products. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) gathers visitor statistics of major tourist destinations only thereby sidelining the density of tourist traffic that either passes through or visits the small towns in the country. Unless this problem is addressed, the tourism potential of small towns and their hinterlands will not be fully tapped for economic development. The tourism development of small towns augments Zimbabwe’s attractiveness as a destination. Using a qualitative research methodology, this study investigated the opportunities for tourism development in the Greater Chinhoyi area. The survey revealed that Greater Chinhoyi area had potential for heritage tourism, village tourism, urban tourism, educational tourism, dark tourism, recreational tourism, agro-tourism and nature tourism. The study also noted that success in turning the tourism resources into attractive viable products depends on the planners’ ability to divert tourist traffic from its usual linear route to anchor attractions to make them consume tourism products along and around the main route. There is a need to link the various tourism resources in Greater Chinhoyi to anchor attractions in

5 Department of Hospitality and Tourism, Chinhoyi University of Technology
dominant resorts, then develop and present the tourism products in transit towns as ‘appetisers’ or ‘appetiser attractions’ before one gets to the main destination.

**Keywords:** anchor attractions; appetisers, agro-tourism, heritage tourism, small towns; tourism corridor, hidden treasures

**Introduction**

Tourism development tends to follow anchor attractions including cities and their surroundings while marginalising small towns and their environs. Lamont (2009) observes that new market trends indicate that tourists are increasingly seeking a varied holiday, which combines a number of attractions and leisure opportunities within the same trip. The interest is no longer in visiting a single famous resort or a number of resorts, but in exploring the ‘context’ where they are located. Consequently, the satisfaction experienced by the visitor does not merely depend on the quality of each visit, but also on their perception of the whole tourist region. The issue of the tourism potential of small towns and peripheral areas is addressed in literature (Wilkson 2008, Brouder 2013, Kanokanga et al., 2014).

The Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy (ZNTP, 2010) highlights that Zimbabwe’s competitive advantage in tourism clearly lies in its natural and man-made attractions such as Victoria Falls, the Eastern Highlands, Matopos, Great Zimbabwe, Kariba, among others. These products were largely developed along a Euro-centric approach where the existence of an attraction in a region gave birth to a Tourism Development Zone (TDZ). The ZNTP recognises that “the entire country is a potential TDZ and this opens up new opportunities to develop new and niche tourism products” such as cultural tourism, event tourism, agro-tourism, sports tourism, township tourism, educational tourism, and others. The development of these new tourism products enhances the
competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination and the spreading of tourism benefits across Zimbabwe (ZNTP, 2010:6).

Furthermore, Poon (2001) notes that destinations are taking measures to move away from the ‘mass destruction and standardisation’ that mass tourism has created. He also observes that destinations acknowledge the existence of the new tourist who is spontaneous and sun-plus unlike the old tourist who was predictable and sun – lust. There is need therefore to explore the potential for tourism development including catering for the needs of niche tourism markets in small towns and their surroundings.

**The Greater Chinhoyi Area**

The Greater Chinhoyi area covers Chinhoyi town and its environs with a radius of about 60 km. The area plays host to the Mutare-Harare-Chirundu (615 km) highway which connects with Mozambique to the East, Zambia to the North and South Africa to the South (Figure 1). It is also situated along the main route to Mana Pools (the Mecca of wildlife in Zimbabwe) and to Lake Kariba (Zimbabwe’s biggest man-made lake). The Chinhoyi town is about 115 km from Harare with a population of 68 262 (ZimStat, 2012).

Chinhoyi town is the provincial capital of Mashonaland West Province, one of the ten administrative provinces in Zimbabwe. The town is also the district headquarters of Makonde District, one of the six districts in the province. The province, like all other provinces in Zimbabwe, is headed by a Minister of State for Provincial Affairs, while the Local Municipality is headed by a mayor. The town is home to Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT) and a provincial branch of the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU), whose main campus is located in Mt Pleasant (Harare).
Tourism and its resources

As opposed to describing a destination in terms of a well-defined geographical area such as a country, island or town (Davison and Maitland, 1997; Hall, 2000), contemporary definitions view a destination as a blend of consumers’ space and tourism products providing a holistic experience which is subjectively interpreted according to the consumer’s travel itinerary, cultural background, purpose of visit and past experience (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2003). Essentially, a tourist destination is an amalgam of tourist products, services and public goods consumed under the same brand name, thus offering the consumer an
integrated experience (Buhalis, 2000; Leiper, 1995).

According to UNWTO (2007) tourism resources are factors that make it possible to produce a tourism experience. Yoon (2002) points out that destination resources have been considered the driving forces generating tourist demand. Buhalis (2000) came up with a list of components of tourism resources which are termed the destination mix or six A’s. The resources can be grouped into, attractions, access, amenities, activities, available packages and ancillary services. UNWTO (2007) classified tourism resources into tangible resources, intangible resources, human resources and financial resources. Tangible resources include the main attractors in a destination which include natural and man-made attractions. These attractions will be important initially in motivating tourists to travel to a destination. Accommodation which suits the tourist in terms of location and price is also an important resource. Intangible resources include the destination’s reputation, image and culture and the host community and funds for operations epitomise human and financial resources, respectively.

On attractions as resources, MacCannell (1976) argues that a phenomenon must have three components to be considered an attraction. Seemingly, this criterion could enable virtually anything to become a tourist attraction. Thus, ‘attraction’ in its widest context would include not only the historic sites, amusement parks, and spectacular scenery, which are normally associated with the word, but also the services and facilities which cater to the everyday needs of tourists. Also included would be the social institutions which form the basis for the very existence of human habitation. However, Holloway (2006) points out that we must accept that no clear definition exists for the term ‘visitor attraction.’ It can be argued that any site that appeals to people sufficiently to encourage them to visit it should be judged a ‘visitor attraction’.
Tourism development in small towns

According to Kusen (2010), tourism has the ability to develop or to change tourism resources into commercial property. Tourism is widely viewed as a development tool in peripheral areas like small towns and rural areas (Rogerson 2005, Donaldson 2007, Wilson 2008.) According to Zhou (2013) the benefits of using tourism as a strategy for local economic development have been critically examined in literature (Wilkison, 2008; Davis and Morais, 2004). Brouder (2013) observes that much has been done in order to develop rural and peripheral areas resulting in different outcomes. Many of the outcomes are represented by case studies (Brown and Hall, 2000, Hall et al. 2005).

According to Wilkson (2008), the once small South African town of Parys, was developed into a recreational resort. The Vaal River provided some of the impetus for the development. Wilkson contends that the River became the back bone of tourism in that town. Before it developed into a recreational resort, residents promoted the interest of the town through forming swimming and boating clubs. Soon more people would visit to sunbath along the river banks and swim. This saw the development of sanitation facilities and bathing facilities along the river. This was spear-headed by the town council, which saw this as an opportunity to draw tourists to the town (Wilkson 2008).

Wilkson (2008) further indicates that most of the cases on how tourism in small towns has developed tended to adopt culture and adventure tourism for their growth. In Malaysia, the government encouraged the setting up of agro tourism centres which could be used for educational and recreational purposes. Davis and Morais (2004) state that Williams, in Arizona (population 2 529) is a typical small town that, over the previous hundred years, has experienced the rise and fall of resource extraction industries such as logging, ranching, and mining as well as the ebbs and
flows of the tourist trade. Williams has been host to the Grand Canyon Railway. This tourist railroad is one example of a tourism enterprise situated in a rural host community. Over the previous decade, the town has seen the growth of its popularity and the Railway’s expansion of its depot into a full resort destination. The Greater Chinhoyi area’s tourism potential is also worthy documenting for tourism development.

Methodology

A qualitative research methodology was used for this study. Specifically, researchers conducted interviews with key informants (central and local government officials), focus group discussions (Hospitality and Tourism students at Chinhoyi University of Technology) and toured the Greater Chinhoyi area to observe resources and cultural activities offering potential for tourism development in the area. The people targeted as key informants were purposively selected from Greater Chinhoyi area, that is, Chinhoyi Town Council and Central government. The students who participated in the focus group discussions were randomly selected. A sample size of 145 was used and was broken down as follows: CUT students (90), CUT staff (25), Government employees (20), and Town Council employees (10). A thematic approach was used to analyse the data collected.

Profile of respondents

Fifty five per cent (55%) of people included in the sample were between the ages 18 to 24 years. This was the dominant group and it included mostly University students. In terms of level of education, 63% of the respondents had either completed university education or were still studying for a degree. For most of the respondents, the average period of living in the Chinhoyi area
was six years. Eighteen percent (18%) of the respondents had been staying in the area for 10 years and more. Eighty two percent (82%) had a shorter period of stay (about three years) in the area. These were mainly students from the University’s School of Hospitality and Tourism.

Findings of the study

This study sought to explore the tourism resources that could be exploited for tourism development in Chinhoyi. The tourism resources identified in the area are heritage sites, villages, urban centres, educational sites, dark tourism sites, recreational sites, agro-tourism areas and nature.

Heritage sites

The National Trust for Historic Preservation (Rowland, 2006: 3), defines heritage tourism as: “traveling to experience the places and activities that authentically represent the stories and peoples of the past and present.” Universally, the birthplace of any head of state provides one of the most powerful heritage tourism resources. The rural home of Robert Gabriel Mugabe, the first Prime Minister and President of Zimbabwe, is situated in the greater Chinhoyi area. It seems rewarding to open the discussion on President Mugabe’s rural home as a heritage tourism resource by extracting a statement from a speech made by the Deputy President, Emmerson Mnangagwa, who announced at a ceremony in Masvingo town.

“President Robert Mugabe’s rural home in Zvimba will soon be declared a national monument in recognition of the role he played during and after the national liberation war.” (Mnangagwa, 2015).
Zvimba is situated about fifty kilometres from Chinhoyi. It is indeed a heritage tourism resource, a political archive harbouring a rich oral history about the humble beginnings of Zimbabwe's first black Prime Minister. With the assistance of the National Archives of Zimbabwe, a lot of historical treasure can be collected, documented and preserved for both posterity and visitors to the area. A visit to the President's rural home provides a rare climax to Village tourism as it presents opportunities for heritage tourism.

Associated to the President's rural home and also of significance as a tourism resource is Marist Brothers Kutama, an institution of great historical significance to the nation as it has produced many iconic personalities in Zimbabwe's commerce and industry, education and political circles. It used to be ranked among Africa’s top 100 high schools in the 1960s. The institution is associated with the education of many prominent people besides President Mugabe. Its alumni include the late first Vice President of ZANU\(^6\) Leopold Takawira (late famous political activist and nationalist), Dr Bernard Chidzero (Zimbabwe’s first black Minister of Finance), Ambassador Tichaona Jokonya (former Zimbabwe permanent representative to United Nations) and others. The neighbouring villages to Kutama are Dambaza, Masiyarwa, Masuwa and Chikambi. From an oral history point of view these could also prove to be a rich repository of the President’s life both now and in his formative years. In addition, any memorable incidents which involved the President in his home area as told by the local people would add to the wealth of oral history and heritage.

The significance of heritage tourism should not be taken for granted. Rowland (2006) points out that heritage tourism is a lucrative industry in the United States. On average, heritage tourists spend $623 per trip compared to $457 for

\(^6\) ZANU is the name of a political party which fought for the independence of Zimbabwe (then Rhodesia) from the colonial rule of Britain. The remains of Takawira are now interned at the National Heroes Acre in Harare.
all U.S. travelers. The rise of heritage tourism is inextricably linked with several trends in American society, namely: the historic preservation movement, the desire for a sense of place, and nostalgia.

Village tourism resources

This refers to complex touristic activities carried out in a rural environment in close connection with nature and people, based upon the personal experience of the rural lifestyle, culture and agriculture (Mintel 2007). There are a number of villages falling under the Greater Chinhoyi area. They are Runene, Hombwe, Madzorera, Godzi, Kaondera, Zumbara, Musariri, and others. The daily activities of people in these villages provide a great opportunity for international tourists to experience the cultural heritage of the Other.

In the villages, visitors experience culture in action. Depending on season, in the fields, visitors would experience traditional or put succinctly, the use of `traditional' or primitive methods of farming such as manuring, planting, weeding, harvesting and others. To the western tourists, this provides a thrilling experience as they are exposed to a sharp contrast between the modern methods of farming in their own home countries and the quasi-primitive forms obtaining in the villages such as the use of cattle drawn ploughs for ploughing. Other facets of village tourism which could fascinate western tourists were the design of most homesteads (round huts), nature and preparation of local cuisine, household artefacts such as hari (earthen pots), mhasa (sleeping mats made of reeds), mikombe (gourds) migoti (wooden cooking sticks), maturi ne mitswi (mortar and pestle), makuyo ne huyo (grinding stones for turning grain into mealie-meal) and others. Tourists could also learn about the communal land tenure system in which real ownership of land resides in the
group or the state. An individual only enjoys usufruct rights (rights to use) and has no right to sell. In addition, tourists could learn about the Shona people’s traditional music and dance, marriage and funeral rites, the traditional religion of ancestral veneration (*bira*), the practice of naming cattle (*kutumidzamazita*) and meanings of names of people derived from the local language (Zezuru).

**Urban centres**

Rogerson (2011) views urban tourism development as a vital dimension of urban entrepreneurialism, economic regeneration and stimulating employment creation. There were a variety of resources in the Greater Chinhoyi area that could be utilised to offer a very exciting urban tourism product. Among some of the resources that were pivotal to offering urban tourism services was the history of Chinhoyi town, tour of the local authority’s administrative centre (town house), tour of oldest buildings in town and their history, pre-colonial (Gadzema, Chitambo, Mastuff, Mupata and Hunyani), and post-colonial (Cold Stream, Ruvimbo, Brundish, Rujeko, Rusununguko and White City) residential areas in Chinhoyi, opportunities to subsume township tourism in urban tourism.

Township tourism in Chinhoyi offers a very rich experience. Residential areas such as Gadzema, was described by many of the interviewees as the ‘Mbare’ of Chinhoyi’. The suburbs built during the colonial era provided one with a window into the attitude of the colonial rulers towards the colonised local peoples. This could be gleaned from the quality of houses, distribution of space inside the houses, quality of materials used and others. The buildings put up in the colonial era in the townships also reflect the classicist nature of the settlements, with the local people or blacks holding influential positions.

7 Mbare is the oldest high-density residential suburb in Harare which is among others very notorious for vices such as crime, prostitution, drugs and others. It is generally regarded as a dirty suburb.
in the town then residing in a quasi-elite suburb called *kumastaff*. These included black business people and senior civil servants.

The phenomenon of township tourism has its origins in post-apartheid South Africa following the emergence of the democratic dispensation in 1994 (Rogerson, 2004:250). Kim, Uysal and Sirgy (2013:528) observe that the arrival to power of the first black-led government ushered in a new era in tourism, one in which the notion of heritage was no longer limited to the exclusivity of the white culture, but included the legacy of other South African races. Zimbabwe and in particular Chinhoyi town could adopt and develop township tourism. Weiner, (2008) points out that Slum tourism, or ‘poorism’, as some call it, is catching on. From the favelas of Rio de Janeiro to the townships of Johannesburg to the garbage dumps of Mexico, tourists are forsaking, at least for a while, beaches and museums for crowded, dirty - and in many ways surprising - slums. According to Kwaramba (2012), township tourism has emerged as a popular poverty-reduction strategy in South Africa. Before, during, and after the tours, poverty is made a subject for discussion. It is implicitly marketed as a supposed attraction, presented as reality or authenticity (Rolfes, 2009).

**Educational sites**

Although all forms of tourism may be regarded as having an educational motive in them, educational tourism maybe defined as a form of tourism strictly motivated by the desire to experience the educational systems of other societies. Ritchie and Cooper observes that educational tourism is a tourist activity undertaken by those who are undertaking an overnight vacation and those who are undertaking an excursion for whom education and learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip (Ritchie and Cooper, 2003).
In this context, Chinhoyi town alone offered tremendous opportunities for the visitor to learn about the various institutions for pre-school education, primary education, and secondary education up to university level. There were numerous pre-schools in the area, also primary schools such as Lomagundi, Chaedza, Sinoia, Chikonohono, Banket, Alaska and others. Secondary schools situated in town comprised Chinhoyi High School, Nemakonde High School, Chinhoyi No. 2 High School, King Solomon College, Alaska Secondary School, Lomagundi College and others. All these could provide the visitor with a good picture of how the educational system is organised in the area and Zimbabwe in general. Of interest from tourism resources point of view would be the various syllabi followed by the schools, history of the schools (colonial and modern), examination systems, sports and other facilities in schools, popular games in schools, teacher qualifications, school fees structures and others. Among the secondary schools, Lomagundi College, a private school, is quite iconic in terms of expression of elitism, with its state of the art facilities and buildings, atrociously and relatively very high school fees. In Greater Chinhoyi area is found all types of schools, private (Lomagundi, King Solomon), government (Nemakonde, Chinhoyi, Chaedza, Chinhoyi No. 2), mission schools (Kutama).

Greater Chinhoyi area also hosts the Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT) with over 7000 students. The University was established to devolve the then Chinhoyi Technical Teacher’s College and other similar colleges into degree - awarding institutions following the realisation that technology was the key driver of industrial development and economic prosperity in Zimbabwe. Of significance to educational tourists is the history of CUT, its national mandate, programmes on offer, architecture (that closely resemble a lower-tier training institution rather than a University), school of Hospitality and Tourism with a teaching hotel (CUT Hotel), staff (academic and non-academic), enrolment, any notable achievements, any high profile members of the University's
alumni, schools/faculties established and the rationale for those schools and others. Visitors could also tour the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) that Chinhoyi campus (centre), which shares a boundary with CUT. ZOU offered around 30 degree programmes by distance learning and had an enrolment of 10 000 students nationally.

Notions of travel and education are inextricably linked, yet the words “tourism” and “education” seem to be more problematic bedfellows (Pitman et al., 2010). The term ‘educational tourism’ has been linked to niche tourism, although the extent and spectrum of travel experiences that fall within this category are still being debated. As an ‘information centric’ pursuit (Hecht, Starosielski and Dara - Abrams 2007), most niche tourism markets are populated by clients motivated by a desire or need to learn. Ritchie (2003: 9) has argued that, ‘the concept of travel for education and learning is a broad and complicated area, which explains why tourism academics and industry have to date largely ignored this field.’ Ankoma and Larson (1991) view educational tourism as an alternative strategy to mass tourism although participants travel to a location as a group. An increasing number of foreign tourists are subscribing to this form of tourism.

**Dark tourism sites**

The Provincial Heroes Acre was identified as a resource around which dark tourism in the Greater Chinhoyi area could be popularised. It lies about 3 km East of Chinhoyi town centre along the Harare road. At this place 42 heroes are interred at a site where the first seven freedom fighters of the Second Chimurenga (guerrilla war) all perished in 1966 in a day-long fierce battle against the colonial forces. The colonial government resorted to both ground and air power to annihilate the guerrillas in what became known as the Battle of Chinhoyi. Notable among some local people accorded provincial hero status
were a former mayor of Chinhoyi (Mayford Mawere), a renowned liberation war musician (Simon Chimbetu) and a former chairperson of Mashonaland West War Veterans Association (Aeneas Mangeya).

The Chinhoyi Provincial Heroes Acre is an appropriate resource for dark tourism. Dark tourism is a multi-layered mixture of history and heritage, tourism and tragedies. The House of Terror museum in Budapest, Hungary, is a good example of a dark tourism attraction. It stands as a monument to the memory of those held captive, tortured and killed in the building under the Nazi and the Communist reigns during and after the Second World War. Opened on February 24th in 2002, the museum reveals the horrors of the two cruelllest systems of the 20th century with the purpose to draw people’s attention to understanding the sacrifice for freedom in Hungary – and giving the visitor a possibility to contemplate the balance of life and death (Niemela, 2010). Tourism planners for the Greater Chinhoyi area could draw lessons from this case and others.

