

Chapter 3: Anchoring Territoriality and Spatiality into Green, Responsible and Sustainable Tourism Practice in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

This chapter aims at contributing towards the understanding of the challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism. The point of departure in putting across this debate is that tourism always happens in a space and territory, that is either rural or urban. Nevertheless, a dissection towards an understanding of the dynamics and their implications in the planning and development of these areas towards the achievement of each of these aspects of the dichotomy is little understood. The purpose of the chapter is to differentiate the requirements including looking into the needs of the rural areas and those of the urban. Using the multi-case method approach, the chapter seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the rural and the urban situations of tourism and how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. It is observed that achieving green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is a matter of ensuring that the matrix is filled up to include benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology, financing and corporate will being the mainstays for achieving this goal. Benchmarking includes appropriating the best standards in green and sustainable tourism globally and regionally and seeing how they fit or fail to fit with the aim of plugging the gap. Social ecology involves understanding the interface between what tourists visit to see against the fulfilment of the needs of the communities surrounding the attractions (in terms of access, control, ownership and utilisation). Financing is about that putting financial resources into the projects with the view of seeing them implemented and well monitored. Corporate will is about organisations involved being able to accept public policy and related instruments towards achieving responsible tourism. Overall, this chapter is about answering how communities and organisations (including businesses and government agencies) are putting resources towards achieving green, responsible and sustainable tourism in rural and urban Zimbabwe.

INTRODUCTION

The impact of tourism on the environmental, social and cultural characteristics of a destination has long been a matter of discussion in international debate and has triggered the search for alternative forms of tourism development. It gave the consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implying thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. This chapter is a contribution towards the understanding of the challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism. The main thrust of putting across this discussion is that tourism always happens in a space and territory, that is either rural or urban. However, in the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for sustainable tourism for both rural and urban areas, careful attention should be given to identifying investment and livelihood opportunities that can be built. This can help to answer how communities and organisations (including businesses and government agencies) are directing resources towards achieving green, responsible and sustainable tourism in rural and urban Zimbabwe.

The methods chosen to carry out this study were desktop study, case study approach and thematic content analysis. By using the multi-case method approach, the chapter seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the rural and urban situations of tourism and how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. Secondary data was based on document analysis. A review of the international literature on tourism in both rural and urban setups and the context in which it takes place globally, regionally and Zimbabwe, in particular, was done. The reviews were meant to establish current trends in other countries, be it developing or developed.

This chapter is organised as follows: the first part of the study is a review of the theoretical framework. It provides the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The second part of the study is the literature review. It looks at the published work in books, journals, case studies and other publications in relation to the study area. The third part of the study sets out the research methodology. It specifies the research methods and techniques used. The fourth part is concerned with the presentation and analysis of the research findings and trying to evaluate the conceptual issues in light of the research findings. The last part of the chapter is basically concerned with the summary of work, conclusions and recommendations.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section explains various theoretical terms in relation to the context of this study, namely place, territoriality, spatiality and rurality versus urbanity. Location is a key concept in tourism sector analysis, given the dependence of this activity on the natural, built, cultural and social characteristics of a certain territory. Tourism is a sector whose final motivation depends largely on enjoyment or carrying out activities linked to resources that, in many cases, are geographical/territorial, or involve geographic relationships. This entails a series of features such as the impossibility of moving many of these tourist resources, as they are relational and idiosyncratic, namely they are linked to a specific time (culture) and space (geography) (Barrado, 2014). Geographers have a long-standing interest in tourism planning and development (Hall and Page, 2014). The tourism industry operates as a link and medium between local and larger spatial scales and socio-economic and environmental systems. Arguably, these core – periphery/global – local relations, often characterised by inequalities and uneven power structures, call for critical tourism and planning geographies (Saarinen *et al.*, 2017). The consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implies thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. When it comes to tourism, consumers must go to the location as the services provided cannot be moved. These specific services are built around resources that stem from cultural, aesthetic, entertainment or recreational values that can neither be moved nor accumulated (Barrado, 2014). Undeniably, destinations become the stage for the interaction of touristic stakeholders, who build their products based on the geographic characteristics of the destination and the relationships they establish with other institutional and economic agents.