**Recreational centres**

Recreational tourism resources include the Mazvikadei Dam and Resort, the recreational park and the golf course. These are important for recreational tourism. According to Gunn (1988), recreational and tourist resources are an inseparable part of every tourist. Thus Gjorgievski, Kozuharov and Nakovski (2013) are of the view that recreational-tourism resources are the main initiators for tourist travel and a very important tourist motive which animates the tourist movement.

Located in Banket about 25 km from Chinhoyi, is the Mazvikadei dam which was the third largest dam in Zimbabwe. Its construction started in 1985 and ended in 1988. Mazvikadei Resort is popular for fishing, camping, boating
and other tourism-related activities. The Resort also offers game viewing, swimming, boat cruises among other activities.

The town of Chinhoyi boasts of an eighteen-hole Golf course, which is a property of the Chinhoyi Country Club. The Chinhoyi Council has constantly resisted pressure from residents and other stakeholders to convert it into housing land. Instead, other land was allocated for that purpose. It also houses a rugby pitch and facilities for tennis, bowling and others. The golf course is a notable resource for golf tourism. Gjorgievski *et al* (2013) refers to these as ‘anthropogenic recreational,’ meaning resources that are built strictly for leisure purposes.

**Agro-tourism areas**

Oral history had it that Chinhoyi town started off as a town for providing supplies to farmers. The key agro-tourism resources in the Greater Chinhoyi area include A1 (small pieces of land associated with subsistence farming) and A2 (big pieces of land associated with commercial farming) farms and the Chinhoyi Agricultural Show. Maize, soya beans and groundnuts are the most common crops in the Greater Chinhoyi region and the coexistence of A1 and A2 farms resulted in a juxtapositioning of both old (primitive) and modern farming technologies in this area. The use of primitive technology by the former provided a strong tourism resource as tourists from the West would find it a worthwhile experience by seemingly rewinding their watches to the past before modernisation in Europe. The latter situation would appeal to domestic tourists especially in farms where high technology is employed for production.

According to Phandee and Pinthong (2012) agro-tourism is travel to the farming community, agricultural plantations, herb gardens, livestock farms,
and pets and aquaculture. Agro-tourism is an alternative form of tourism. According to Joshi and Bhujbal (2012), it is a specific form of rural tourism with close relation to nature and country side of rural areas and direct relationship to agricultural activities. The tourist has the opportunity on the farm to participate in the agricultural activities in an authentic environment (Phillip et al., 2010). Myer and Crom (2013) observe that by developing farm trails, scheduling daily farm activities, using information brochures, forming networks with existing tourist establishments, encouraging the use of local and fresh produce and providing good roadside signage, farmers could gain increased exposure and recognition for what they do and opportunities for growth and development may be realised.

**Nature**

Nature tourism is travel that encompasses many different activities but essentially includes those which involve participants engaging with nature (Bell et al., 2007). For this form of tourism the Chinhoyi Caves were found to be a ‘must-visit’ phenomenon. They are located 9 kilometres, northwest of the Chinhoyi town along the Harare - Chirundu road. The limestone caves were first described by a famous hunter and explorer Frederick Courtney Selous in 1888. Oral history has it that the caves were named after a local chief who used them as a refuge from the raids of the Ndebele people. These caves are the most extensive cave system in Zimbabwe that the public can access. The caves were designated as a National Park in 1955 and as such are managed by the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority. A pool which is associated with myths and mystery is located right at the middle of the Caves. One of the myths is that if one attempts to throw a stone across the Chinhoyi Caves pool, it will not reach the other end. Together with the Chinhoyi Caves Motel which is adjacent to the Caves, these present terrific tourism resources in the Greater Chinhoyi area.
The recreational park which houses the Caves offers a breath-taking flora and fauna. The flora comprises largely indigenous species which include the Violet tree, the Cape Fig, Mukwa, the Yellow Wood, Pink Jacaranda, and others. Although there are no large animals in the Park, baboons, monkeys, bush pigs and rock hares can occasionally be seen. The bird diversity includes the Arnotis Chat, Angola Rock Thrush, Large striped Pipit, the Woodpecker species, and others. There are also picnic and camp sites in the park.

According to Dolnicar and Leisch, (2008), the natural environment represents the main resource for many tourism destinations and tourists are increasingly interested in spending their vacation in unspoilt natural areas. Consequently, destination managers are under increased pressure to implement ecologically sustainable practices.

Conclusion

The need to develop tourism in small towns and previously marginalised areas is critical especially given that tourism development in Zimbabwe in general has tended to follow anchor attractions while transit towns were marginalised. This was notwithstanding the fact that these transit towns were also endowed with tourism resources. An exploration of the potential for tourism development in the greater Chinhoyi area revealed that there are numerous tourism resources available in the area. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the existence of the tourism resources did not automatically translate these resources into viable tourism products for the area. Instead, a lot of forethought needs to be put into how the identified tourism resources could be linked to anchor attractions in popular resorts.

Success in turning the tourism resources into attractive viable products depends on the planners’ ability to divert tourist traffic from its usual linear route to anchor attractions to make them consume tourism products along
and around the main route. There is need to link the various tourism resources in greater Chinhoyi to anchor attractions in dominant resorts, then develop and present the tourism products in transit towns as ‘appetisers’ or ‘appetiser attractions’ before one gets to the main destination.

The linkages between ‘appetiser attractions’ and anchor attractions in resort areas could be forged through organising package tours in which all parties benefit, that is, from both the supply and demand sides. On the supply side, both the small town tour operator and the main resort operator should benefit from the diversion of tourists from their normal route. Indeed, there is a lot of hidden treasure in the form of tourism resources in the greater Chinhoyi area but for that treasure to assume real economic value, an aggressive marketing thrust is needed.

References


Differently-abled guests and hoteliers’ perceptions of the suitability of facilities and hospitality service provision in Zimbabwean hotels

Molline Mwando, Clotilda Kazembe, Tiisetso Mazibeli and Loice Mademutsa

Abstract

Hotels are social institutions where all prospective guests despite their physical condition should receive fair treatment. While many issues on hospitality service provision have been systematically investigated, accessibility and service provision for the differently-abled guests have remained largely understudied. Using a qualitative research methodology, this study explores the differently-abled guests and hotel managers’ perceptions of the suitability of facilities and service provision in Zimbabwean hotels. The findings of the study revealed a gap between hotel managers and differently-abled guests’ perceptions of what constituted suitability of access. The differently-abled generally felt that hotel facilities were unsuitable for their diverse needs whilst the opposite was true for the hotel managers. These conflicting views were indicative of a management that was out of touch with reality on the ground. From the hoteliers’ point of view, differently-abled guests were perceived to be too few to worry about their comfort and resultant contribution to the hotels’ earnings. There

8 Department of Hospitality and Tourism, Chinhoyi University of Technology
is therefore a need for stakeholders to view this issue with a philanthropic lens rather than focusing on profits only. An `access as a right’ approach must be adopted by all hoteliers as they consider the suitability of their facilities and services to the differently-abled people.

**Key words:** perceptions, differently-abled guests, suitability, hospitality service provision

**Introduction**

The differently abled population has become a significant consumer segment, with a population of over 650 million, (Genoe and Singleton, 2009). This has motivated the hospitality and tourism industry to start recognizing the economic benefits attached to serving people with disabilities (Ray and Ryder, 2003). Due to prevailing political and economic environment the situation in Zimbabwe is in a cleft stick, making things even more difficult for people with disabilities (Viriri and Makurumidze, 2014). There is growing research concerning disability issues. Research interest in people with disabilities is evident in hospitality related studies (Lane, 2007). Surprisingly, only few empirical studies have focused exclusively on the actual hotel experience of people with disabilities especially in Zimbabwe. Moreover, Grady and Ohlin (2009) highlighted the importance of speaking directly with people with disabilities in order to understand their needs in the context of hospitality industry. Such studies that provide people with disabilities an opportunity to express their needs are rare. Also to note, the supply-side perspective of industry responses to this consumer group has been under-researched (Darcy and Pegg, 2011). Given the lack of research in this critical area of service provision, this study sought to explore both the differently-abled guests and hotel managers’ perceptions of suitability of facilities and hospitality service provision in hotels.
United Nations Convention on the Rights of people with disabilities (2008) stipulates that, disabled is used to define those individuals with long term physical, mental, cognitive, or sensory impairment that may hinder full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others. In addition Freeman and Selmi (2009) adds on saying that, the term disabled includes those with hearing, visual, communication, mobility, agility, pain, learning, memory lapse, developmental, or psychological/psychiatric difficulties to the extent that it could hinder their participation within society”. World Health Organisation and World Bank (2011) brings in another dimension of the relationship between aging population and disability whereby people experience mobility, vision, hearing, and cognitive disabilities as part of the aging process. Aging tourism is directly connected and linked to accessible tourism for such reason that disability is related to older ages.

**Hospitality service delivery**

Service delivery in hospitality industry can be regarded as a combination of activities and technological processes, which provide customers, including the differently-abled guests the necessary conditions for the purchase and consumption of the hotel product. Campos and Marodin (2012) view service delivery as a process of rendering services with a given duration and at a certain place, carried out by human and material resources in favour of the customer needs. In this process people and matter are set in motion to produce intangible values. Ha and Jang (2012) consider service delivery as a system, with basic elements namely staff, customers and the material environment. The process of “production”, rendering and consumption of hotel services is carried out during their interaction of the elements. In the same vein (Campos and Marodin, 2012) consider hotel service delivery as a combination of operations which consists of three main elements of service operations: customers, staff and physical environment (buildings, equipment
These three components are correlated and must be in a harmonious balance. Presence of human presence has been seen to play a key role when it comes to service delivery and this also implies that even with the differently abled guests it is still important. Timmerman (2013) then remarks that the key role of human factor in service-performance process makes the medium of interaction strongly insecure and it turns quality into a variable and subjective value and reduces the opportunities for control. Of interest is the opinion of Wonglorsaichon and Wiriyakitjar (2013) who views the guest not only as a consumer of services but as a participant in the service process. Thus one’s perceptions of service delivery can change the operation of the service-performance process to a great extent. On the other hand, Timmerman (2013) argues that the process of hotel service delivery cannot be carried out without the participation of staff and mostly of employees in direct contact. They influence the way the service-performance process is carried out with their professional skills and personal qualities.

Accessibility in the hospitality industry

Patterson et al. (2012) observed that the population of people with disabilities had financial constraints compared to the general population thus it limits them from participating in hospitality services. It seems most hotels use this assumption as an excuse for not offering suitable services for this market segment. In contrast World Health Organisation (2011) states that people with disabilities have disposable incomes similar to those of the general population. Barret and Duret (2010), stipulate that one of the paramount differently-abled guests’ needs is the accessibility to services. In their review they mentioned the non-discriminatory approach to the accessibility of the service and Yates (2007) is of the view that disabled travelers remain shadowy figures and their voices are rarely heard. The differently-abled do not have the muscle to have their voices heard in the hotel industry but instead they switch to more accessible competitors leaving behind, inaccessible premises, inaccessible websites, poor customer service, and lack of awareness, poor communications,
lack of flexibility, inaccessible telephone systems, and inaccessible printed information (Legacy For Disabled People, 2012). This then makes access an inevitable aspect when dealing with services for the differently-abled guests. Access varies depending on disability and goes well beyond the physical type alone; Darcy (1998) characterized access using three main dimensions that is the physical, sensory and communication access. Physical access which involves people with physical disabilities requiring the use of wheelchairs or walking aids and requires the provision of, for example, handrails, ramps, lifts and lowered counters. Sensory access which involves people with hearing or sight impairments requiring the provision of, for example, tactile markings, signs, labels, hearing augmentation and listening systems, and audio cues for lifts and lights. Communication access, involves those people who have difficulty with the written word, vision, speech, and hearing impairment. In this regard, differently-abled guests have special and sometimes individualized needs that must be accommodated to ensure accessibility and hospitality service provision in hotels.

Accessible tourism is about making it easy for all people to enjoy tourism experiences’, which importantly places the focus on what anyone travels for – enjoyable tourism experiences (Darcy, 2010). One way of understanding and developing a foundation for accessible tourism can be found through the concept of universal design. Universal design is a paradigm that extends the concepts of continuous pathways, access and mobility, and barrier-free environments to incorporate intergenerational and lifespan planning that recognises the nexus between ageing, disability and the continuum of ability of people over lifespan (Steinfeld and Shea, 2001). Universal design is defined as,

*the design of products and environments to be usable by all people, to the greatest and extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialised design…The intent of the universal*
design concept is to simplify life for everyone by making products, communications, and the built environment more usable by more people at little or no extra cost. The universal design concept targets all people of all ages, sizes and abilities (Center for Universal Design, 2003).

Hotel managers’ perceptions on accessibility and hospitality service provision in hotels

Disability and access have been the subject of a great deal of government regulation and coordination through building codes, awareness training and state-based tourism marketing authorities and policy engagement. Yet, the supply-side perspective of industry responses to this consumer group has been under researched (Darcy and Pegg, 2011). A report by Legacy For Disabled People (2012) highlighted that most service industry professionals do not understand the specific needs of customers with disabilities. Thus it is imperative to explore perceptions of the differently-abled and hotel managers so as to ensure the provision of accessible and quality services to this marginalised group.

Previous work done by several authors on service providers mostly focused on the challenges faced by service providers in providing quality suitable service to the differently abled guests. The challenges mentioned include low demand of accessible services, high costs associated with enhancing accessibility of the buildings, human resources challenges (Gaunt, 2012, Sorensen, 2006), and diverse needs of the disabled guests and heightening of expectations for service quality by the differently-abled market, (Asia Tech Directions, 2011, Kapiki, 2012).
Strategies to enhance accessibility service provision for the differently-abled in hotels

Tantawy et al. (2005) observe the need for on-going disability training programs, maintenance of common disabled courtesy standards such as not invading a wheelchair users' space, and consultation with architects specializing in design for the disabled during hotel construction. Thompson (1997) emphasises the need for trained staff in the tourism industry, saying that “no physical improvements will ever be effective without trained staff that are committed to provide excellent service to all their visitors, whatever special requirements they may have”.

Research Methodology

A survey method was adopted using open ended questionnaires to gather qualitative data. The target population for this study was 76; forty (40) differently abled guests and thirty six (36) hotel managers. Out of these, 30 hotel managers and 20 guests were interviewed. The volunteer sampling method was used to target the differently-abled guests because most of them were shy and stayed away from the public and also disability issues are a sensitive subject, hence, looking for volunteers was the best way of increasing the validity of the results. For hoteliers, convenience sampling was used. Thematic Data Analysis was chosen for this research as the data collected was descriptive in nature thus it was deemed the best approach for the data collected. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic data analysis is a qualitative analytic method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data.
Demographic characteristics for the respondents

Of interest on the demographic data is the ratio of sex of respondents from the demand side. Out of the total, 65% were females whilst 35% were males. This is because more females are differently-abled as compared to males in the population of people with disabilities who visit hotels. The findings support Patterson et al. (2012)’s observation that there is a higher degree of disability amongst women who participate in hospitality services. The rest of the profile of the respondents is furnished in the next table.

Table 1: Characteristics of respondents

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<td>30-34 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40+ years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of disability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Primary data, 2014)

The researchers considered the various disabilities in guests who visit Harare hotels and these were categorised under mobility, visual, hearing and other disabilities. This is because the researchers wanted to get their individual
needs pertaining to their access requirements and hospitality service provisions as their needs varied according to their type of disability. From the research findings, 50% of differently-abled guests who visited three to five star hotels in Harare had mobility challenges, 30% were visually impaired, 15% had hearing disabilities, and 5% had other disabilities.

**Views on current hotel facilities and services available for the differently-abled guests in Harare hotels**

Eighty five (85%) of the hotel managers acknowledged that they had inadequate facilities which were solely meant for the differently-abled guests. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents highlighted that organisations did not have the facilities in place for the differently-abled as they highlighted that this market was never considered before in the construction of the hotels hence existing facilities were meant for the ‘abled’ guests only.

On the demand side, all the differently-abled guests pointed out the issue of inadequacy of proper and suitable facilities which met their diverse needs. They indicated that instead they were provided with make-shift facilities making the hotel environments hardly accommodative of their needs. A complain from one of the differently-abled respondents summarized the general mood among the differently-abled:

*Each time I stay in a hotel, I am always asked whether I have any special requirements, an indication that managers do not even consider making an enabling environment for us well in advance. This really annoys me*

In general, most the differently-abled interviewed felt that their special needs as guests in hotels were attended to as an after-thought. They construed this
to be as a result of hoteliers not seeing any value in investing in the needs of the differently-abled. These views are also in consonance with the observation made by Barnes et al. (2010) and Swain et al. (2004), who observed that management always placed this group at a disadvantage by asking them whether they needed any special provisions each time they want to access an area, which compromised the guests’ quality of experience and independence of access.

Despite this, Muller (2012) views the differently-abled guests as a significant element of the tourism economy, tending to be loyal to a destination, staying longer and spending more. The study revealed that the most common facilities meant for the differently-abled were special rooms for paraplegics and toilets assigned for the physically challenged. However, generally, the needs of other categories of differently-abled guests, such as the visually challenged, deaf and dumb were ignored by hoteliers. Generally, the service provided to guests tended to be a one-size-fits-all type of service. The voice of one of the differently-abled respondents seemed to capture the general feeling in the camp:

*We use the same hotel facilities and services with the non-disabled except for the paraplegic rooms found in the hotel specifically designed for us.*

This situation suggests that service provision in hotels only recognized the needs of guests who were physically challenged yet the net for the differently-abled market also covers those who have sensory, visual, agility and communication challenges (see Freeman and Selmi, 2009). The findings also revealed that the existing facilities did not take into account issues of equitable access as exhorted by Chikuta (2015) who argues for equal access in tourism services.
The demand and supply sides’ perceptions of facilities available for the differently-abled market were at a tangent as revealed by the study findings. Thus, there was need to close the gap in order to ensure improvement in accessibility of the hotel environments as well as service provision for the differently-abled. This is achieved when service providers’ perceptions are in convergence with the expectations of the differently-abled people on accessibility (see Darcy and Dickson, 2009).

Differently-abled guests’ views of suitability of hotel facilities and services

A majority of differently-abled guests (90%) found the facilities not suitable to meet their needs in hotels. They expressed disgruntlement with the existing facilities. Some of the elements which received special mention were: the design and layout of the rooms and equipment; signage and relations with staff in their provision of hotel service to the differently-abled guests.

Design and layout of facilities
Reference was made to the design of bedrooms, equipment such as beds, bathrooms and furniture. The differently abled respondents particularly those who were physically challenged felt the design of the room and equipment in the rooms were a challenge in terms of accessing some of the amenities and facilities. Respondents registered a variety of complaints on this issue. Some of them were as follows;

- I cannot access the mirror in my room because of my height
- The low bed in the room is difficult to get into or out of
- The hotel front doors are too heavy and difficult for me to open
- The electronic lock is too high for me to access it
The voices above suggest that generally the design and type of material used to make the facilities is of great concern when it comes to providing suitable facilities for the differently-abled guests. This definitely acts as a barrier to the enjoyment of the hospitality services provided by hotels. Guests on wheelchairs suggested that although a carpet had aesthetic value, at times it complicates their mobility. In contrast, participants with visual disabilities indicated that carpets were useful and reported feeling insecure on uncarpeted floors, due to their fear of falling. This situation brought out the fact that differently-abled guests require individualised services.

With bathrooms, all the differently-abled respondents reported difficulties getting in and out of the bathtub. Participants also reported that showers were often too low for one to use. Furthermore, the physically challenged indicated that most bathroom items such as hair dryers, sinks and mirrors were out of reach to them. Those with visual disabilities had challenges on how to distinguish between the guest supplies in the bathroom for example shampoo and shower gel. They were in similar containers which made it difficult for one to distinguish them using sense of feeling. The visually challenged also complained of problems they encountered with smooth and wet floors. They risked falling.

**Signage**
One of the problems encountered by the differently-abled was the lack of signage to indicate where facilities meant for the differently-abled were located. Consequently, they had to solicit help from hotel staff always; an act that some participants (40%) found annoying. The differently-abled guests again registered their plight saying;

*The hotel public areas are not accessible to us the visually impaired; to access the hotel facilities we rely on the assistance given by the hotel staff and the ones accompanying us.*
The concerns of the visually challenged echo an earlier observation by Choruwa (2006) that in Zimbabwe buildings lack signs to indicate where the disabled entrance would be. Hotel service should consider using braille language on and as signage to cater for the needs of visually impaired guests to be provided with directions to various places in the hotels.

**Hoteliers’ perceptions of access issue**

On the supply side the majority of managers (90%) failed to give specific access information in their assessment of the suitability of hotel facilities, rather they just generalised their views. In the words of one manager, whose views were quite representative of the majority of managerial grade respondents:

> The hotel rooms are suitable to accommodate the differently-abled guests

This view either exposes the ignorance of managers to issues of access or just exposes them as an uncaring lot. The research findings are in synchrony with the report by Legacy For Disabled People (2012) which highlighted that most service industry professionals do not understand the specific needs of customers with disabilities. Moreover, hospitality managers cited lack of prior knowledge of the guests’ needs as a major obstacle to effectively serving guests with disabilities. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents highlighted that much was yet to be done in order to provide rooms suitable to cater for the various differently-abled guests’ needs. As noted by one respondent:

> The rooms lack equipment like visual alarms to cater for the deaf in terms of their safety needs
Conclusion

This paper presented an exploration of differently-abled and hotel managers’ perceptions of accessibility and hospitality regarding service provision for the differently-abled guests in hotels. This study has shown that the hotel sector is far from embracing the market for the disabled. Findings indicated that there seems to be a gap between hotel managers’ and differently-abled guests’ perceptions on what constitutes suitability of access, as the differently-abled denied the suitability of hotel facilities for their diverse needs whilst the opposite was true for the hotel managers. These conflicting views are a reflection of the ignorance of managers’ understanding of what constitutes suitable accessible service for this group. The managers have a tendency to think on behalf of the differently-abled. In addition, the hotel industry displayed a lack of appreciation of the value of the differently-abled clientele as a market segment. This causes a disabling hotel environment for the group. The managers were generally of the view that the differently-abled were not of significance in terms of their contribution to the hotel earnings as clients. Notwithstanding this scenario, service providers must view the provision of facilities and services with philanthropic lenses. There is a need for hoteliers to adopt a ‘rights based’ in form of ‘accessibility to all’ as a guiding principle.

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Destination attributes and destination loyalty: A case of Zimbabwe

9 Getrude Kwanisai, Elizabeth Kanyai and 10 Sebastian Vengesayi

Abstract

Loyalty has become a critical part of tourism research due to increasing competition in the field and the recognition of the importance of loyal visitors. However, much of the research on tourist loyalty has focused on overall destination loyalty and individual attribute loyalty independent of each other. With the interdependence nature of tourism experience, this cannot reveal the influence of individual destination attributes on destination loyalty. We evaluate the contribution of individual destination attributes towards destination loyalty in Zimbabwe. A survey was conducted around Zimbabwe’s major tourist areas. We established that of the nine identified attributes, five of them; loyalty with attractions, accommodation services, safety and security, immigration, and transport contribute significantly towards overall loyalty with Zimbabwe. The paper further identifies destination managerial implications and future research priorities.

Keywords: destination attributes; tourist loyalty; destination loyalty

9 Department of Travel and Recreation, School of Hospitality and Tourism, Chinhoyi University of Technology, Chinhoyi, Zimbabwe
10 School of Hospitality and Tourism, Chinhoyi University of Technology, Chinhoyi, Zimbabwe
Introduction

Today’s destinations face their toughest competition in decades, and understanding and creating tourist loyalty has been identified as a strategic tool to remain competitive (Anton et al., 2014; Frangos et al., 2015; McKercher et al., 2012). Therefore destination marketers need a better understanding of why tourists are being loyal to destinations and what determines their loyalty. Loyalty benefit destinations in the short term through tourists spending more and in the long term as loyal tourists attract new visitors by positive word of mouth (Dolnicar et al., 2015; Opperman, 2000).

The general marketing concept of product and service loyalty has been largely adapted to the tourism field; however, several issues and limitations have not been fully considered (McKercher et al., 2012). Tourism experience is an amalgam of encounters with various destination attributes, but tourist loyalty studies have been focusing on loyalty with individual attributes and only a few attempts have been made to investigate destination loyalty (Chi, 2012; McKercher and Guillet, 2011; Opperman, 2000). For example studies have been looking at tourist loyalty with accommodation (Dioko et al., 2013; Pena et al., 2013); attractions (Lee et al., 2007; Weaver and Lawton, 2011); shopping (Kim et al., 2012; Vega-Vazquez et al., 2014); restaurants (Han and Ryu, 2009; Kang et al., 2015); tour operators (Campo and Yague, 2008; Senders et al., 2013); transport (Dolnicar et al., 2011; Mikulic and Prebezac, 2011). Also little effort is being directed towards evaluating the contribution of each attribute towards overall destination loyalty (McKercher et al., 2012). The neglect of this aspect will result in destinations not being able to implement appropriate strategies that enable them to fully benefit from loyal tourists. More so, while tourism literature is awash with tourist loyalty studies in general, there are limited studies on this subject, just like any other tourism subject in the developing world (Mkono, 2013).
This study extends destination loyalty literature by evaluating the contribution of destination attributes towards the overall destination loyalty in Zimbabwe. This study is important in two ways: firstly, it shifts attention to the concept of destination loyalty and enhances its understanding by evaluating the contribution of destination attributes towards overall destination loyalty. Secondly, the study shifts focus on tourist loyalty studies to the developing world, specifically to a destination like Zimbabwe which is currently under economic crisis and is looking up to tourism among other industries to revive the economy.

**Loyalty**

The widely acknowledged definition of loyalty is by Oliver (1999: 34) who defined loyalty as “a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior”. Thus loyalty is understood from the behavioral point of view as it refers to the future product or service repeat purchase commitment despite situational influences and marketing efforts directed at causing changes in behavior. This way of considering and measuring loyalty have been criticised by scholars as it prevents any differentiation between loyal customers from those who usually buy a product or service (Alegre and Juaneda, 2006).

As a result, researchers define loyalty basing not only on behavior but also attitude considering that simple repeat purchase may be due to inertia, indifference or changes in costs (Reichheld, 2003). While the behavioral perspective places the emphasis on consumers’ past experience, the attitudinal perspective is based on their future actions (Zins, 2001). As literature
recognizes the multidimensional nature of loyalty, attitudinal components have been the most widely accepted (Barroso et al., 2007; Velazquez et al., 2011; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2007). Rundle-Thiele (2005) establishes that word-of-mouth is the most commonly used indicator, followed by repeat purchase intentions as measurements of loyalty in loyalty studies. The desire to recommend has been regarded as a good indicator of loyalty and has a high capacity to predict growth in service firms (Reichheld, 2003).

Investigations into the antecedents of loyalty occupy a prominent position in literature (McKercher, 2012). Value, image, satisfaction, quality, and motivation are the most common identified antecedents to loyalty (Aydin and Ozer, 2005; Noyan and Simsek, 2014). Of these consumer satisfaction emerged as the most important predictor of loyalty (Alexandris et al., 2006; Chi and Qu 2008; Li and Petrick 2008), indicating a clear direct effect of satisfaction on the likelihood of repeat purchase and recommendations to others. Even though satisfaction does not guarantee loyalty, it is true that loyal customers are satisfied (Ha and Park, 2013; Noyan and Simsek, 2014), and because of that loyalty and satisfaction are closely related constructs in the services marketing literature (Cronin et al., 2000; Ha and Park, 2013). From the business perspective, satisfaction and loyalty are key to long term survival.

### Destination loyalty

Destinations are considered as products that tourists may revisit, or recommend to other potential tourists (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). The growing competition among tourist destinations and the importance of loyalty as a reliable source of repeat visitors and information for potential tourists has aroused interest in understanding loyalty in a destination set up (Yuksel et al., 2010). Retaining existing tourists is much cheaper than attracting new ones, and no direct
costs are incurred in word of mouth marketing, the positive implications of loyal tourists for financial sustainability- arguably a prerequisite for destination sustainability- are clear (Opperman, 2000).

In tourism context, most of the academic contributions on loyalty are based on literature from consumer behavior (Riley et al., 2001; McKercher at al., 2012). Just like in consumer research, studies in the tourism field has focused on the process of formation of loyalty through the analysis of concepts such as value, satisfaction, image and the relationship loyalty has with these concepts (Bigne et al., 2005; Campo-Martinez et al., 2010; Chen and Phou, 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). However other concepts have been explored as well: motivations (Yoon and Uysal, 2003), place attachment (Yuksel et al., 2010), demographics (Mechinda et al., 2009; Chi, 2012), emotional responses (Kumar and Nayak, 2015), and consumer involvement (Pearce and Kang, 2009). Of these concepts, just like in consumer literature, satisfaction is regarded as the most important determinant of tourist loyalty (Chi and Qu, 2008; Li and Petrick 2008; Vega-Vazquez et al. 2014; Williams and Soutar, 2009).

Studies have concentrated on understanding loyalty with individual destination attributes and neglected destination loyalty. However, in tourism, the experience of a tourist is constituted by encounters with various destination attributes and evaluation on destinations is based on these individual attributes. Considering this nature of tourism product, the adoption of brand and product loyalty to tourism has been questioned by various authors (Dolnicar et al., 2015; McKercher et al., 2012, McKercher and Guillet, 2011). Authors argue that research in tourism loyalty need to be reconsidered to account for the unique features of tourism.

This ongoing debate on loyalty in the context of tourism highlights the need for more empirical studies to further understand the concept and to enhance
its usefulness to destinations for them to maximise the benefits they can get from having loyal tourists. Considering that tourism experience is made up of encounters with various destination attributes, this study therefore seeks to enhance destination loyalty literature through evaluating the contribution of individual destination attributes towards destination loyalty in Zimbabwe.

**Destination attributes**

Tourists experience a variety of destination attributes during their stay in a destination and they evaluate the performance of each attribute on its own. Overall destination experience is a function of attribute-level evaluations (Chi and Qu, 2008). Regardless of this important relationship between attribute and overall destination experience, studies have concentrated on the formation of loyalty at attribute level (McKercher *et al.*, 2012; Opperman, 2000) and neglected the role played by destination attributes in the formation of destination loyalty.

Varied destination attributes have been identified in tourism literature and explored for different studies on satisfaction, loyalty, image, among others. Attractions, transport, accommodation, restaurants, shopping, tour operators and travel agents and immigration are the most commonly acknowledged service oriented attributes by researchers (Han and Ryu, 2009; Kang *et al.*, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Li and Petrick, 2008; Senders *et al.*, 2013; Song *et al.*, 2012). However, there are other non-service destination attributes which have received little attention as standalone destination attributes. Among them is safety and security, and host population. These two attributes are important in destination choice (Edgell, 2013; Kresic *et al.*, 2012; Oom do Valle *et al.*, 2011; Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Woosnam *et al*. 2015).
Safety and security is important for travelers and has been consistently ranked as one of the top global concerns facing the tourism industry throughout the last decade (Cohen and Cohen, 2012; Edgell, 2013; Edgell and Swanson, 2013). In particular for developing countries, tourists are known to be concerned about their safety in line with food, water, criminal activities (Timothy and Tosun, 2003, Woosnam et al., 2015). With reference to Zimbabwe, safety for tourists is important considering the political and economic environment that prevailed as a result of the highly controversial Land Redistribution Program launched in 2000 (Sender and Johnston, 2003; Mkono 2010). The tourism industry recorded a sharp decline in international tourist arrivals in the following years as the country was perceived to be unsafe for tourists (Mkono, 2013). The country’s traditional Western markets even issued travel warnings on Zimbabwe to their citizens.

For Zimbabwe, the locals are an important aspect of the destination’s brand. As a way of rebuilding the image of Zimbabwe, the destination management organisation (ZTA) rebranded the destination from “Zimbabwe, Africa’s Paradise” to “Zimbabwe, A World Of Wonders” in 2010. The new brand centered on the concept of Zimbabwe having seven wonders of its own world which includes cultural and natural facets. This was done to address the need to shift from sole reliance on nature based tourism and promote cultural tourism as noted by Manwa (2007). The host population is one of the seven wonders of Zimbabwe; “Wonderful people and culture”. The people are described as:

“Warm, friendly smiling faces, welcoming attitude, helping hands is the Zimbabwe’s hallmark. Hospitality is second nature to us all.......... Hospitality is inherent complemented by Zimbabwe’s beacon in literacy of the highest standard in the whole of Africa” (www.zimbabwetourism.net)
With the centre stage the host population has on the identity of destination Zimbabwe, it is justifiable to take look at interactions with the local as a standalone destination attribute. Basing on literature discussed above, this study focused on attractions, accommodation, restaurants, shopping, transport, intermediaries, immigration, safety and security, and local people as the destination attributes in Zimbabwe.

Methods

An intercept face-to-face survey method was used to collect data from international tourists visiting the country during the period of the study. Permission to collect data was sought from relevant authorities including ZTA, Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe, National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe and other industry operators. Convenience sampling was used to distribute a questionnaire to tourists in Victoria Falls, Kariba, Masvingo (Great Zimbabwe) and Harare International Airport between October 2013 and May 2014. The questionnaire was in English and 1000 copies were distributed. Tourists were approached at major attraction sites, shopping complexes and airport departure waiting rooms and asked to participate in the survey. Participation was voluntary as no form of incentive was offered.

A 7-point Likert scale was adopted: (1) Strongly disagree to (7) Strongly agree. 827 questionnaires were returned and these were checked for non-responses which is common in tourist surveys. Questionnaires with less than 10% missing values were considered for analysis. 702 questionnaires were usable, representing a 70.2 % response rate.
Data analysis techniques

SPSS 21.0 was used for data analysis. To determine the relationship between the tourists’ attribute loyalty and overall destination loyalty, multiple linear regression (MLR) was chosen. MLR is a multivariate statistical technique used to examine the relationship between an outcome variable and several predictors (Hair et al., 2006). It is useful in providing a means of objectively assessing the magnitude and direction of each predictor’s relationship to its outcome variable. In MLR, variables with higher regression coefficients are considered more important in determining the dependent variable than those with lower regression coefficients. Hence, for this study, it is possible to determine which destination attributes were most important in the determining overall destination loyalty of the tourist.

Summated scales were constructed by combining the two loyalty indicators for each of the attributes and those of the overall destination loyalty using SPSS. The mean scores for these summated scales were used in the MLR. Considering the exploratory nature of the study, the step-wise selection method was used to establish the best possible combination of attributes in explaining destination loyalty. Estimation of the multiple regression model determines the overall explanatory power of all its independent variables through the $R^2$ determination coefficient of the model. The $R^2$ specifies the amount of variance in the overall destination loyalty explained by all the attribute loyalty taken together (Field, 2009).

Assumptions for the regression analysis, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence were examined. The Durbin–Watson ($D$) statistic was used to check serial correlations between the errors. Tolerance and variance inflation factor ($VIF$) were used to test the multicollinearity of each independent variable.
Table 1: Tourist attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourist Attribute</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Tourist Attribute</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td>Purpose of travel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>92.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents’ demographics
The socio-demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Demographic characteristics of the respondents (N=702)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Tourism Region of Origin</th>
<th>Travel arrangement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>Americas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>Asia and the Pacific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-65</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toured Zimbabwe before</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>Packaged tour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attribute contribution to overall destination loyalty
MLR between destination attribute loyalty and overall tourist destination loyalty achieved a satisfactory goodness of fit (Table 2). The F ratio (28.197) was significant at 0.001; this explains whether the results of the regression model could have occurred by chance. The model has a significant fit to the data. The adjusted R2 value of 0.306 indicates that variation in overall destination loyalty of tourists to Zimbabwe can be explained through loyalty with attributes used in this study.

The Durbin–Watson statistic of 1.471 indicates that there are no serial correlations as this value falls within the acceptable range of between 1 and
Collinearity between the variables was assessed using the tolerance and VIF statistics. For VIF, the values range between 1.090 and 1.891, which are way below 10 which is recommended by Bowerman and O’Connell (1990) or even the more strict value of 5 (De Vaus, 2002). The tolerance statistic values are greater than the critical value of 0.1 (Menard, 1995). With these tolerance and VIF statistics values, we can safely conclude that multi-collinearity is not a problem in this study.

**Table 3. **P levels of the multi-linear regression test for collinearity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant (Overall Destination Loyalty)</td>
<td>5.666***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>4.815***</td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>4.130***</td>
<td>0.468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>2.478*</td>
<td>0.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>2.699**</td>
<td>0.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>2.308*</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.344b</td>
<td>0.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host population</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>1.169b</td>
<td>0.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>1.484b</td>
<td>0.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediaries</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>1.212b</td>
<td>0.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjusted $R^2$ | 0.306 |
F-statistics | 28.197*** |
Durbin-Watson | 1.471 |

*** $P<0.001$; ** $P<0.01$; * $P<0.05$; bNon-significant

The model explains a total of 30.6% of the variation in tourist loyalty with destination Zimbabwe. Even though this value for $R^2$ may be considered low, destination loyalty reflects something more than just the sum of loyalty with
specific attributes within destinations. Taking from tourist satisfaction literature overall satisfaction is based on the overall experience, not just the individual attributes, (Petrick and Backman, 2002; Spreng et al., 1996). According to Baker and Crompton (2000), attribute-specific satisfaction implies perceived quality (or quality of performance), while overall satisfaction refers to quality of experience. Considering that satisfaction has been found to have the greatest influence towards loyalty (Kumar and Nayak, 2015; Anton et al., 2014), destination loyalty is as well based on overall experience with a destination. From this study, destination loyalty variance explained by the identified attributes indicate that the destination can manipulate up to 30.6% of tourist loyalty to Zimbabwe through these attributes, which can be considered a greater percentage.

Loyalty with only five of the identified destination attributes made a statistically significant contribution towards overall destination loyalty in Zimbabwe: accommodation: ($\beta=0.286; \text{ t-value}=4.130; \text{ p}<0.001$), attractions: ($\beta=0.284; \text{ t-value}=4.815; \text{ p}<0.001$), immigration $\beta=0.133; \text{ t-value}=2.478; \text{ p}<0.05$), transport: ($\beta=0.187; \text{ t-value}=2.699; \text{ p}<0.01$), and safety and security: ($\beta=0.150; \text{ t-value}=2.308; \text{ p}<0.05$); (see table 2). These have a direct effect on destination loyalty. Loyalty towards restaurants: ($\beta=0.029; \text{ t-value}=0.344$), locals: ($\beta=0.070; \text{ t-value}=1.169$), shopping: ($\beta=0.110; \text{ t-value}=1.484$) and intermediaries: ($\beta=0.113; \text{ t-value}=1.121$) was insignificant in explaining the tourist's loyalty with destination Zimbabwe.