As a result, the tourist zoning is an important instrument for delimiting tourist areas in accordance with multiple criteria, to lay the foundations for finding the most suitable solutions of turning to good account the resources in this field (Constantin *et al.*, 2018). Spatial planning strategies operating at multiple scales have, in the last decade, come to be viewed as key policy instruments for effective territorial governance (Albrechts *et al.*, 2003; Vigar, 2009). Informed by the emergence of radical relational approaches to the theorisation of socio-spatial relations recent thinking on space, place and scale, has led to a fundamental questioning of the traditional and long-established notion of the “region” as a “closed”, “bounded” and territorial entity (Pike, 2007: 1144).

The debate surrounding the development of social and economic tourist activities is, therefore, based above all on analysing a territory, understood as:

the set of material and immaterial values, such as people, culture, historical legacy, urban and artistic heritage, infrastructures, localisation and any other type of situation that can increase the value of the single parts (Kotler *et al.*, 1993: 93).

A territory can be analysed through several different keys, emphasizing certain aspects, in particular those concerning the economic fabric and the demographic structure of the territory, or its natural, landscape-based and cultural resources. If these are intrinsically consistent resources, in both quantitative and qualitative terms, this naturally influences the local development processes, where they can help to achieve competitive goals, such as economic growth and social well-being. Well-being and tourism development are clearly interrelated (Heather *et al.*, 2016). Tourism development induces changes on the social character of a destination. Such changes affect the sustainable development of the destination and the relationship between hosts and tourists. Social carrying capacity, that is the maximum visitor density in an area at which the tourists still feel comfortable and uncrowded, needs to be managed carefully if a community is to continue benefiting from tourism and minimising the negative effects of tourism (Tarlow, 2014). Monterrubio *et al.* (2012) argue that crime, alcoholism and prostitution could also become issues of unstable social environment.

The influence of territory as a significant variable, pointing out that there is competition between territorial destinations to attract external investment, obtain market share or of their productive role in the division of work on the national or international scale. In this sense, the concept of territorial competitiveness is justified based on two different approaches for the concept of territory. There is a conceptualisation that could be called “traditional” and that is based on the importance that the territory has, as a dependent variable, in the provision of resources and production factors that companies could use individually. It could be said that this is based on “the role that territory plays in providing competitive environmental tools to individual companies” (Camagni, 2002: 2395). Indeed, the most traditional approach attributed to the territory from economic geography accepts the fact that the territory is part of the productive process, whether as fixed capital assets —generally understood as the land occupied by the various processes. Moreover, and essential for this more traditional vision, the territory must also be understood as a space - time

of access, either as the origin of resources or markets and depending on this, as cost. This forces one to take into consideration significant concepts for business and territorial competitiveness such as location and accessibility.

The second aspect that justifies the existence of true territorial competition is much more novel. It is a matter of understanding the territory and the resources that are available, such as historic, cultural and socially constructed facts and not just as pre-existing physical-natural realities (Barrado, 2014). Based on this new assessment, the territory is starting to be seen as an essential factor,

in the processes of knowledge accumulation and in the development of interpretative codes, models of cooperation and decisions on that the innovative progress of local companies is based (Camagni, 2014).

This conception of territory as a socially constructed fact gives it an enormous complexity and explanatory potential, among other aspects, from the standpoint of its role in the way production is organised and, in the generation and dissemination of innovation. In fact, while mass production is, to a great extent, supported by generic resources that tend to be evermore ubiquitous and mobile, new developmental models are based on specific resources, anchored and unmoved to the extent that their value is based on a set of environmental, social and cultural relationships that depend on a territorial basis (Albertos *et al.*, 2004). Thus, the consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implies thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. The second fundamental conceptual step is where applying economic management models to a tourist destination results in a “place” being defined as a “product” (Solima and Minguzzi, 2014).