Loyalty with accommodation made the highest contribution towards loyalty with Zimbabwe as a destination, slightly ahead of attractions. Accommodation within a destination has been closely associated with the success of that particular destination and some scholars argue that it is an attraction on its own (Page, 2007). This might explain the close beta coefficients established in this study between attractions and accommodation in explaining destination loyalty. Accommodation provides a ‘home away from home’ environment
and offers a wide range of other amenities making living within a destination enjoyable and comfortable.

In this study, attractions were ranked second in their level of contribution towards loyalty with Zimbabwe as a destination. Attractions are the primary reason for tourist traveling (Page, 2007) and are the core components of a destination’s tourism product. Most importantly, attractions make a valuable contribution to tourists’ experience in a destination and provide them with activities within a destination and they provide visitor satisfaction (Gunn, 1994). This importance of attractions as the reason for travelling was reflected in this study by their significant contribution towards destination loyalty.

Safety and transport were also found to significantly contribute towards destination loyalty in Korea (Chen and Gursoy, 2001). These findings stress the importance of tourist safety globally as argued by Cohen and Cohen (2012), and Edgell, (2013). Tourists are concerned about their safety and this influences their decisions on which destinations to visit, revisit or recommend to their friends, relatives and colleagues. Timothy and Tosun (2003) and Woosnam et al. (2015) established that tourists to developing countries are concerned about their safety in line with food, water, criminal activities.

Transport is an influential factor in tourism development within destinations (Khadaroo and Seetenah, 2008) as it determines how accessible a destination is, which translate to the convenience of tourists to that particular destination. The aspect of tourist convenience makes transport an important attribute in determining destination loyalty. Transport plays four major roles in tourism products supply. First, linking the origin market with the tourist destination; second, providing access and mobility within a wide destination area; third, offering access and mobility within a tourist attraction; and providing travel along a recreational route. Thus transport links the tourist with the destination.
and enables them to consume the products and experiences they have purchased, that is why it is important to tourists in determining their future behavioral intentions with a destination.

Timothy and Tosun (2003) and Bradbury (2013) also established a positive relationship between immigration and tourist future behavioral intentions towards a destination. Immigration procedures and services are important in tourist destination choice as they shape perceptions on how accessible a destination is. Despite the importance of this attribute within destination, immigration issues still as the greatest inhibitor or international travel (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2013).

In Korea, shopping, interactions with the locals and restaurants were also found to make no statistically significant contribution towards destination loyalty (Chen and Gursoy, 2001). However Sthapit (2013) and Kim et al. (2010) established a significant contribution of the host population towards destination loyalty. These variations in attributes contributing towards destination loyalty amongst destinations emanate from the differences in the kind of products and services offered as well as different markets being attracted by the destinations.

Conclusion

This study provides important implications for Zimbabwe as a destination. Findings from this study indicate that for tourists to Zimbabwe, loyalty towards the destination is influenced by attractions, accommodation, immigration, transport and safety. Overall, from a destination marketing perspective, these five destination attributes which were found to contribute significantly towards destination loyalty should be carefully managed and be focused on for creating loyalty with Zimbabwe.
Comparing with other studies, we can conclude that the contribution of destination attributes towards overall destination loyalty vary from one destination to the other and from one market to the other. This calls for destinations to evaluate the contribution of their attributes towards destination loyalty for each of their markets. This enables destinations to plan and market their tourism products effectively and gain tourist loyalty.

**Limitations and future research**

It should be noted that this study has some limitations. Firstly, destinations are different in terms of attributes and tourists they attract, therefore this study's results cannot be generalized to other destinations. For comparison purposes, this study can be replicated in other destinations. Secondly, this research is based on responses from international tourists to Zimbabwe in general. Future studies should consider assessing loyalty of each international market segment to cater for the unique features of the various markets.

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Stakeholders’ perceptions of the potential of dark tourism in Zimbabwe

Chlotilda Kazembe, Vimbiso Ngara, Tiisetso Mazibeli, Ngonidzashe Ndoorwi and Pauline Karigambe

Abstract

The value of dark tourism sites to development in Zimbabwe remains largely untapped. Using a qualitative research design, this study explored the potential of dark tourism to contribute to development in the country. The study reveals that there are several sites in Zimbabwe which could be exploited for dark tourism and contribute to development. Most of the sites are a repository of the history of war of liberation in this country and would not only appeal to the young generation of Zimbabwe but also to war historians. The sites deserve to be documented and promoted for posterity, domestic and international tourism. Of greater importance is that dark tourism sites could benefit a lot from raising awareness and promoting visits to the sites among the youth. In addition, if properly developed, marketed and presented, the country could benefit from dark tourism tremendously through promoting vending opportunities for local people, connecting sites and local people to transport in and around sites previously inaccessible due to poor transport systems.

Keywords: dark tourism, potential, perceptions, dark sites
Introduction

Dark tourism is the act of traveling to either natural or man-made sites associated with suffering and death (Sharpley and Stone, 2009). This form of tourism is alternatively known as grief tourism, black tourism or thana tourism (Jamal and Robinson, 2009). Some tourists are motivated by the quest for a new experience or an adventure to gain knowledge and understanding on something that was unknown to them before. Hence, such tourists ultimately engage in dark tourism for their desire to be satisfied by the interpretations and images of the dark sites.

Dark tourism evolved through profound shifts in the history of European culture and is influenced by Christianity, Antiquarianism, and Romanticism (Seaton, 2009). However, people have always been purposely drawn to attractions, sites and events linked with death and disaster, for example assassination sites, concentration camps and terrorism sites. As general participation in tourism grew, particularly since the mid-twentieth century, so did the demand for and supply of dark tourism (Sharpley, 2009). Sites associated with war and death probably now constitute the largest single category of tourist attractions in the world, contributing 65% of the tourist market share and racking in over 265 billion United States dollars (Atlantic, 2014).

The interpretation of dark tourism is the key component of the tourist experience. This interpretation is responsible for the tourist’s navigation between place, items and history or collectively its heritage, and the related meaning inscribed in the tourist. As Sharpley and Stone (2009) and Frew (2012) note, this interpretation is vital to the experience, as without it, these destinations exist largely as empty space without context. As a result of this lack of proper context and void of sense making processes, these tourists may have experiences that are largely diminished. However, they also note
that the converse of this situation is also true. Effective interpretation may bring
the site to life (Sharpley and Stone, 2009) and resonate more specifically with
the tourist seeking deeper meaning.

Dark tourism is an untapped sector in Zimbabwe. In recent years there has
been a significant amount of marketing of tourism sites in Zimbabwe, such as
the Victoria Falls and the Great Zimbabwe monuments, by Zimbabwe Tourism
Authority (ZTA). The marketing of these sites was intensified especially
towards the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) conference
that was jointly hosted by Zimbabwe and Zambia in 2013. However, little or
no effort was made in Zimbabwe to market dark tourism sites such as the
1991 Nyanga bus disaster site or even the seven liberation war heroes’ site in
Chinhoyi. Worse still, it appears that there is very little literature that focuses
on dark tourism sites and related dispositions in Zimbabwe. Dark tourism
has been in existence in Zimbabwe where these sites are associated with
tradition, rituals, myths and taboos. The shrines are respected because of
their value and significance (Chemhuru and Musaka, 2010). However the
fascination and incessant demand by tourists to re-enact the dead into the
public domain (Stone, 2011), has now influenced Zimbabwe to promote what
was once too sacred for tourist consumption.

The lack of information on dark tourism stifles the growth of the tourism
industry by depriving it of an otherwise lucrative business. Given that dark
tourism is emotion led, it can encourage commitment by communities to visit
and support the established sites. Improving dark tourism in Zimbabwe leads
to diversity in the tourism sector and preservation of sacred places. Depriving
dark tourism as a potential market may lead to some of the sacred areas in
Zimbabwe not being recognized, preserved, appreciated and valued. This study sought to establish potential dark tourism sites in Zimbabwe, to
assess stakeholders’ views towards dark tourism and suggest strategies for
improving dark tourism in Zimbabwe.
Conceptualising dark tourism

There is no universal typology of dark tourism, or even a universally accepted definition. Nevertheless, there has been an increasing trend amongst scholars to use dark tourism as an academic lens in which to scrutinize broader socio-cultural considerations, managerial and political consequences and ethical dilemmas. Dark tourism can be viewed as a cultural representation of particular death for instance as a contemporary mediating institution between the living and the dead (Walter, 2009). Stone (2011) suggests, “dark tourism provides an opportunity to contemplate death of the Self through gazing upon the Significant Other Dead.” Stone (2012) further argues that dark tourism experiences, at least for some people at some sites, are not so much about consuming narratives of death, but, rather of contemplating life and living in the face of inevitable mortality. War tourism attractions, though diverse, are a subset of the totality of tourist sites associated with death and suffering.

Dark tourism provides narratives in which the dead can be encountered for educational purposes (Podoshen and Hunt, 2011). According to Hafferty (1991) tourists have an opportunity to learn about the human body through hands-on archaeology of the dead body. Stone (2009) also gives an example of a dark tourism site in the London Dungeon where educational narratives are an integral part of the overall tourist package. This dungeon attraction provides education in the form of entertainment in order to help visitors to comprehend past methods of torture and captivity.

Methodology

The data collection techniques used in this research study were in-depth interviews. Purposive and convenience sampling methods were used to come up with a sample for the study. From a population of 200 prospective
respondents, a representative sample of 60 was selected for interviews, of which 53 responded. Interviews were held with 10 key informants selected purposively from government officials in Chinhoyi who were knowledgeable about dark tourism. Convenience sampling was used to select the remainder of 50 respondents comprising geography and history teachers, and tourism and hospitality lecturers. The data was analysed using the thematic approach.

Findings of the study

Perceptions of dark tourism and sites in Zimbabwe
Respondents expressed various opinions on the meaning of dark tourism. A significantly large proportion (83%) of the respondents regarded dark tourism as places that embodied pain and sorrow (see Table 1). For them, any mention of the term dark tourism would not make them think of anything good or acceptable to expect from these sites. The respondents also perceived this type of tourism as evoking memories associated with pain and suffering and as seen to shun such suffering. Some of the responses given were:

- it's more to do with pain and suffering that people endure,
- a lot of unhappy and sad memories emerge,
- conjures up bad memories with so much suffering,
- I do not want to think about such issues

It could be inferred from this observation that this perception is at tangent with the definition of dark tourism by Stone (2011) as highlighted in preceding sections. Some participants perceived dark tourism as visiting places of cultural heritage and those places linked to the old civilizations. Their voices are captured as follows:

- I start to think of immoral encounters
- It seems a lot of wicked things happen in the dark
Table 1: People’s views on the meaning of dark tourism (N = 53)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concerned with places that resemble pain and sorrow</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places with past memories</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places associated with death; liberation war sites</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural heritage sites; places depicting old civilizations</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places where immoral things are taking place</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data

Respondents in this research had the opportunity to express their opinion about those places in Zimbabwe that could be designated as dark sites. Several places came up and Table 2 demonstrates the most popularly mentioned sites. The majority (55%) of the respondents identified Chinhoyi Seven Heroes as a dark tourism site. They attributed the status to the stories told about the events that transpired at the site. Chibondo in Mt Darwin was another nomination with 45% of respondents considering it as a suitable dark tourism site. Participants strongly recommended the upgrading of the two sites since they had the potential to be national dark tourism sites. The National Heroes Acre came third (43%) on the ranking of potential dark tourism sites. This site has a lot of potential to become a popular site provided it is developed and marketed.

Table 2: Potential dark tourism sites (N = 53)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinhoyi Seven Heroes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chibondo in Mt Darwin</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Heroes Acre</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butchery Site in Rusape</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinhoyi Caves</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hwahwa Prison</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Heroes Acres</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data
The infamous ‘Butchery site’ in Rusape ranked fourth, (36%) as a potential dark tourism site. At this site the remains of liberation war fighters and other war victims were exhumed from pits and reburied in proper graves. The site had the potential to be declared a dark tourism site for memorial purposes. Respondents also noted that communities in these sites would derive income from domestic and international tourists visiting the sites through direct employment as tour guides, porters and sell of various items to the visitors. The development would also have multiplier effects to the surrounding areas, through the system of wholesale and retailing of goods and services to the visitors. In addition local communities could also benefit through organized village tourism, providing food, entertainment and sale of artifacts.

The Chinhoyi Caves was cited by 23% of respondents as another potential dark tourism site. However, the mention of Chinhoyi caves among potential dark tourism sites was a big surprise in that the caves are well known as a ‘tourism attraction’ due to its natural and mystic value. It turned out that the inclusion of the caves among dark sites was due to oral history which related that dead bodies of enemy soldiers were thrown into this cave in a war of control between the Shona and Ndebele people.

**Perceptions and attitudes towards dark tourism sites**

Respondents had different perceptions and attitudes towards dark tourism sites. As shown in Figure 1, the majority (45%) of the respondents appreciated the issue of recognizing these sites as dark tourism places. Thirty six percent (36%) of the respondents highlighted that they were keen to know the stories associated with these sites. Another 15% of the respondents revealed that their main interest was to witness a place where fellow human beings met death in the way they did, hence they were willing to visit these sites. For others, (9%) they valued these sites as educational establishments or some form of museums. To others, visits to these sites would be just for the thrill of it or adventure. In this regard, Macleod (2007) argues that tourists who visit
a particular site and have a good experience will want to visit it again and again.

However, there were some respondents (28%) who were not interested in visiting these sites and others (17%) who were afraid to be associated with such potentially dark tourism spots. Possible reasons advanced were:

- *I have nothing to benefit personally from visiting these sights.*
- *The sites bring bad memories and sorrow to my life.*
- *I am sure visiting such places may bring bad luck to one.*

![Figure 1: Dark tourism sites popular with domestic tourists](source: Field data)

The study also revealed that among the potential dark tourism sites were some that were already popular with domestic tourists. The most popular site to domestic tourists was the National Heroes Acre. Most people were familiar with this site mainly because it was a site where people would go annually to commemorate the country's Independence and Heroes Days. Another popular site with domestic tourists was the Seven Heroes place in
Chinhoyi with 36%. The popularity was linked to its long history, the publicity in books as well as the stories linked to it. Provincial Heroes Acres proved popular (32%) with domestic tourists as well and this popularity was attributed to the annual commemorations of Heroes and Defence Forces days which promoted people’s awareness.

Table 3 illustrates some of the potential dark tourism sites in Zimbabwe that proved popular with foreign tourists. The statistics in the table shows that the percentages of foreign tourists visiting potential dark tourism sites were generally low. This was attributed to the issue that most of the foreign tourists did not know that this type of tourism exists in Zimbabwe. They were more familiar with those places as ordinary sites rather than as dark tourism sites. The National Heroes Acre had the highest popularity level (32%). The 7 Heroes was rated second with 30% popularity. The mass graves of the Shangani battle in Matopos (13%) and the Old Trafford Stadium (6%) were low in popularity.

Table 3: Potential dark tourism sites popular with foreign tourists (N =53)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Heroes Acre</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven Heroes Site</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinhoyi Caves</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass graves of the Shangani Battle in Matopos</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Trafford Stadium</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data

Respondents also proposed strategies that could be implemented to promote dark tourism in Zimbabwe (see Table 4). The majority (60%) of the respondents suggested that there was need for launching an aggressive marketing exercise for these sites at both domestic and international levels. A second proposal for promoting dark tourism in Zimbabwe was the generation and publication of information relating to the potential dark tourism sites. This could be in form of
production and publication of books, booklets, flyers, pamphlets and newsletters. Information about the dark tourism sites could also be posted on the Internet.

Table 4: Strategies for promoting dark tourism (N = 53)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive marketing</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate and publish information about the sites</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educate people about importance of visiting these sites</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop infrastructure and create activities on such sites</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve accessibility to such sites and ensure safety</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop artificial attractions to augment the sites</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data

Other participants suggested that people must be educated about the importance of visiting these sites. Such lobbying would empower both domestic and foreign tourists with information regarding the potential dark tourism sites. Forty (40%) of the respondents felt that infrastructure at these sites could be developed and other activities be made available so that tourists could be fully engaged on visiting the sites. The engagement of knowledgeable tour guides and managers would facilitate this endeavor. It was proposed that museums be built where collection of remains and evidence of the activities that occurred at these sites would be maintained. Improving site accessibility would increase the popularity of the various potential dark tourism sites.

**Conclusion**

The potential and significance of dark tourism in Zimbabwe deserves strong recognition. The findings of this study indicated that if properly developed, marketed and presented, the country could benefit from it tremendously through creation of vending opportunities for local communities, development
of transport infrastructure in and around the sites previously inaccessible due to lack of transport. The huge potential of dark tourism and the sites involved also lie in marketing this form of tourism to educational institutions from primary schools to universities. Most of the sites present a heritage both worth preserving for posterity and worth exposing the young generation to as an integral part of their history. No nation can ignore its history and develop.

Noteworthy is that most of the sites with dark tourism potential are linked to the war of liberation in Zimbabwe. At most sites local people still have a fresh memory of what transpired on the event in which freedom fighters lost their lives. These sites are a repository of the history of war of liberation in this country and would not only appeal to the young generation of Zimbabwe but also to war historians. The sites need to be documented and promoted for both domestic and international tourism for schools and universities. Of greater importance is that dark tourism sites could benefit a lot from exposing the youths of various political parties across the political divide to the various dark tourism sites and how each one of these incidence was a piece in a jigsaw puzzle of the history of Zimbabwe’s war of independence. Exposing the youths to these sites would serve as an exercise in self-discovery in terms of where the nation came from and where it is now. Above all, the cultivation of the spirit of patriotism among the youths should serve as a pillar for marketing the identified dark tourism sites scattered throughout the country.

References


Staging black sexuality: from Sara Baartman to Jacob Zuma

Wonderful G. Bere

Abstract

Since Europe’s contact with Africa, the black body has been staged as art. Quite often exhibitions have tended to present the black bodies as sexually hyper-active. In this paper the writer problematises the exhibition of the body of Sara Baartman and the painting of President Jacob Zuma as the staging of black sexuality. The writer is interested in investigating notions of blackness and the construction of black identities. Using performance theory and the content analysis method to investigate the notion of othered blackness, the writer argues that blackness as a category of race identity is constructed and reinforced through theatrical performance; that is, blackness is both defined by and reproduced through performance.

Keywords: black sexuality, theatricality, blackness, performance, Jacob Zuma, Sara Baartman

Introduction

From the time Africa got into contact with Europe, black bodies have been depicted as art and exhibited at world fairs, galleries and in travelogues. Quite often, the exhibitions have tended to present the bodies as sexually

11 School of Art and Creative Design, Chinhoyi University of Technology
hyper-active. The exhibition of Sara Baartman in London and Paris from 1810 to 1814 and the recent exhibition of paintings of President Jacob Zuma in South Africa in May 2012 bear testimony to the staging of black sexuality as art. This paper considers the said exhibitions as stagings of black sexuality that can be used to conceptualise what can be called “black theatricality,” that is, the embodiment of blackness. In this paper, I am interested in answering the questions: what are the ways in which blackness is sometimes seen? How are black identities invented? What meanings are produced when our bodies are presented for others to look at? To answer these questions, there is need to first theorise black theatricality.

Black Theatricality

It can be argued that a person belongs to a race not so much because the skin tone of the person or the person’s heritage make him or her belong to that race, important though skin colour and heritage are as race indicators. In apartheid South Africa, the Population Registration Act, 1950, and tests such as the pencil test resulted in people being classified into race groups according to how one ‘performed’ in the tests. The story of Sandra Laing illustrates this.

a somewhat dark-skinned girl named Sandra Laing was born to two white parents. In 1966, when Sandra was age 11, she was subjected to a pencil test by “a stranger” and subsequently excluded from her all-white school when she failed the test. She was reclassified from her birth race of white to coloured. Sandra and the rest of her family were shunned by white society. Her father passed a blood-type paternity test, but the authorities refused to restore her white classification (Hawkey, 2010).
Recently in the state of Washington, USA, Rachael Dolezal, president of the Spokane chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) from 2014, who had been claiming to be black and was taken as such, was outed by her parents as white, leading to her resignation in June 2015. In an article entitled “Is Rachel Dolezal Black Just Because She Says She Is?” Jamelle Bouie cynically answers his own question: “Maybe. What we don’t know is whether she also accepted the hardships of being black” (Bouie, 2015).

Performance does not exist outside the economy of spectatorship; a performance is always for someone, an audience who validates the performance. As such, it is important to recognize that Dolezal’s claim and her audience’s responses make her, indeed, black and then white at different times. When she said she is black, her audience accepted that she is, and she became. However, when her parents outed her as white, the audience dismissed her claims and started seeing her as white. It is important to note that the verdict of whether she is black or white does not necessarily come from her skin tone or heritage. Rather, it comes from validation by the audience. Bouie theorises,

On one hand, ‘black’ is a statement of identity. It describes a certain culture and a certain history, tied to the lives and experiences of enslaved Africans and their descendants […] On the other hand […] It’s a construct, but it was built from physical features, as colonial Americans took Africans, made them slaves, and made them ‘black.’ It designates the people who could be enslaved; the people who had to live under Jim Crow; the people who could be denied mortgage loans and crammed into ghettos; the people who can be plundered by petty municipal authorities (Bouie, 2015).
Put in abstract terms, blackness is founded on performance and it makes certain performances possible. Fuoss (1999) examines this performative nature of blackness (see Box 1).

While the lynching of Potter was not a theatre performance but a real life event that took place in a theatre, it was reported in theatrical terms. For instance words and phrases like ‘weird scene,’ ‘stage centre,’ ‘semi-dark auditorium,’ ‘orchestra pit,’ ‘cue,’ ‘lights,’ ‘tickets’ and ‘curtain’ framed the event as a performance. Fuoss (1999) states that the lynching of Potter did not actually happen in the way the press reported. For instance, Potter was not shot stage centre but in the dressing room where he was found.

**Box 1: The Lynching of Will Potter**

On April 20, 1911 in Livermore, Kentucky, U.S.A., two white men, William Mitchell and Clifton Schroeter, entered a pool hall run by a black man, Will Potter, and patronized by black people. Mitchell and Schroeter played pool but refused to pay. A fight ensued between the two on one side and Potter on the other. Potter shot and killed Mitchell. Upon hearing the shots, the town marshall proceeded to the scene, where he arrested Potter and hid him in the local theatre waiting for a boat to ferry him to the county jail in Calhoun, Kentucky, since Livermore did not have a jail and soon crowds would seek mob justice. A mob converged at the theatre as night fell, broke the door, searched inside and found Potter and lynched him.

The next day the New York Times reported that the shooting of Potter was done in a weird scene where Potter was bound hands and feet and tied on a pole stage centre. The mob stood in a semi-dark auditorium with an orchestra pit. A leader gave a cue, and 50
guns were fired right on cue. With the execution done, New York Times reported, “The lights were then extinguished, the curtain lowered, and the mob filed out” (Fuoss, 1999). Subsequent reports claim that tickets were sold to get into the theatre, and the price of tickets determined where one stood and the number of rounds one fired; people gathered soon after 7 PM; there were props in the background; and the stage curtain closed soon after the lynching. On 22 April, the New York Tribune published a cartoon titled ‘The Theatrical Business is Looking Up in Kentucky.’ The cartoon had a huge throng of people waiting to get into a building marked ‘Opera House.’ Side by the marking, a prescription read: “Tonight nigger will be lynched for murder of white man. Proceedes (sic) for benefit of murdered man’s family. Tickets bought of spectators will be refused at the door” (Fuoss, 1999). On 7 May in Paris, France, a newspaper, Le Petit Journal, published a cartoon of Potter tied stage centre, being shot at, a spectacle arguably meant to suggest the theatricality of the moment.

Source: Taken from Fuoss (1999)

The lights in the orchestra pit and auditorium actually refused to work, and the auditorium was not partially lit, it was not lit at all. No one actually paid anything to get into the theatre, nor were shots fired dependant on any fee. No leader gave a cue for the firing to take place. No stage curtain was lowered down at the end. It is equally suspicious that the mob gathered soon after 7 PM in time to witness the ‘show.’ Why did newspapers theatricalise Potter’s death? The answer to this question leads to the notion of the performance of blackness predicated on a claim proposed here -performance constructs blackness.

If blackness is a constructed performance, how is it so? Performance is defined as “twice-behaved behaviors” or “restored behaviors” and actions
which are done “not for the first time, [they are] prepared, or rehearsed” (Schechner, 2002). Performance actions exist in one form or another, real or imagined, before they are performed for others to see. When presented, the performance is partnered with an original event, real or imagined. There is, therefore, a double consciousness around all performances: the original event and its double. Marvin Carlson attests to the centrality of double consciousness in performance: “all performance involves a consciousness of doubleness, through which the actual execution of an action is placed in mental comparison with a potential, an ideal, or a remembered original model of that action” (Carlson, 1996).

The notion of double consciousness can be further understood with the help of Jacques Lacan’s theory of subjectivity. In his essay, *The Mirror Stage*, (Lacan, 1949) postulates that a child at the age from six to eighteen months realizes who it is at the point it imagines ‘the other.’ The Lacanian child looks in the mirror and becomes interested in exploring the connections between its body and the image in the mirror. The child does not recognise itself in the mirror (Evans, 2005). Instead, it sees the image as a different person. Therefore, this process helps children develop a sense of self-identity, albeit via negativa; they are that which is not the other person (in the mirror). At this point, subjectivity (or personhood) is attained. If human subjectivity is achieved through the negation of the other, W.E.B. Du Bois teaches us that black subjectivity is arrived at through the negation of whiteness: blackness is that which is not whiteness. This feeds well into the claim made here that blackness is established through performance; without the young Du Bois realizing that he is not white, he would not have realized that he is black.

Du Bois talks about blackness as a doubleness of some sort, which is to say blackness as performance. In *The Souls of Black Folk*, Du Bois narrates an incident at school when a white girl refused to accept his exchange gift card
with a mere glance. The infant Du Bois’s teacher at the school in New England asked the class to bring gift cards for another person paired to them. The girl paired to him refused his card. He realized, then, that he was different from the other children, who were white. Du Bois realized his blackness in relation to the whiteness of the girl who refused to accept his gift card. Invariably, the black man or woman sees himself or herself through “the revelation of the other world” (Du Bois, 1903). It is a theatrical state that is defined by being non-white. Blackness as a racial category, therefore, is derived from a level of double consciousness. Du Bois defines this form of double consciousness as: “This sense of always looking at one’s self through the eyes of others, of measuring one’s soul by the tape of a world that looks on in amused contempt and pity” (Du Bois, 1903). Therefore, this strengthens the argument that blackness is a performance because it involves doubleness that is a necessary condition of all performance.

**Staging Black Sexuality**

Sara Baartman was born in 1789 in the Eastern Cape, then a Dutch colony in what is now South Africa. She was a servant of a white colonist. A British Naval Surgeon, William Dunlop, saw her and had her transported to London in 1810, convincing and promising her that she would be a dancer making a lot of money. She was exhibited in museums, circuses, bars, universities, and at parties. She was forced to entertain people by gyrating her nude buttocks and showing to Europeans what were thought of as highly unusual bodily features. She had swelling buttocks; a condition called steatopygia, and elongated labia minora. In 1814, after spending four years being paraded around the streets of London, Baartman was taken to Paris where she was handed to an exhibiter of wild animals in a traveling circus and exhibited for 15 months (Clifton and Scully, 2008). In between shows, French natural scientists, among
them Georges Cuvier, who is considered the founder of comparative anatomy, visited her and she was the subject of several scientific paintings at the Jardin du Roi, where she was examined in March 1815. Baartman died on January 1, 1816 (Fausto-Sterling, 1995). Her body was given to Cuvier, who made a plaster cast of it and then dissected the body, removed the brain, the vulva and the anus, which were placed in glass jars in a preserving liquid and placed on public display in Paris’ Musee de l’Homme until 1974. Researches were published which linked the size of Baartman’s sexual organs to the “degree of lasciviousness unknown in our climate” among black women, whose “sexual organs are much more developed than those of whites” (Rossetti, 2006). The remains were then repatriated to her home in South Africa on 6 May, 2002. An artistic illustration of Baartman as a performance, titled Les Curieux en extase, ou les cordons de souliers, is available in the British Museum and can be seen from http://www.britishmuseum.org/research/collection_online/collection_object_details/collection_image_gallery.aspx?partid=1&assetid=99425001&objectid=691448.

In Baartman’s case, while the initial performance already has theatrical connotations through Baartman’s exhibition, the cartoons, paintings and drawings made about her also become theatrical performances with a life of their own. Baartman’s occupation in Europe was listed as freak show performer and her character name was the Hottentot Venus, embodying sex (Strother, 1999). She was put on display in front of gaping crowds six days a week, doing suggestive dancing and playing African instruments. She even wore a special costume enhancing her performance. At times she was exhibited in a cage and forced to behave like a wild animal. People paid one shilling to look at her. Descriptions of her shows at 225 Piccadilly, Bartholomew Fair and Haymarket in London indicate that she was paraded naked on a stage and directed to perform animal stunts (Gilman, 2003). If ever there was a theatre production, this is one.
The staging of Baartman in the British Museum (above online link) demands a gaze on her sexual parts as can be seen in the focal areas the viewer is directed to as well as the text. In a way, illustrations of Baartman parallel the paintings of President Jacob Zuma of South Africa, who is depicted with a protruding penis. While Baartman may perform black femininity, the painting depicting Zuma, titled *The Spear* (Available from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Spear_%28painting%29, represents black masculinity.

**Enter the Piecing Spear: Umshin Wami**

The painting done by Cape Town born South African national, Brett Murray was exhibited in Johannesburg at the Goodman Gallery under the *Hail to the Thief II* exhibition that was billed to run from 10 May to June 16, 2012. *The Spear*, a black, red and yellow 1.85 metre-high acrylic on canvas, depicts Zuma in a suit and what could be a codpiece accentuating his genitals. The painting bears likeness to Victor Ivanov’s poster *Lenin Lived, Lenin is Alive, Lenin Will Live* of 1967.

The Goodman Gallery describes itself as being “at the forefront of contemporary art in South Africa. Its focus is on artists – from South Africa, the greater African Continent, and other countries – who engage in a dialogue with the African context” (Gallery, 2015). Could “the African context” be a euphemism for blackness? The governing African National Congress (ANC), led by Zuma himself, contended that the painting plays up to “crude stereotypes of African male sexuality (Smith, 2012). The ANC Secretary General, Gwede Mantashe, commented on the painting; “If it had been a white man depicted, the reaction would have been very different, but as far as many people were concerned, black people were just objects” and “Blacks feel humiliated and spat on by their white counterparts in situations like this” (sic) (Smith, 2012). The
stereotypes are made the more poignant because Murray, the artist, is white. While Murray’s *The Spear* generated a lot of controversy, three months later another Zuma painting, *Umshin Wami*, by a black painter, Ayanda Mabulu, went on in Cape Town. It is important to note that Mabulu’s painting reveals more sexual content than Murray’s. Yet, Mabulu’s generally went without incident. Since this paper has suggested that performance is for ‘an other,’ who validates it as such, it may be the case that Mabulu, being a black artist, does not so much perform race through the painting of another black person because there is no ‘othering,’ which is a necessary condition of performance.

*The Spear* clearly plays on black sexuality stereotypes. To put the painting into context, Zuma is a polygamous Zulu man who has married six times and currently has four wives. He is said to have 20 children and in 2010 he publicly apologised for fathering a child out of wedlock. In 2006, he was cleared of raping a family friend. It can, then, be argued that Zuma’s ‘spear’ symbolises his perceived sexual appetite.

In an interview the gallery owner, Liza Essers, stresses, “The first thing that was in my mind when I saw that painting was looking at issues of patriarchy and abuses of power: Berlusconi, Strauss-Kahn, Bill Clinton, even Kennedy. This is international; so we’re adding Zuma to the list” (Dubin, 2012). From the gallery owner’s point, it is clear that this is an issue of representation of certain groups of people. Performance validates ways of looking at life and attendant interpretations of viewpoints. As Wood et al. (1993) posit, objects are given value by virtue of being selected and exhibited, and this value often reflects the values of the dominant culture. By using sexual metaphors in exhibiting Baartman and painting Zuma, the curators and painters are, arguably, enforcing dominant cultural perceptions of what it means to be black in general and the nature of black sexuality in particular.
Conclusion: Black Essence

In theorizing black theatricality, we need to recognize the several layers of performance at work. These levels of performance are brought together through the way in which one performance leads to another. The first level of performance is always the original event, whether a real life occurrence or a show. There is a way in which we can look at the first level of performance by locating the word ‘performance’ in its non-theatrical sense. To perform is to do. Anything that is done can be said to have been performed. Even though theatrical performance is doing too, the first layer of performance in the cited stories lies in the doing of the events. Potter was lynched; this in itself is a performance, which leads us to the reiteration of the event in narrative reports. Reports of the lynching add a layer of theatrical performance by the mere fact that the story is repeated through narrative and visual reports. Yet, there is a third layer in the lynching of Potter; the narrative reports are further made into a theatre event by the way in which they are described using theatre language as already discussed.

The performance of blackness can be seen in surrogate layers of performance, that is, performance layers beyond the original event done. The importance of the surrogate layers of performance in the cases above lie in that they impress on their spectators a perception of blackness. That is, the cartoons and paintings become ways of seeing blackness that happen through a performance shift. The performance shift makes the performances to no longer be about the individual performers but about blackness in general. A conceptual shift is allowed through the shift from ‘this is what happened’ to ‘this is what happens.’ For Baartman, the performance shift can be from ‘the African woman with big sexual features’ to ‘black women have insatiable sexual appetite.’ Through the performance shifts, Baartman becomes more than a performer who is black; she becomes a performer of black femininity.
For Zuma, the shift is from ‘look at Zuma’s penis’ to ‘blacks are hung like a horse’ or any other assertion that links black people with sexual overreach.

Is blackness, then, an essential condition or a constructed performance? Blackness, it would seem, is both essentialised and performed. In this case, values which are normally mutually exclusive, essence and performance, are not exclusive. This happens because, as demonstrated in this paper, blackness is articulated through performance. Therefore, blackness as a category of racial identity is constructed and reinforced through theatrical performance; that is, blackness is both defined by and reproduced through performance.

References


Implications of the colonial economic legacy on the prospects and future of entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe

Believe Mubonderi and Aaron Rwodzi

Abstract

The significance of entrepreneurship to a country’s economic development cannot be overlooked. Worldwide, economic miracles that some countries produced resulted from the thrust on small business enterprises. As we continue to search for sustainable economic growth solutions, entrepreneurship cannot be sidelined in Zimbabwe where, for the past decade, our economy has plummeted. This study contends that the colonial economic legacy has had a strong negative effect on the growth and future of entrepreneurship. It focuses on some key colonial legislation that fostered a job-seeking culture among Africans. This article thus, attempts to wean the indigenous Zimbabweans from the culture of seeking formal employment bequeathed to them by the departing colonialists. When the national economy is not expanding in qualitative terms and the job outlook is bleak, the article proposes that people can actually carve out careers as entrepreneurs and become employers in their own right. The central role of government in facilitating the development of an entrepreneurial culture by adopting the politics of development, not the politics of ideology, is highlighted. Future prospects of the existence of small-scale businessmen in Zimbabwe are

12 Catholic University of Zimbabwe
analysed within the context of the political will by government to genuinely undertake a disciplined approach to macro-economic planning. This further enhances and taps into the skills that are imbued in the indigenous populace. This paper recommends that a donor agency approach to business be abandoned and that education at all levels of complexity be consistent with, and streamlined to meet, develop and capacitate small-scale enterprises in Zimbabwe.

**Keywords:** entrepreneur, economic legacy, entrepreneurship, employment, colonialist

**Introduction**

Before independence, the white colonial administration put instruments in place to ensure that Africans remained a permanent source of cheap labour (Fenwick *et al*., 2007). Very few Africans graduated to become successful entrepreneurs because such opportunities were only open to whites who received unlimited government financial support to start businesses. Racial considerations militated against Africans in accessing the needed resources and this stifled competition between black and white. The Victorian ideas of female domesticity confined African women to the private life of the household space. This was buttressed by the kind of patriarchal missionary education that emphasized decorum and male guardianship over them in all spheres of life. It meant that the women were legal minors under the law and could not own property in their names in terms of Customary law. Customary Law had devastating effects on African women in many more ways than one. It so terribly circumscribed women freedom, including the firm control it had on their sexuality and fertility. The male informants who were consulted by the Europeans in the codification of African practices into Customary Law, deliberately or otherwise, also impressed upon cultural values that subordinated women to perpetual minority status in society. In order to fulfil
their tax obligations, African men, some of whom had skills that required further development through carefully planned national skills programmes, joined the sprouting urban populations as dictated by the capitalist system. They were situated in dormitory towns and townships as a pool of cheap labour for the capitalists (Mangosvongwe and Nyamende 2014).

Colonial legislations systematically disallowed the development of an informal sector, but ensured that all African men housed in compounds were mainstreamed into formal employment. The Maize Control Act of 1934 indirectly confined African women to the rural areas where they were engaged in agricultural activities, producing crops that did not have any competitive advantage over European produce. In spite of stringent market regulations, these women were still able to supplement their husbands’ merger wages in urban centres. The few African women whose stay in urban areas had legal recognition upon production of marriage certificates sold tomatoes and vegetables and that was only as far as informal business by Africans could go. The dualistic formal education curriculum provided for limited opportunities for African advancement. It was tailored towards producing men for ready absorption into the colonial labour force and gave little scope for African males to aspire for roles beyond that of labourers. The only ‘successful’ Africans were those who managed to build poorly equipped groceries shops situated in the countryside, far away from urban centres, as a strategy to prevent black-white competition.

At independence in 1980, the black government inherited an economic system which, though still very functional, had periodically been transformed to mitigate the negative effects of both international sanctions and the guerrilla war. This colonial government did not have policy measures and strategies to support less than 10% of the existing female dominated informal economy. Import substitution industrialization to circumvent the sanctions created a
robust economy to the extent that the effects of the sanctions were only felt tangentially. The economic reality that the new black government inherited resembled the socialist model and very little in the first decade of political independence was done to alter the status quo.

Between 1991 and 1995, the government, under conditions of economic uncertainty, abandoned its socialist ideology and adopted Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) in order to access funds from the World Bank (Shizha 2006). The liberalization of the economy in line with ESAP conditionalities resulted in unprecedented company closures, job losses through retrenchment and increased suffering for the poor majority due to worsening living standards. This was a wakeup call for the government to seriously consider according official recognition to black business ventures, however small. People resorted to selling a wide range of both foreign and local products as a survival technique. The government was compelled to reckon with the inevitability of a growing informal system of employment, particularly at a time when inflationary levels were sky-high due to a plummeting economy. The western imposed sanctions on Zimbabwe following the fast track land redistribution programme in 2002, paralysed state operations and aggravated the living standards of all black Zimbabweans in general, leading to the Diaspora phenomenon that still haunts the country up to today. It was during that time that women assertiveness was displayed as they made attempts to fend for their families in the absence of their husbands. Cross-border trading by women into neighbouring countries and even beyond allowed for a very limited capital inflow of foreign currency, notwithstanding the occasional remittances from Diasporas which then could at times be diverted and channelled towards starting mini-businesses.