The terms “urban” and “rural” are applied according to the space density of inhabitants, even though they are multifaceted and the term “rurality”, for example, is not easily defined (OECD, 1994). In a broader sense, urban environments are considered to be characterised by the predominance of economic sectors, secondary and tertiary education to higher levels, increased access to services and information, an attenuated sense of community, the greater spread of liberal and progressive ideas, lower fertility of the population, shorter average lives and higher proportions of immigrants. Urban tourism activity can be either integrated into the urban fabric or confined to distinct urban tourist zones. These geographic areas, that are planned and

managed for tourists, have been described by such terms as “tourist bubbles” (Judd and Feinstein, 1999). Tourism, in urban areas, is a spatially selective activity with tourist nodes or precincts clustered unevenly throughout a city (Pearce, 2001). The number of tourist nodes depends on both the size and geomorphology of a destination. Tourist nodes can be focused around icon attractions, shopping and business precincts or anchored by hotels (Pearce, 1998). But even though tourism may be perceived as a dominant facet of such zones, in reality it may not be the primary activity and tourists may not be the central user group (Ashworth and Page, 2011). Various commentators have pointed out that the use of culture to advance a range of social and economic goals is most apparent in cities (Griffiths, 2006); and urban arts festivals have proliferated to a greater degree than any other type (Pejovic, 2009). In the last 20 years, countless arts festivals have been staged in the interest of invigorating urban economies, regenerating entire cities or city districts and introducing or repositioning cities on the evermore competitive global stage (Yardimci, 2007).

Alternatively, rural settings are more devoted to primary activities, to agriculture and forests, inhabited by a population with a lower level of education, with less access to services and information, a greater sense of community, increased fertility, longer average lives, densification of traditional ideas and resistance to innovation, depopulation and high rates of migration to developing countries (Lall *et al.*, 2006). The expression “urban planning” is to be understood in its broadest sense – that is, the planning of man-made environments, indicating that there is still a degree of separation between urban and non-urban, that could be defined as the “urban-rural divide” (Scott *et al.*, 2007). Faced with the persistence of the “urban-rural divide”, the concept of rurality in Europe has become more complex because of the many tasks assigned to agriculture (including forestry) by recent common policy (Van Huylenbroeck *et al.*, 2007) and the actual European “mixture” between urban and rural ways of life.

Rural tourism development is a negotiated process involving several social actors: individuals, groups and organisations who interact to reach their own ends through negotiations with other social actors (Verbole, 1999). Consequently, understanding how rural tourism development evolves, requires answers to such questions as: Who initiates the development process?

How are terms of development negotiated? Who participates in such negotiations? Who benefits or loses from the process? Rural development is often determined and planned by outside social entities (governmental, quasi-public agencies, etc.) with only a few cases documented where local communities themselves initiated tourism development (Long, 2013). Considering the multitude of tourism impacts and the need to address them, it is clear that to define sustainable tourism, one needs to take into account the diverse and fragmented nature of the industry and that any attempt towards sustainable tourism practices needs a united and coordinated effort among all parties involved. Therefore, sustainable tourism must be the collective and conscious effort of all tourism businesses, governmental policy-makers and planners and key stakeholders (the society, the non-governmental organisations (NGO)s, the community-based organisations (CBOs) and the tourists) to prioritise environmental and social issues in their daily undertakings. This definition precludes the idea that tourism impact management is solely the responsibility of one key tourism player or the government alone, because without cooperation from the numerous and diverse key stakeholders in tourism, any move towards sustainable tourism would seem incomplete. Table 1 presents the different concepts that define the relationship between the environment and tourism. The concepts shown in the table are derived from the sustainable development definition and have specific similarities and differences between themselves.

Table 1 *A typology of concepts applied to the relationship between the environment and tourism (Aall, 2014)*

Level of environmental awareness	Environment-sensitive tourism (reducing environmental impacts of tourism)	Environment-dependent tourism (utilising the environment as a resource basis for tourism)
Narrow	Green tourism	
	Environmentally-friendly tourism	Nature-based tourism
Deep	Eco-tourism	
	Sustainable tourism	Slow tourism
Broad	Geo-tourism	
	Alternative tourism	Rural tourism

Sustainable tourism is an approach to minimise the impact of tourism on the host community and destination, while trying to generate income and employment through tourism (Harrison, 2008). The approach got international

recognition and support with the World Conference on Sustainable Tourism, held on the island of Lanzarote in 1995. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) defines sustainable tourism as:

tourism that leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological process, biological diversity and life support systems (World Travel and Tourism Council *et al.*, 2015).