It is no longer feasible to continue blaming the colonial past for the failures by the indigenous people to undertake entrepreneurship seriously even under
sanctions, but to regard these sanctions as a blessing in disguise because it was during the sanctions era that the Smith regime bolstered the Rhodesian economy into a jewel. The key to successful entrepreneurship is to fail and fail fast, learn quickly and try not to make the same mistake again. This study also encourages the development of business initiatives and innovativeness among the indigenous people through the exploitation of locally available resources. The rural populace can, in areas where there is a preponderance of mopane worms (mac’imbi), orchard trees and wild fruits, actually form associations or organizations around these resources and ultimately grow into huge business entities. It must be made clear that business empires are not established overnight, and that basic management skills for the rural would-be entrepreneurs do not need any educational sophistication.

An entrepreneur from the historical western definition is likened to a capitalist or industrialist (Oncioiu 2012) although not all authors concede with this. As such, a conception viewed from this perspective connotes some form of exploitation and unhealthy class and race relations. The term, with time, became associated with innovativeness, business-mindedness and the ability to demonstrate competitiveness in a globalizing business world (Oncioiu 2012). Generally, entrepreneurs need to have established a relatively stable financial base in order for them to start Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs). Worldwide, there is no operative generic term to define these SMEs because it varies from one country to another and across regions with different economies (Ntiamoah et al. 2014). The World Bank defines an SME as an enterprise (or business venture) with up to 300 employees and a total annual sale of up to US$15 million (Ntiamoah et al. 2014). According to Gibson and van der Vaart (2008) cited in (Ntiamoah et al. 2014), an SME is a formal enterprise with annual turnover in US dollar terms, of between ten and 1000 times the mean per capita national gross income at purchasing power parity of the country in which it operates.
From the foregoing, it can be noted that SMEs are usually categorized in terms of the number of employees, assets acquired and annual sales. The last then enables the entrepreneurs to evaluate their business viability and the growth and development of their business entities in terms of profit realization. In Zimbabwe, the political realities on the ground from the inception of ESAP in the 1990s make it problematic to come up with a working definition of who an entrepreneur is on account of the economic meltdown. On one hand are men and women selling items from tomatoes to second-hand and new clothing in the urban pavements. In the middle strata are people, mostly the youth, who legally advertise their wares at designated stalls. Shops and other business ventures constitute the last class of SMEs and these regularly remit rents to urban councils. From the categorizations shown, it would suggest that Zimbabwe has very few entrepreneurs as most people involved in buying and selling are merely trying to eke a subsistence and are not driven by the profit motive, nor by the desire to grow big and develop.

According to Odunaike and Amoda (2013) cited in (Dumbu 2014), entrepreneurship is the art of setting up and running an enterprise in a profitable and sustainable manner. In most cases, these business activities take place outside the formal norms of economic transactions established by the state, but are not clearly illegal (Cross 1997) cited in (Chidoko et al. 2011). These informal business activities are easily susceptible to economic vicissitudes because of their low levels of operating capital, paucity of skills and lack of access to competitive markets and technology. These are the characteristics that currently best describe the Zimbabwean business scenario. (Chidoko et al. 2011) discuss the informalisation of the Zimbabwean economy in the context of a growing number of people venturing into micro-business that are the result of individual or family self employment, and conclude that the informal sector encompasses all jobs which are not recognized as normal
income sources. This paper subscribes to this definition since it is best suited to the Zimbabwean situation.

Ntiamoah et al. (2014) discuss classical theories by Anderson (1982), Hoselitz (1959) and Stanely and Morse (1965). It is argued that SMEs, despite their contribution to the national fiscus, will diminish over time and overtaken by large enterprises. They therefore, encourage governments to support large enterprises that seem to have a brighter future than SMEs. On the other hand, modern theories attach greater significance to SMEs in spearheading economic growth and development. They emphasise agglomeration and clustering as conditions under which successful entrepreneurship can develop. There is abundant empirical evidence which points to the interdependence and intersection of the formal and informal modes of livelihood (Bold 2012). Worldwide, and with particular reference to the Asian Tigers, it has also been proved that the main thrust behind economic success stories, or miracles, has been provided by the small business sector.

According to (Goerg 1980) cited in (Austin 2010), the imposition of colonial rule and boundaries disrupted the intra-African network of exchange and the increasing presence of European merchants in the interior relegated African traders further down the chain of intermediation. (Austin 2010) also identifies Marketing Boards as a fiscal instrument that was an important colonial legacy which could, however, still be evaded by trading on the parallel market. Such debates focus on how the colonial African past might have influenced post-independent African economies, policies and successes. Precisely, we examine issues of colonial legacies in relation to dynamics of economic development in the long term. This research work makes a deliberate attempt to interrogate these colonial legacies so as to be able to understand how they continue to constrain the indigenous people in Zimbabwe from developing SMEs that can help in the sustenance of the national economy.
This paper is largely the result of a qualitative research paradigm. It builds on the information gathered through the desk approach in which various secondary sources were consulted. Online sources provided debates on current challenges that impede successful entrepreneurship especially in developing countries of which Zimbabwe is part of. Discussions with colleagues helped to operationalise our definitional conception of entrepreneurship in its present usage, and to make a historical comparative analysis of the colonial and post colonial epochs.

It was observed that most students at tertiary institutions are nowadays more inclined to taking Information and Technology programmes as opposed to studying areas that prepare them to become their own entrepreneurs. The reason is that the economy does not currently proffer business viability especially to upcoming entrepreneurs. The government ought to reduce bureaucratic tendencies to do with licensing regulations to open up for new players in business. Tax breaks and improved access to financial capital by the SMEs will inevitably help them in the sustenance of their businesses which are usually susceptible to international economic vicissitudes. The indigenization policy must also be re-aligned to cater for SMEs which significantly contribute to the economic growth of the country. For purposes of collateral security, it would make sense if the rural folk were granted tenure over the pieces of land they occupy so that they are also able to borrow capital from financial institutions for use to start and sustain their businesses.

Colonial education curriculum and European labour

A critical analysis of the education system in colonial times shows that it was used to contain the oppressed black people. In Southern Rhodesia, this was no exception. The Europeans used education to cow down and contain the
Africans with the main aim of ensuring that they would be no competition between the two racial groups. As early as the 1920s with the inception of the Responsible Government, education designed specifically for the Africans was to make them providers of cheap labour for the colonial economy. The colonial education system disempowered the majority Africans so that they could not excel, materially or otherwise, in the near future. Only a lucky few Africans probably escaped this purposely placed obstacle. The new black government had to grapple with this anomaly in order to correct the glaring educational imbalances as evidenced by the quantitative growth in education from primary school to university level.

Graduates from high school and universities in Zimbabwe no longer find any red carpet into the labour market. The University of Zimbabwe was the sole provider of university education for a few capable blacks at independence in 1980, and the curriculum was too bookish so as to create a black elite schooled in European traditions. The economy was not only dualistic and in foreign hands, but it was also primarily designed to benefit the white segment of society that thrived on recruiting cheap African labour from the countryside. There was also an advanced modern sector on one hand, and a historically marginalized, impoverished and depressed rural peasantry on the other.

Upon independence, the inherited economy which had been moulded on a philosophy of white supremacy that resulted in the evolution of a relatively well-developed and modern formal sector that employed about 1 million people, (only a fifth of the working population) co-existed with an under-developed and backward rural economy (Mazingi and Kamidzi 2011). President Nyerere of Tanzania congratulated the Zimbabwean Prime Minister in 1984 on having inherited a jewel in Africa which he had to preserve (Mazingi and Kamidzi 2011). With the democratization of education that substantially reduced illiteracy levels, most black people felt that they were equipped enough to
go ‘job hunting’ in urban areas when the absorptive capacity of the formal employment market had shrunk to a very low ebb. In Zimbabwe, it can be observed that only Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT), out of twelve or so universities in the country, offers a programme tailored to create entrepreneurs out of its graduates. There is a high student intake every year in Business Studies and Management at Catholic University, Midlands State University and the University of Zimbabwe and this, at a time when the economy of the country is not expanding at a corresponding rate as to absorb all of them into the formal sector. The question is what business will absorb these graduands for management positions. Disillusioned, these graduates, armed with the requisite technical skills, either elect to go into ‘voluntary’ unemployment, or decide to become migrant wage labourers in neighbouring South Africa and in remote foreign lands all over the world. In fact, this diasporan phenomenon has resulted in receiving countries boasting about the high level of skills showcased by the enterprising Zimbabwean people all over the world and this testifies to the tremendous talents that should be harnessed. On the contrary, foreigners who come to Zimbabwe, for example, Nigerians, are business-minded and do not come as job-seekers.

In the absence of indigenous entrepreneurs who could help transform an ailing economy, serious consideration was placed on a comprehensive review of the education curriculum. According to President Mugabe, the curriculum was to be reviewed bringing it in line with the current national aspirations of creating employers rather than employment, emphasizing self employment as opposed to employment for institutes (The Herald 2015). It would appear as if it is only now that the paradigm shift by government from the theoretical to the practical aspects of business growth, as evidenced by its concerted attempts to review the curriculum so that it is in line with the current market and development needs, will inevitably bring a modicum of economic prosperity. The current Minister of
Higher and Tertiary Education confirmed that as many as 30000 university graduates specialising in Management Programmes are released into the job market every year. The curriculum that they pursue at institutions of higher learning is designed to produce managers of other people’s businesses, ironically when there is virtually no business to manage. The number of business management programmes vis a viz entrepreneurship studies points to a sorry state of affairs for a country that banks on entrepreneurs for sustainable economic growth and development such as Zimbabwe.

Most foreign-owned and domestic industries closed on account of ESAP conditionalities resulting in many job losses in line with stipulated economic fundamentals. Admittedly, efforts by the Zimbabwean government since independence in 1980 to promote an entrepreneurial culture among its business-minded people though various legal frameworks and constitutional provisions have met with structural constraints and paucity of strategic management skills. These constraints have largely negatively impacted women who aspire to be entrepreneurs. A new mindset to counteract the colonial job-seeking mentality is needed and this can be propagated by shifting national focus from ‘Growth Points’ (with emphasis on service provision) in rural areas to ‘Development Centres’ oriented towards business creation. Party political ideological leanings and business ethics more often than not work at cross purposes and those with the potential to venture into mini-businesses feel uncomfortable and insecure. As such, in order not to kill their initiative, the duty of government ought to be that of facilitating and promoting small businesses, for example, by creating an enabling, all-inclusive environment for business sustainability. Collateral security even for rural small-scale enterprises requires a new paradigm shift in land allocation so that people have title deeds for purposes of borrowing.
Colonial legislation and effects on African entrepreneurship

At independence, the new Zimbabwean government inherited a formal sector industry that was largely dominated by the minority Europeans, who, since 1890, had enjoyed dominance in the socio-political and economic spheres. Along the way, a lot of measures were institutionalised to ensure that Africans would supply cheap labour and nothing else. Legislations such as the Land Apportionment Act (1930/1), Industrial Conciliation Act, Unlawful Organisations Act, Education Act (1966), Urban Areas Act, Native Land Husbandry Act (1951) Land Tenure Act (1969) and many more strongly inhibited African socio-economic advancement. As such, these racist legislations left Africans without any form of security which could be very vital in starting up business enterprises. On the contrary, the white minority population had all the resources and a conducive environment necessary for the growth of uncontested white entrepreneurship. Tribal Trust Lands were deliberately created as reserve banks for a pool of cheap African labour and that meant that the occupants were tenants on state land where they could be evicted whenever the state felt there was need to do so. Resulting from this arrangement were huge disparities in income and resource allocation. Africans were, therefore, segregated both as a class and as a race, for which reason the armed struggle was waged from 1966 up to 1979 with the attainment of independence in 1980. Zvobgo (1996) cited in (Shizha, 2006) intimates that educating and training Africans for employment was not for the benefit of Africans per se, but to assist the development of the economy that protected the European investment. In order to screen and limit the number of indigenous students who could get access to secondary education, the Rhodesian Front proposed the 1966 Education Plan that saw the institution of two separate categories of the schooling system, with F1 academic and F2 industrial and agricultural (Shizha 2006).
The Lancaster House Agreement of 1979 spelt disaster for the Patriotic Front (PF) of Zimbabwe African People’s Union (ZAPU) and Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) in that the compromise entrenched a white controlled capitalist economic system that was incongruent with the desired socialist dispensation (Cornwell 1993). The policy of reconciliation gave the white constituency the confidence and hope that the new black government would not substantially alter the property relations that had existed before independence, and that Africans would continue, as before, to be subordinated to the European economic needs. It is beyond doubt that the continuist Zimbabwean government, predominantly composed of the revolutionary elite emerging from the bush guerilla war, apparently lacked the technical knowhow of managing national affairs. The aspirations of the people who had supported them during the armed struggle had to be balanced with those of the white descendants for the sake of progress and order. Independence was an empty victory given the dilemma of a people-oriented transition that confronted the government in the first decade of political independence.

The new black government made efforts to reduce the racially induced economic differentiation by promulgating growth with equity. This saw a geometrical increase in enrollment figures in the education sector for Africans and that was designed to counter the negative effects of the dualistic and bottleneck system. All government efforts and energy were directed to the growth of the formal industrial sector and, like its predecessor, little or no attention was given to the informal sector. Universities were established and these were churning out graduates who were supposed to be employed in the formal sector. It is not surprising that even up to this day, many economically active Zimbabweans, most of them college and university graduates, view the informal sector, or the entrepreneurship domain, as only fit for those who academically failed to excel. It can strongly be argued that Zimbabwe inherited the British education model that was too bookish and theoretical as to be able
to meaningfully and relevantly transform the lives of Africans economically. It was, indeed, a system that removed Africans from the practical domain. Many people accidentally became entrepreneurs as soon as the economy was plummeting irredeemably.

From the 1990s to the new millennium, the economy was facing challenges leading to the serious economic meltdown. Serious downgrading and retrenchments left many people unemployed just at a time when the shrinking formal industry could no longer take up more people. It was during this period that saw many Zimbabweans taking up entrepreneurship mainly to supplement their merger incomes in the hostile economic climate. Whilst credit should be given to the government for making efforts for the growth and sustenance of entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe through the setting up of the Ministry of SMEs, SEDCO and AAG for example, our colonial past continues to haunt us. African mentality still remains stuck with what Europeans prescribed for us, for example, that the African was supposed to provide cheap labour. Many entrepreneurs still continue to face challenges in accessing loans from local banks because they do not have collateral security owing to a past in which they owned nothing. Lending requirements have not been changed to conform to, and take cognizance of, the financial situation of those requiring loans.

**Prospects and future of entrepreneurship**

The positive contributions that the Zimbabwean entrepreneurs make continue to grow and cannot be ignored. However, the most worrying trend of entrepreneurship is that it has tended to be dominated by the ‘consumerist ideology’ for its heavy reliance on buying and selling with other key aspects of a performing industry such as manufacturing, lagging behind. There has been a lot of will and energy on the part of upcoming entrepreneurs,
but the skills side has been lacking. Most of them require education in financial literacy and management so that they turn professional and make significant contributions to the state’s development. The formal and informal sectors ought to be married together and start complementing each other. By formalizing the informal sector, their efforts should be appreciated and taken on board to acknowledge their role as significant contributors to the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Product (GNP). SMEs in both developing and developed economies are considered to be the engine for economic growth, apart from contributing to the growth of national GDP and the reduction of unemployment (Asare 2014). In Ghana, for example, data from the Registrar General indicates that 92% of the companies operating in the country are registered as small and medium firms (Asare 2014).

Most SMEs in Africa share the same characteristics. Firstly, they are dominated by one person who takes all the executive decisions of the enterprise despite the limited education and access to new technology and credit. Secondly, the colonial background resulted in paucity of management skills and complete absence of strategic planning. Thirdly, most of the enterprises are not viable because the capital to start a business is usually exhausted well before it takes off the ground, and financial institutions are not always forthcoming to bail them out. For example, Small Enterprises Development Corporation (SEDCO) offers a list of requirements for loan application which are difficult to satisfy in that apart from all other inhibitive conditions, the applicant must reveal a bankable business plan or proposal with cash flow projection of up to two years, statement of financial position at the time of application and documents that confirm one’s legal status of the business. A random survey in the Harare Business District (CBD) indicates that most entrepreneurs rent the premises from which they operate. This constraint disqualifies
them from accessing loans. The SEDCO mandate is to develop small and medium scale enterprise and offer business training and consultancy services to the borrowers who first undergo a rigorous qualification vetting exercise. Unfortunately, the programme is government funded and the budget vote since its inception in 1984 is too little to effectively sustain the company’s operations. It is clear from the foregoing that those business people who have access to the limited loans are usually those already in business. The demand for collateral security literally elbows out upcoming entrepreneurs from mainstream entrepreneurship.

Of interest to note is a scenario that is rampant in Harare where vendors sell products on front pavements of shops that also have the same items at much reduced prices and without any token show of adherence to normal business ethics. These people are mobile and can hardly remit taxes to the government because they do not own property. While acknowledging government efforts to empower the urban poor through Zim-Asset, a worrying trend throughout the cities and towns in the country continues to develop unabated. On one hand, established business entities that remit taxes to government cannot helplessly watch vendors, who do not pay tax, diverting their potential clients to them. On the other, the reality of an informalised urban economy cannot be wished away, yet the government seriously needs tax to help in sustaining its national development programmes.

Zimbabwe is still reeling under international economic sanctions which have inadvertently led to a precipitate flight of foreign capital simply because the dominating foreign-owned manufacturing industries shut down at the height of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) and the Third Chimurenga. As such, external lines of credit for indigenous entrepreneurs to grow their businesses or to resuscitate underperforming entities are very limited. The economy of a country cannot depend on buying and selling
without a parallel manufacturing sector in the balance. In the Zimbabwean urban centres, municipality police have had countless running battles with unregistered vendors and much of what they sell is either spoilt, damaged or confiscated. This can be attributed to the absence of elaborate by-laws that regulate and define how vendors, with the potential to become renowned business people, can slowly be initiated into mainstream entrepreneurship. This has resulted in limited capacities for the indigenous people in urban areas to expand their business ventures. There is no clear signposting to help some of them to access financial capital, and the relationship between the state officials and some SMEs is soured by the differential treatment that borders on partisanship. Such bureaucratic red tape is antithetical to entrepreneurial development.

**Conclusion**

The Zimbabwean economy must recognize the symbiosis between the informal and formal sectors. In recent years, government focus to facilitate the growth and development of SMEs through the creation of the Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises, though commendable, has not yielded the desired outcomes due to structural, economic and political constraints. Youth empowerment programmes have been politicized in most cases to the exclusion of key players that are indispensable in the drive towards developing an entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwe. The political elite have themselves a domineering effect and continue to perpetuate in earnest, the colonial mentality where new forms of black to black exploitative relations hinder the emergence of more business people. Vocational centres all over the country impart the requisite skills practically needed by would-be entrepreneurs, but they continue to be looked down upon because only those students who fail to excel academically enrol at such institutions. The academically gifted elect
to enrol at prestigious universities to earn their degree qualifications. There is a strong possibility that some of the best brains end up in the wrong work places.

The precipitate flight of skills to greener pastures is clear indication that government priorities with regard to entrepreneurship in the country must, of necessity, deserve reconsideration and re-assessment. There is need for government to facilitate and promote the competitive levels of its own local SMEs, and to ensure that these MSEs are able to internationalize and favourably compete. There is need, too, for government to play the interventionist role so that entrepreneurs are legally protected from exorbitant rentals which erode their profits. Government income from advertisements ought to be proportionate to the size of the enterprise, and the fee to be determined after a careful evaluation of the business viability of the entity. Put simply, it is the role of government to craft pro-SME licensing regulations to reduce bureaucratic red tape that causes unnecessary registration delays. Tax breaks and/or tax exemptions for SMEs will help in easing start-up capital requirements for those up-coming indigenous business people who have historically been disadvantaged. At a time when the government is grappling with a diminishing fiscus, their objective re-focus on SMEs should include improved access to finance and provision of more support and business information.

The internet and media must be viewed as the new frontier for high performance entrepreneurs as these facilitate extensive networking across the globe. National programmes and policy frameworks that attract those with skills in the diaspora back into the country will enhance the economic well-being of Zimbabwe. The rural folk do not possess title deeds to the pieces of land they own. It is incumbent upon the government and other stakeholders to progressively institute pro-poor legal instruments that accord the rural
communities land entitlements for the sake of borrowing from financial institutions. Since SMEs are labour intensive and so create employment, such policy measures make it possible for development to cascade to rural areas in general and to Growth (‘Development’ is more appropriate) points in particular. Politics must be viewed as the converse of economics, and that the two must not be subordinated to each other.

References

Determinants of the adoption of social media advertising

Nomagugu Moyo and Charles Makanyeza

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to determine factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising by firms in Zimbabwe’s fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) sector. The study adopted a quantitative approach where a survey of firms and customers was conducted in Harare and Chinhoyi. The study established that the use of social media advertising is still low; with Facebook and WhatsApp being the prominent media used to advertise. Managers perceive that the benefits of using social media advertising outweigh the costs. However, customers were ignorant of the benefits and costs of social advertising. Perceived credibility was found to be the only significant determinant of social media advertising. Firms are, therefore, advised to embrace the use of social media as an advertising tool so as to take advantage of the benefits associated with this technology. It is recommended that further studies be conducted in developing countries in order to explore other factors determining the adoption of social media advertising.

Keywords: fast moving consumer goods, social media advertising, technology acceptance model
Introduction

The use of social media has increased the world over (Cheung et al., 2011). In the corporate world there has been a surge in the use of social media as an advertising tool (Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013). Stelzner (2014) presented a Social Media Marketing Industry Report which showed that 93% of the companies interviewed use Facebook while 83% use Twitter to promote their businesses and brands. This implies a long-term commitment by companies towards the use of social media in business. The interest in social media as an advertising tool among businesses has been prompted by the ever-increasing number of consumers who are present on the platform, rising internet penetration rates and increasing number of consumers in possession of smartphones (Hsu and Lu, 2003, Perdue, 2010, Yu, 2012, Zhong et al., 2011).

Companies that have strategically engaged in social media advertising have reaped benefits. For example, Dell, Gap and Zappos connect with their customers over a variety of social media networks such as Tweeter and Facebook (Hanna et al., 2011), with IBM, Google and Zappos taking a leading position in the use of social media (Malthouse et al., 2013). The commitment of companies to social media is evident in some firms; for example in NHL which has employed social media marketing directors (Hanna et al., 2011) and The New York Times which has hired a social media editor (Kietzmann et al., 2011). In 2010 the USA’s music industry combined its traditional with social media to increase viewership of its annual Grammy Awards, with traditional media playing a supporting role to social media (Hanna et al., 2011). This move saw the Grammy Awards achieving the top rated spot for most popular programmes that week and it increased viewership by 32%. Pepsi Max also successfully took up social media in its promotional activities with initiatives such as ‘Crash the SuperBowl’ (Kaplan
and Haenlein, 2011, Malthouse et al., 2013) as well as Kraft Foods’ mobile application called ‘iFood Assistant and Procter and Gamble’s ‘My Fire Hydrant’ blog (Malthouse et al., 2013).

The popularity of social media in developed countries shows that these countries are harnessing its power and usefulness in advertising (Shin, 2010, Thackeray et al., 2008). Although social media advertising has grown exponentially in developed nations, it is a fairly new phenomenon in developing countries such as Zimbabwe. Moreover, there is little research on the factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, particularly in the FMCG sector. The present study, therefore, sought to (i) ascertain the extent to which social media is being used as an advertising tool in Zimbabwe’s FMCG sector (ii) to identify the types of social media used to advertise in the FMCG sector in Zimbabwe (iii) to identify managers’ perceptions towards the impact social media advertising has on businesses in the FMCG sector (iv) to ascertain perceptions of customers towards social media advertising in the FMCG sector (v) to establish the determinants of social media advertising adoption in Zimbabwe’s FMCG sector.

The FMCG sector in Zimbabwe is of particular interest because most of the companies in the sector are small, relatively unknown and are poorly placed, thus making them invisible to customers. This places the companies at a disadvantage. However, with social media advertising the FMCG sector can benefit as it creates traffic for even the little known businesses in not so well-known locations, thereby increasing the firm’s visibility (Berthon et al., 2012, Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013).
The fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) sector

The abbreviation FMCG represents the term ‘fast moving consumer goods’ (Sarkar and Dutta, 2015, Srinivasan et al., 2015). Banerjee (2015), Qasim and Agarwal (2015) and Sarkar and Dutta (2015) concur that FMCGs are physical items, that are consumed fairly quickly, are easily exhausted or out-dated and utilised within one use or a short space of time. Simply put, FMCGs are non-durable goods. Some texts refer to FMCGs as consumer packaged goods (Sarkar and Dutta, 2015). In this study, the FMCG sector is thus conceptualised as an industry that comprises firms selling fast moving consumer goods to satisfy customer requirements.

Almost every facet of human life is part and parcel of the FMCG sector which broadly includes products such as personal care items (hair care, soaps and toiletries), household care items (laundry soaps, detergents and toilet cleaners) and food and beverage items (snack foods, soft drinks and bakery foods) (Deliya, 2012, Jeevananda, 2011, Kavitha, 2012, Sarkar and Dutta, 2015, Srivastava, 2013, Tiwari, 2014). The FMCG sector is generally characterised by high levels of competition due to low entry barriers, low customer switching costs, low costs and a quick turnover (Banerjee, 2015, Qasim and Agarwal, 2015, Srinivasan et al., 2015, Zaman et al., 2012). As such, profits in the FMCG sector are relatively low although this is compensated for by the high sales volumes received from the large number of customers, and good pricing points (Banerjee, 2015, Qasim and Agarwal, 2015, Zineldin et al., 2014).

In Zimbabwe the FMCG sector comprises a few major players such as Bakers Inn, Chicken Inn, OK Zimbabwe, Pizza Inn, Spar and TM, and several small players (Dzama, 2013). The main products in the sector include personal care, household care, and food and beverage items. This sector has witnessed
an increased number of various new entrants for the past decade, thereby increasing the intensity of competition in the industry.

**Social media advertising**

Social media is defined as applications and platforms which enable the interaction of individuals, businesses and sharing of content (Berthon *et al*., 2012, Chu and Kim, 2015, Kim and Ko, 2012, Mix, 2011, Viriri *et al*., 2015). There is a growing diversity and range of social media products present on the internet and these are dependent on their capacity and purpose (Smith *et al*., 2012, Kietzmann *et al*., 2011). The major types or formats of social media noted by a number of authors include social networking sites, blogs, content communities, wikis, social bookmarking, online reviews, virtual worlds and mobile messaging applications (Chu and Kim, 2015, Kim and Ko, 2012, Mangold and Faulds, 2009, Nitha, 2014, Smith *et al*., 2012). A social networking site or social network is defined as a platform that creates a podium for users to connect with other people who share interests and circumstances that are alike (Kietzmann *et al*., 2011, Perdue, 2010). Examples include Facebook, Myspace and Friendster (Chu and Kim, 2015, Smith *et al*., 2012). Blogs are platforms that allow individuals or small groups to create and share agendas, topics and information (Choi and Kang, 2014, Tajuddin *et al*., 2012). Twitter is a micro-blogging site that came into being in 2006. It allows users to write messages publicly or within certain groups on the web (tweet); the limits to these posts being that they should be no more than 140 characters (Kietzmann *et al*., 2011, Smith *et al*., 2012).

Content communities also referred to as media sharing sites allow users to tell stories through creating and sharing videos either professionally or user
generated videos with friends and to the public (Kietzmann et al., 2011). Content communities include YouTube and Instagram (Smith et al., 2012). Wikis are websites that provide online users with educational information (Choi and Kang, 2014). (Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013) classify wikis under the heading collaborative projects. Social bookmarking sites are platforms that allow users to store, search and share) things of interest such as professional as well as academic and research items (Haustein and Siebenlist, 2011). Examples include CiteULike, StumbleUpon, Digg and Delicious (Arolas and Ladron-de-Guevar, 2011, Haustein and Siebenlist, 2011). Online reviews are appraisals by customers of a product’s or service features, performance, price and are usually displayed on a company’s website or next to an item being advertised (Jo and Oh, 2011, Korfiatis et al., 2012). Virtual worlds or gaming sites are a type of social media where users create avatars to participate in virtual environments in the form of educational games and in-world games (O’Keeffe and Pearson-Clarke, 2011, Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013). Social media has crossed over into the mobile arena as well with mobile messaging applications that use data to send text and multi-media messages, for example WhatsApp, Viber and WeChat (Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013).

Advertising is defined is any form of interaction that provides information and encourages a customer to make a purchase decision (Kerr et al., 2012, Sain and Rath, 2013). Social media advertising is the use of the various social media channels to communicate with customers and persuade their purchase decisions (Chu, 2011, Michaelidou et al., 2011, Ozazaki and Taylor, 2013, Sain and Rath, 2013).

Determinants of the adoption of social media advertising

Based on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) by Davis (1989), literature suggests that there are various factors that influence the adoption of a new
technology such as social media advertising, namely perceived usefulness (PU), perceived ease of use (PEOU), perceived credibility, facilitating conditions, perceived complexity, prior experience, perceived trialability, perceived self-efficacy, perceived risk, and awareness (Alagoz and Hekimoglu, 2012, Dickinger et al., 2008, Rauniar et al., 2014, Tajuddin et al., 2012).

PU is described as the belief that a person has that using a certain technology will boost his or her functionality (Tajuddin et al., 2012, Teo and Pok, 2003). Therefore, in the context of the social media advertising technology, a manager is likely to accept social media advertising if he or she perceives that it is useful (Rauniar et al., 2014). It is thus posited that:

\[ H_1: \text{PU has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Teo and Pok (2003) define PEOU as the extent to which an individual believes that using a certain technology will be effortless. If the use of technology is easy, it is likely that the technology will be easily adopted (Galadima et al., 2014). It is therefore hypothesised that:

\[ H_2: \text{PEOU has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Perceived credibility is management’s belief, apprehension or fear that using a new innovation such as social media to advertise will lead to privacy or security issues for the business (Sternad and Bobek, 2013). If a person rates an internet technology to be credible, they are more likely to adopt it (Fan et al., 2013). The study therefore posits that:

\[ H_3: \text{Perceived credibility has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]
Facilitating conditions are the infrastructural facilitates and technologies that support the use and acceptance of another technology as well as the degree to which an individual believes that these will help in the use of a new technology (Gatautis and Medziausiene, 2014, Lu and Su, 2009, Yu, 2012). It is thus posited that:

\[ H_4: \text{Facilitating conditions have a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

The degree to which a new technology or innovation is easy to use and understand is what Özer et al. (2013) define as complexity. Therefore, the study hypothesised that:

\[ H_5: \text{Perceived complexity has a negative effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

A simple way to explain prior experience is that it is the skill one acquires due to exposure to a certain technology that will impact the present decision one makes about a similar technology (Skoe, 2014). Therefore, it is posited that:

\[ H_6: \text{Prior experience has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Yunus (2014) asserts that when an individual is presented an opportunity to test or experiment with an innovation, they feel more comfortable with it and are more likely to adopt it. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H_7: \text{Perceived trial ability has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]
Self-efficacy is one's personal self-judgement of how their skills can help perform a task or use a technology. When people perceive that their skills can help in the use of new technology, they are likely to adopt it (Lu and Su, 2009, Teo and Pok, 2003). Therefore, the study hypothesises that:

\[ H_8: \text{Self-efficacy has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Teo and Pok (2003) define perceived risk as the psychosocial risk that people place on the use of a product or its expected performance. The higher the risk, the lower the chances of management adopting a technology such as social media (Hajli, 2014). Therefore, it is posited that:

\[ H_9: \text{Perceived risk has a negative effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Özer et al. (2013) define awareness as the extent to which users are conscious of the benefits and services provided by a new technology. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H_{10}: \text{Awareness has a positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising.} \]

Based on the foregoing discussion, the conceptual framework is presented in Figure 1.
Methodology

A survey of firms and customers was conducted in Harare and Chinhoyi. A self-administered questionnaire was then randomly distributed to managers while an interviewer-administered questionnaire was used to collect data from...
customers. Customers were randomly intercepted as they walked in to the shops to purchase products. The sample size comprised 74 firms and 130 customers. Data were coded, cleaned and entered into SPSS Version 21. Descriptive statistics and regression analysis are the main approaches used to analyse data.

A survey of managers and customers was conducted in Harare and Chinhoyi. Self-administered questionnaires were randomly distributed to 110 managers in Chinhoyi and Harare. Out of 110 questionnaires, 74 were returned and usable. This gives a response rate of 67.27%. One hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires were interviewer-administered to customers. Customers were randomly intercepted while shopping in Harare and Chinhoyi. Out of 150 questionnaires administered, 130 were completed and usable. This gives a response rate of 86.67%. The managers’ sample profile is summarised in Table 1 (see Appendix). Likert-type questions were used to measure the adoption of social media advertising, the types of social media used for advertising, the types of social media used by customers, perceptions of managers and customers of the benefits and costs of using social media advertising, and factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising. Managers and customers were also asked to state other types of social media that they used for advertising. Similarly, customers were also asked to state other types of social media that they used.

As shown in Table 1, there were more male (58.11%) than female (41.89%) respondents. The age group with the highest response rate was the 30 to 39 year age group. The majority (91.89%) were aged 59 years and below. Most respondents (98.65%) had attained either primary or tertiary education. The major product offerings in the sector were fast foods (56.76%) and groceries (43.24%). The sample profile of customers is presented in Table 2 (see Appendix).
Table 1: Sample profile of managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31 (41.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43 (58.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>22 (29.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>35 (47.30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>11 (14.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>6 (8.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest level of education</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>1 (1.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>29 (39.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>44 (59.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Major product offerings</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groceries</td>
<td>32 (43.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast food</td>
<td>42 (56.76)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, there was almost an equal number of female (50.77%) and male (49.23%) respondents. The majority (94.62%) of the respondents were aged 39 years and below. The majority of the respondents (61.54%) had attained secondary education, followed by tertiary education (24.62%) and primary education (13.85%). The majority (81.53%) were earning less than USD1000 while only a few (18.46%) earned more than USD1 000.
Table 2: Sample profile of customers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64 (49.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>66 (50.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≤ 19</td>
<td>41 (31.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>64 (49.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>18 (13.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>5 (3.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>2 (1.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest level of education</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>18 (13.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>80 (61.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>32 (24.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monthly income (USD)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 500</td>
<td>73 (56.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 – 999</td>
<td>33 (25.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 – 1499</td>
<td>9 (6.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500 – 1999</td>
<td>6 (4.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 +</td>
<td>9 (6.92)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings of the study

Adoption of social media advertising
The mean and standard deviation (SD) regarding the adoption of social media advertising are presented in Table 3 (see Appendix). Results show that
overall; managers neither agreed nor disagreed to the statements in Table 3 (overall mean ≈ 3). This implies that the adoption of social media advertising is moderate in the FMCG sector in Harare and Chinhoyi.

**Table 3: Adoption of social media advertising**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This firm uses social media to advertise its products</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This firm uses social media to promote its products</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This firm uses social media to communicate with its customers</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This firm uses social media to market its products</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Types of social media used**

The mean and SDs of the types of social media used by firms/managers to advertise and types of social media used by customers are presented in Table 4 (see Appendix). Results show that firms/managers never used LinkedIn, Myspace, Company blogs, Twitter, Flicker, Instagram, YouTube and WeChat to advertise (the mean rating ≈ 1 for each of the social media type). Results also show that firms/managers rarely used Facebook and WhatsApp to advertise (mean rating ≈ 2 for both the social media types). Respondents were also asked to indicate their use of other social media to advertise but did not provide any.
**Table 4: Types of social media used**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of social media</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Used by firms/managers to advertise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myspace</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Blogs</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flicker</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YouTube</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WeChat</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used by customers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myspace</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flicker</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YouTube</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WeChat</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viber</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results in Table 4 also show that customers never used Myspace and Flicker (mean rating ≈ 1 for each of the social media type), rarely used LinkedIn, Twitter, Instagram, WeChat and Viber (mean rating ≈ 2 for each of the social media type), occasionally used Facebook (mean rating ≈ 2), and frequently used WhatsApp (mean rating ≈ 4). This implies that WhatsApp is the most popular social media used by customers. Customers were also asked to mention any
other social media channels that they used. They gave the following types of social media: Snapchat (25%), Yookos (15%), Skype (10%), BBM and G-chat (10% each) and 5% each for G-Talk, Nimbuzz, MixIt, Hangout, Facetime and Google+.

Perceptions of managers and customers regarding benefits and costs of social media advertising

Table 5 (see Appendix) presents mean ratings of managers and customers’ perceptions of benefits and costs of social media advertising. Results reflected that managers agreed (mean rating ≈ 4) that social media advertising offers benefits. The managers neither agreed nor disagreed (mean rating ≈ 3) that social media advertising has cost implications on their businesses. Results also reveal that customers neither agreed nor disagreed that social media advertising has benefits and costs (mean rating ≈ 3 for both benefits and costs). These results imply that managers perceive that social media has benefits to the firm while customers are impartial about the benefits and costs of social media.

Table 5: Perceptions of managers and customers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managers regarding social media advertising’s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers regarding social media advertising’s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising

Table 6 presents mean and SDs for the factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising. As shown in Table 6, managers agreed that facilitating conditions, perceived self-efficacy and awareness influence the adoption of social media advertising (mean rating ≈ 3 for each of the factors). Managers neither agreed nor disagreed that PU, PEOU, perceived credibility, perceived complexity, prior experience, perceived trial-ability and perceived risk influenced the adoption of social media advertising (mean rating ≈ 3 for each of the factors).

Table 6: Factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PU</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEOU</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived credibility</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitating conditions</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived complexity</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior experience</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived triability</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived self-efficacy</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived risk</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to be certain about the factors influencing the adoption of social media advertising, multiple regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses. The results are presented in Table 7. Results of hypothesis testing show that only perceived credibility has a significant positive effect on the adoption of social media advertising ($\beta = 0.30; t = 2.12^*$). The other factors do not have significant effects on the adoption of social media advertising. The R square value of 0.54 suggests that there are other factors that explain changes (approximately 46%) in social media advertising.
Table 7: Factors influencing social media advertising adoption. * denotes $p < 0.05$; ns denotes $p > 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.54$; $F = 7.40$; $p < 0.001$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Prediction</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$T$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H$_1$</td>
<td>Perceived usefulness $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>1.78 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_2$</td>
<td>Perceived ease of use $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.37 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_3$</td>
<td>Perceived credibility $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>2.12 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_4$</td>
<td>Facilitating conditions $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.40 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_5$</td>
<td>Perceived complexity $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.03 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_6$</td>
<td>Prior experience $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.31 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_7$</td>
<td>Perceived triability $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.48 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_8$</td>
<td>Perceived self-efficacy $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.68 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_9$</td>
<td>Perceived risk $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.11 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H$_{10}$</td>
<td>Awareness $\rightarrow$ Social media advertising adoption</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.19 ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The study established that the use of social media advertising is low in Harare and Chinhoyi's FMCG sector. This finding is in line with findings from Stelzner (2014) that social media use in business is more prevalent in developed nations than in developing nations. This may be due to the phenomenon that diffusion of technology starts off in developed nations and gradually reaches developing nations (Comin et al., 2012).