The key aspects of sustainable tourism are environmental sustainability, cultural sustainability and economic or developmental sustainability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this section is to contribute towards the understanding of challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. The literature provides an insight to the reader towards an understanding of the moral premise of rural and urban tourism and how financing and benchmarking standards were used in other countries. The review goes further, showing the present gaps in our knowledge about the capabilities of such a mechanism being applied to a Zimbabwean scenario.

The profound and rapid changes that have taken place in the world in the past two decades have been mirrored in changes in tourism. Global political and economic reorganisations have resulted in the expansion of tourism both in a spatial sense and in terms of a significant increase in the size of the tourist market. Although these changes have been rapid and, in many cases, not anticipated, they have not had revolutionary effects upon tourism; rather, they have enabled it to grow in an evolutionary fashion (Butler, 1999). From both praxis and theoretical perspectives, the intangible and tangible manifestations of Indigenous tourism development have gained an academic following since the mid-20th century.

The mass tourism phenomena that emerged in the mid-twentieth century made tourism a growing feature in European cities from various aspects. Changes in the environmental sphere, however, appear likely to be more fundamental and even revolutionary in terms of their effects upon tourism, perhaps because they have been slower in coming to the fore and could be viewed as long overdue (*ibid.*). Geographers have long been interested in the relationships between tourism and the environments, both physical and human, in which it operates and it is logical that they would be particularly interested in the

discussion and application of sustainable development in the context of tourism. The extent and scope of tourism growth raises a question about its negative environmental and social impacts. By nature, tourism offerings depend greatly on environmental and cultural resources. As the industry offers predominantly resource-based activities that constantly interact with the natural systems, tourism has the capacity to initiate significant changes in the physical environment (Wahab and Pigram, 1997; Hassan, 2000).

The inevitable link between tourism and the physical and social environments implies that tourism's survival depends highly on its ability to minimise its negative impacts on these environments and societies. In other words, the quality of tourists' interaction will be diminished considerably if the natural setting of a tourism activity is polluted, degraded or loses its aesthetic qualities as a result of a poorly planned tourism development. The field of Tourism Studies has given substantial attention to the issue of sustainability since the late 1980s. However, despite the plethora of publications, conferences, plans and strategies that deal with sustainability, tourism is arguably less sustainable than it has ever been. Høyer (2008) has noted that tourism practices presenting themselves as environmentally-friendly, using headings like "eco-tourism", "green tourism", "sustainable tourism" and the like, have a tendency to imply longer travel distances to more remote places and more frequent use of air and private car transportation than the "standard" forms of tourism. The relationship between tourism and the environment has been greatly discussed, with the roots of this discourse reaching back to the very start of the tourism industry itself (*ibid.*).

Early works, with varying degrees, have been underpinned by the principles of sustainability and thus often espoused development that not only facilitates the economic well-being of indigenous peoples and ensures conservation of Indigenous cultural landscapes and the environment, but also (and above all), ensures tourism development is used as a positive opportunity for enhancing the social, cultural and place identity of indigenous peoples (Amoamo and Thompson, 2011; Lemelin *et al.*, 2013). These researchers explored issues around economic prosperity, tensions associated with the marketing of culture, enhancement of the socio-economic well-being of indigenous peoples and challenges within the broader contexts of environmental, economic, social and cultural sustainability when pursuing sustainable livelihoods. The shared global experiences of indigenous businesses were explored by Fletcher *et al.* (2016). Their paper presents a comparative review of Australian and North American international case studies of indigenous tourism ventures utilising

policy reviews, stakeholder interviews and on-site observations. They conclude that “best practice” approaches to sustainable development are dependent on the local context and stress the need for broader governing enablers (i.e., policy and land tenure), opportunities for collaboration that empower indigenous stakeholders and increase diversity within indigenous tourism product development.