The use of social media to advertise by firms and also for social networking by customers is still in its infancy in Harare and Chinhoyi. This finding is supported by several authors (Hsu and Lu, 2003, Kaplan and Haenlein, 2011,
Malthouse et al., 2013, Yu, 2012). However, the WhatsApp platform presents an opportunity for businesses as an advertising tool because it is popular among customers. The popularity of WhatsApp can be attributed to its low cost. It costs almost nothing to use WhatsApp as compared to other platforms.

A similar research conducted by Motwani et al. (2014) revealed that Indian customers had neutral perceptions towards social media benefit variables presented to them. This could mean that customers are generally not conversant with the benefits and costs associated with social media advertising. This is perhaps because customers use social media mainly for social networking. Moreover, it could be that social media advertising by firms is still in its infancy, as such customers are not likely to appreciate the benefits/costs associated with this phenomenon.

**Conclusion**

The study established that among the determinants of the adoption of technology prescribed by TAM as PU, PEOU, perceived credibility, facilitating conditions, perceived complexity, prior experience, perceived trialability, perceived self-efficacy, perceived risk, and awareness only perceived credibility emerged as a significant determinant of the adoption of social media advertising by firms in Harare and Chinhoyi. This finding disproves the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This suggests that in Zimbabwe, there are possibly other more important factors that determine the adoption of social media advertising than the ones prescribed by TAM.

Despite only perceived credibility being the only significant determinant of social media advertising, we recommend that Zimbabwean firms should consider increasing their use of social media for advertising in order to
harness the benefits associated with this technology. Managers should acquaint themselves with the benefits of social media advertising and also with the various uses of social media platforms in business. There is also a need for firms in the FMCG sector to educate customers in order that they appreciate the use of social media in advertising. This can be done by offering promotions via social media platforms. Firms should take advantage of the popularity of WhatsApp among customers and use this platform as the major advertising tool. Providers of social media platforms need to educate managers about the benefits and efficacy of social media so that they may perceive these platforms as credible. By doing so, they are likely to adopt the social media advertising and use this technology for business success.

The cities of Harare and Chinhoyi were the focus of the study. However, these cities only represent a small fraction of all the cities in Zimbabwe. For that reason, it is recommended that future studies be conducted on a larger scale in other cities in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, related studies should be conducted in other developing countries so as to generalise the research findings. It is also worthwhile to conduct more researches in developing countries in order to explore other determinants of social media advertising apart from perceived credibility.

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Community perceptions of climate variability and livelihoods in Zimbabwe

14 Dorah Mwenye, 15 Chipo Plaxedes Mubaya and 16 Patience Mutopo

Abstract

While the impacts of weather and climate variability have been widely documented and considerable advances have been made in previous studies on climate variability, prediction and adaptation strategies, the nexus of weather, climate variability and livelihoods remains complex, site specific and depends to a large extent on community perceptions. Using a qualitative design, we analyse community perceptions regarding key issues challenging rural livelihoods and community adaptive capacity. We conclude that understanding community challenges to livelihoods is a complex process that requires insights on both non-climatic and climatic stressors as major risks to community livelihoods. Insights from the study indicate that social capital assets are essential within the community for improved community decision making. An appreciation of communities’ capacities and constraints is an important step in designing appropriate climate extension methods and appropriately aligning agricultural interventions with community capacities to solve biophysical challenges of adapting to climate change.

Keywords: Semi-arid, livelihoods, capital assets, climate variability, community perceptions

14 AGRITEX, Harare
15 Directorate of Research and Resource Mobilisation, Chinhoyi University of Technology
16 Centre for development Studies, Chinhoyi University of Technology
Introduction

Weather and climate variability has impacted negatively on community livelihoods, resulting in increased vulnerability to food insecurity, decreased sources of income, reduced well-being and increased unsustainable environmental management (Davis and Hirji, 2014). The recurrence of extreme events affects community adaptive capacities. For Zimbabwe, extreme events that are critical for agricultural activities and livelihoods include temperature and precipitation (Dixon et al., 1996). The impacts of climate variability have been widely documented in previous studies, focusing mostly on climate variability, prediction and adaptation strategies (ADPC, 2006; Mano and Nhemachena, 2007; Mutekwa, 2009; Bast, 2010; Brown et al., 2012; CCDR, 2014). However, the nexus of weather, climate variability and livelihoods is complex and not easily understood. In addition, the science of climate variability is relatively new, yet agriculture, the main source of rural livelihoods, has been a known traditional practice for most communities (Sivakumar, 2006).

There is a growing discourse which asserts that farmer perceptions are the basis of these farmers’ position in relation to climate variability, and that subsequent farmer responses determine how farmers can improve livelihoods and agricultural programmes. Perceptions on climate variability differ from community to community and similarly, these perceptions view implications on livelihoods differently. Perceptions tend to differ based on differences in access and control of livelihoods resources/assets (Daze et al., 2009). Furthermore, perceptions on opportunities and constraints contribute to the understanding of smallholder farmers’ adaptive capacity (Timothy et al., 2012). This background forms the basis of researchers’ interest to understand; key issues and challenges to livelihoods; community perceptions of climate variability and related impacts on livelihoods and; establish community adaptive capacities in semi-arid wards of Gutu district in Zimbabwe.
Climate variability and adaptive capacity

The researchers take into account the interplay between climate change and variability with a multiplicity of challenges that farmers face and which complicate rural livelihoods. Previous research has shown that climate change is a risk multiplier that exacerbates the everyday challenges that communities are faced with (Mubaya et al., 2013, Mubaya et al., 2015). This paper therefore presents a case study of climate variability impacts on rural livelihoods within the multiple stressor framework.

Climate change is defined as any change in climate over time, which is due to natural variability or as a result of human activity and climate variability is defined as variations in the mean state and other statistics of the climate on temporal and spatial scales beyond that of individual weather events (IPCC 2007; Levina and Tirpak 2006). Changes in weather and climate are a global issue and trends in Africa have become more unpredictable. Scientific evidence has shown an increase in the mean annual temperature at a rate of 0.05°C per decade and a decrease or increase in rainfall at a rate of 5-10% per annum (Brown et al., 2012). The noted inconsistency in weather patterns has negatively impacted on agricultural production and on communities, whose livelihoods depend on rain fed agriculture.

Adaptive capacity refers to a system’s ability to adjust to climate variability, weather extremes and moderate potential damages in order to cope with consequences (Daze et al., 2009). Adaptive capacity of a system amongst other things depends on livelihoods assets, which are tangible and intangible livelihoods capital assets described as human capital, social capital, financial capital, physical capital and natural capital (see Table 1). The livelihoods capital assets allow individuals and households to meet their needs (Timothy et al., 2012).
Table 1: Description of livelihoods capital assets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capital assets</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human capital</td>
<td>Knowledge of climate risks, skills in adaptation strategies, good health for labour, education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial capital</td>
<td>Micro insurance, diversified income sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social capital</td>
<td>Savings clubs, loans groups, farmer based organizations, extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural capital</td>
<td>Reliable water sources, land, livestock, seed, forests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical capital</td>
<td>Irrigation infrastructure, dams, seed/grain storage facilities, clinics, schools, roads</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from CVCA –CARE, 2009 with some modification

Community perceptions

A number of scholars have written on the importance of eliciting community perceptions in development (Roncoli 2006; Roudier et al., 2014). The benefits of such actions include provision of information on farmer positions in relation to climate variability and guidance on improving livelihoods and agricultural programmes. Perceptions on climate variability, adaptive capacities and preferences depend to a large extent on the vulnerability context and access to livelihoods assets. For instance, Piya et al., (2012) provides evidence on sector based concerns with fishermen preferring fresh water for their fish and farmers preferring more rain for their crops in conditions of climate variability. However, there are cases where community perceptions have been inconsistent with scientific postulations. Community perceptions on causes of weather and climate variability seem to differ in most cases with the postulated scientific theories to climate change. These theories to climate change include the anthropogenic global warming (Carbon dioxide
theory); bio-thermostat; cloud formation; human forces besides greenhouse gases; ocean currents; planetary motion; and solar variability (Bast, 2010). Understanding of such scientific theories is beyond the comprehension of small holder farmers. For instance, underlying religious connotations make communities believe that climate change is due to “divine” anger rather than man-made (Lambert 2011). The diversity in theories and perceptions calls for localized studies such as the one this paper is based on. This paper contributes to the overall essence of strengthening community understanding of climate risk at the local level.

**Methodology**

A questionnaire survey was undertaken through a semi-structured questionnaire, which was administered in a face to face interview with 200 respondents at their homesteads. The questionnaire included both open and closed ended questions to collect demographic data and data on individual perceptions of weather and climate variability and livelihoods. Other data collection methods included Focus Group Discussions and key informant interviews. Case studies were employed to triangulate data and to give evidence of impacts of climate variability on livelihoods.

Household sampling was based on the AGRITEX assumption of 1000 households per ward thereby targeting 10% households per ward (100 households per ward, n=200 for the study). Enumerators systematically selected every fourth household as they traversed across the ward. In addition two FGDs, one with 8 adults (2 males and 6 females) and the other with fifteen adults (4 males and 11 females) to elicit perceptions on weather, climate, livelihoods from a communal perspective and their adaptive capacities through brainstorming.
The study was carried out in Gutu district of Masvingo province (see Figure 1) in two wards: Magombedze ward 12 and Mazuru ward 13 of Gutu districts of Masvingo province in Zimbabwe. The selected wards are located in the semi-arid area of the district described as natural region IV (Moyo et al., 2012). Natural region IV is characterised by annual rainfall of between 450-650 mm and is subject to seasonal droughts and severe dry spells during the rainy season.

Figure 1: Location of the study wards in Gutu

This paper is informed and guided by a set of frameworks including the sustainable livelihoods framework of DFID, 2001 complimented by the Climate
Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis (CVCA) of CARE, 2009 (Daze et al., 2009). The CVCA framework provides a framework for analyzing vulnerability and capacity to increase resilience to climate variability at local level, (Daze, Ambrose, Ehrhart, 2009), on the other hand the sustainable livelihoods framework, helps to understand how people access and control various mixes of resources and activities. This study combined the two analytical frameworks in order to elicit community perceptions on climate variability and their adaptive capacity.

Livelihoods in Gutu

Consistent with the researchers’ finding that rain fed agriculture is the major source of food (88%) and income (39%) (Table 2), there is a body of literature that asserts that agriculture remains the dominant livelihood strategy in Africa. When dissected into specific livelihood activities, it is apparent that vegetable and poultry production are important sources of income more than of food. This suggests that a livelihood strategy may have different values for food and income at different times. Crop production under rain fed agriculture still remains the major source of food and income. Farmers in Gutu are mostly engaged in dry land crop production and livestock production, poultry production, and vegetable production as sources of livelihoods. However the diversity in sources of income indicates how farmers spread their safety nets due to climate variability.

| Table 2: Respondents’ main sources of food and income |
|---------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                                 | Food Frequency n=200 | % Responses | Income Frequency n=98 | % Responses |
| Rainfed agriculture             | 176               | 88           | 38               | 39           |
| Vegetable production            | 6                 | 3            | 28               | 29           |
| Livestock rearing               | 6                 | 3            | 8                | 8            |
| Poultry keeping                 | 5                 | 2.5          | 17               | 17           |

Source: FGD data
Perceptions regarding key issues affecting community livelihoods in Gutu

Perceptions on issues challenging communities in Gutu encompass both non-climatic and climatic stressors as major risks to community livelihoods (see Table 1 and Figure 1). These challenges are categorised into biophysical and socio-economic stressors as presented in Box 1. The indication is that both categories of stressors are important to understand for key considerations in promoting rural livelihoods. Non-climatic stressors are more varied and appear to point more towards the importance of vegetable gardening as an important livelihood strategy. This is consistent with the finding that vegetable gardening is an important source of income for these communities as highlighted in the preceding section. Communities highlight the need to ensure water for food production, which has been affected by reduced water levels in the local dams, lack of markets for vegetables and the limited protection around vegetable gardens in the community.

While perceptions (see Figure 2) indicate that there may be a serious problem with rainfall patterns (87%), also consistent with previous studies (Manyani, 2013; Moyo et al, 2012), it is also apparent that the non-climatic stressors are also varied and some of them actually a consequence of the biophysical stressors. The associated challenges are expressed in terms of livelihoods capital assets that are mostly vulnerable to climate variability and these are natural, social capital, financial capital and the physical capital asset. Although Gutu community has a strong human capital asset the adaptive capacity is compromised due to limited access to other livelihoods assets such as financial capital and physical capital assets.

The researchers find that consistent with previous studies such as the one conducted by Lambert (2011), communities perceptions regarding causes of...
climate change in Gutu are to a large extent influenced by underlying religious connotations that make communities believe that climate change is due to socio-cultural and religious reasons (50%) more than human activity (24%) and natural/seasonal changes (12%) as illustrated in Figure 3. The researchers suggest that diversity in responses on trends and causes to climate change indicates that communities appreciate that there is no one single cause to weather and climate variability. We also suggest that solutions to climate risk should take into account the religious and cultural beliefs to encourage stewardship of natural resources at the same time mitigating the effects of climate variability.

**Box 1: Stressors to community livelihoods**

**Biophysical factors**
- Unpredictable start of season. “we have lost sense of seasons”
- Depleted water levels in dams
- Lack of watering points for livestock

**Socio-economic factors**
- Lack of funds
- Lack of cooperation: group dynamics
- Lack of markets for vegetables
- Donor dependency
- Unprotected gardens

Source: FGDs (Gutu 2014)

**Perceptions on climate variability impacts on livelihoods in Gutu**

The researchers highlight that there are differential impacts of variability on men and women, highlighting the existing gender inequalities that characterize the
African patriarchal societies and that have a bearing on women vulnerability to climate risk (Denton 2002; 2012). The case studies (see Boxes 2 and 3) provide different perceptions on impacts of weather and climate variability on household livelihoods from a gender perspective. Women headed households report more impacts affecting both productive and reproductive roles. The human capital asset for women was more compromised in terms of health issues and more time allocated for household chores such as fetching water from long distances. The case study gives evidence to the fact that the impacts of weather and climate change are more severe on women farmers according to United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC, 2013). For instance, what is important for women are issues concerning their reproductive role in ensuring that there is adequate food for the family in the home (see Box 2). While men are mostly concerned with the availability of natural capital assets in general, women link this to availability of water for domestic use and them having to walk long distances to fetch water when water levels are down.

Figure 2: Perceptions of changes in major climate parameters

Source: FGD data
Although our findings indicate differences in men and women perceptions, generally the human capital is less vulnerable as the community has relatively more access to information to deal with climate variability. This could be attributed to project influence and the thrust of extension in training and building human capacity in weather related issues. Less capacity was reported in terms of physical capital and natural capital.

**Box 2: Thoughts from a female respondent**

**Human capital**
- Health of communities was compromised due to extreme weather events
- Women have to travel long distances to fetch water because water supplies dry early in the year

**Natural capital**
- Distance to watering points for domestic water use has increased. The main water source which was 500m away from the homestead dried up in 1992 due to both cultural and weather related causes to the drying up. Currently, the nearest water source for domestic use is more than a kilometer from the homestead.

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**Figure 3: Perceptions of causes of changes in major climate parameters**

Source: FGD data
• Low maize production due to premature drying up of crops. The choice of crop varieties has changed from medium season seed co SC 513 variety 10 years ago to more drought tolerant varieties such as Pioneer 3253

Source: FGD data

Box 3: Thoughts from a male respondent

**Human capital**
- The household is not normally affected as he abides by extension messages from extension agents. However in the community if the problem of unpredictable weather patterns persists the future generation will be adversely affected due to reduced sources of water and increased chances of food insecurity

**Natural capital**
- Sources of water are limited due to poor management of natural resources that has caused siltation of rivers
- Seasons that starts late result in short rainy seasons thus impacting on food security.

Source: FGD data

Adaptive capacity of Gutu community

The researchers suggest that while communities may face a multiplicity of challenges that endanger these communities' livelihoods, it is always prudent to consider what opportunities communities already have that can enhance adaptive capacity and reduce vulnerability to climate risk. We find that indeed communities in Gutu do have opportunities in capital assets that they can take advantage of to strengthen their resilience (see Table 3). Researchers emphasise the importance of these opportunities within the capacity and vulnerability assessment. The studied community in Gutu has more opportunities in the access and control of the human and natural capitals.
The knowledge in climate information is essential in deciding how to use available natural resources, (Daze et al., 2009).

Table 3: A summary of community capacity and vulnerability in Gutu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Livelihood asset</th>
<th>Opportunities/Capacity</th>
<th>Constraints/Vulnerability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human capital</strong></td>
<td>-Knowledge and experiences in; (small grain production, rearing of road runners – traditional poultry, gardening projects, credit and saving schemes, traditional extraction of butter and oil) -Access to borehole water -Ability to conserve stover for livestock -Good health</td>
<td>-Lack of self-esteem, self-pity -Corruption and laziness -Negative attitude towards farming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Natural capital</strong></td>
<td>-Availability of indigenous fruit trees for food security -Available alternate sources of food such sweet potatoes -Gathering insects for food “kujuruja majuru” -Livestock production -Gardening projects and access to water until October of every year.</td>
<td>-Available water sources are not adequate to meet community requirements throughout the year. -Land degradation -Siltation -Deforestation -Weather related constraints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial capital</strong></td>
<td>-Alternate sources of income- brewing traditional beer -Rearing of poultry for sale -Hiring out labour for income -Selling of firewood -Local credit and Savings clubs “FUSHAI”</td>
<td>-Limited of funds to start projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Social capital
- Projects – Fish ponds
- Ongoing project on pass on schemes with ought donor intervention.

- Donor dependency
- Lack of cooperation in the community
- Community members looking down upon each other

Physical capital
- Schools
- Clinics

- Markets and transport
- Limited of markets for livestock, vegetables and fish
- Unprotected gardens – no fence

The argument on capacity and access to capital assets is based on the fact that, the more capacity the household has the better (MG, 2010), its adaptive capacity. The adaptive capacity is related to the social and human capital especially the functioning of extension systems. Based on this argument, the study results indicated that the households had more access to human capital assets than physical and natural assets, yet most agricultural interventions strive to solve the biophysical challenges without tapping on the social capital assets. Yet, social capital assets are essential within the community for improved community decision making.

Conclusions

Researchers conclude that community perceptions are an integral part of the community’s livelihoods. Understanding community challenges to livelihoods is a complex process that requires a lens focusing on both non-climatic and
climatic stressors as major risks to community livelihoods. We emphasise both biophysical and socio-economic stressors as key considerations in promoting rural livelihoods. Researchers emphasise that social capital assets are essential within the community for improved community decision making. An appreciation of communities’ capacities and constraints is an important step in designing appropriate climate extension methods and appropriately aligning agricultural interventions with community capacities to solve biophysical challenges by tapping on the critical capital assets.

Acknowledgements

Data for this paper was gathered through an Oxfam GB, department of Agricultural Technical and Extension Services-AGRITEX, Meteorological Services Department-MSD and Chinhoyi University of Technology joint project on climate change adaptation and strengthening dissemination of climate information carried out in three districts of Gutu, Zvishavane and Chirumanzu from 2012 to March 2015.

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