Pereiro’s (2016) ethnographic fieldwork offers insights into Latin American indigenous communities with lessons from a specific case study on the Guna sustainable tourism model. The chapter conceptualises trends in Latin American indigenous tourism and debates best/bad practice arising from cultural commodification before presenting reflections and findings from collaborative anthropological fieldwork conducted in Guna Yala from 2003 to 2013. The Guna (1996) “Statute of Guna Tourism” enabled the Guna people to respond to growing visitor numbers via indigenous-led planning and monitoring of the visitor sector (Pereiro *et al.*, 2012). Thus, the community could respond through involvement in the provision of accommodation, activities and retail development. While the Guna may shape tourism, rather than being shaped by tourism, they still grapple with social and environmental challenges. Pereiro (*ibid.*) also observes cultural changes being shaped by factors other than tourism.

Reggers *et al.* (2016) undertook a longitudinal study (between 2004 and 2014) on the establishment of the Kokoda Trail in Papua New Guinea. Their richly informed paper critiques the implementation of a CBT approach to sustainable development, utilising participatory rural appraisal (PRA) techniques such as social mapping, where villagers could record amenities and plan tourism infrastructure. The authors express the need to be culturally and politically aware and utilising cautious approaches when collaborating with communities to ensure that planning (including their own adaptation of CBT and PRA within a Papua New Guinea context) is not merely adopting the latest “trend” or using development “buzzwords”. Issues of community rivalry, community dependency and the long-term commitment of Indigenous tourism researchers in a participatory planning process are also detailed within the paper.

Whitney-Squire (2016) presents a collaborative study that was undertaken with the Haida First Nation people of Haida Gwaii in British Columbia, Canada. Whitney-Squire discusses the significance of language to sustaining

indigenous communities and culture whilst, through language-based tourism initiatives, connecting individual indigenous peoples with their collective identity. Whitney-Squire examined related issues of empowerment and product development, self-identification and cultural integrity, not only with the Haida, but also with the Maori people of New Zealand and Hawaiians. She alerts readers to the culturally laden, multi-dimensionality of language and warns that whilst language can enhance or be central to tourism product development that revitalises community culture, caution is needed to ensure language is not stripped of its meaning and thus used out of context.

Hillmer-Pegram (2016) explores tourism impacts, particularly the burgeoning cruise tourism sector), on the values of the indigenous Inupiat people of Barrow, Alaska. Drawing on literature from sustainable tourism, indigenous tourism and the radical political economy of tourism, the chapter presents data that are analysed using a theoretical framework that examines issues around spaces of confluence and divergence with tourism development, tourists and the Inupiat. Shultis and Heffner (2016) examined indigenous management involvement in a co-managed national park in the Yukon Territory of Canada. It explores new approaches to integrate traditional ecological knowledge and cultural values that can inform decision-makers and protected area managers planning the conservation of biological diversity. The future role of indigenous peoples in the management of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism in protected areas is the focus and they examine the barriers to conservation discourses that enable meaningful engagement by indigenous peoples. Indigenous tourism, underpinned by the principles of sustainable development, arguably provides opportunities to realise unique, often innovative, developments or management approaches that can be very beneficial to indigenous peoples.

Indeed, the increasing tourist flows have served to irrevocably alter many contemporary cities. Numerous airports, for instance, have been transformed from mere landing strips with small terminals into massive complexes that include shopping malls, hi-tech industrial parks and hotels (Gottdiener, 2000). Historical cities have become magnets for tourism to such an extent that their physical and social carrying capacities are actually placed in jeopardy (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). Tourism works as a socio-spatial regime of transformation in everyday life in places around the world (Stein, 2008). Tourism destinations are replete with spatial configurations that include legal and property rights frameworks, itineraries, land-use regulations, enclosures,

ecologies and set ideas about who is a tourist, what is tourable and what is desirable to the tourist eye. Touristic socio-spatial regimes define (in)appropriate and often (il)legal, tourable objects and subjects and attempt to regulate and transform socio-natural relations by direct coercion and repression (Devine and Ojeda, 2017). The commodification of places, identities and experiences in tourism heightens the spatial stakes, identity politics and territorial struggles in practices of production and consumption in different regions in the developing world.

Over the past decade, tourism in the developing world has expanded at a rapid rate and will continue to flourish in the foreseeable future. In 2005, the WTO estimated that international tourists spent US\$203 billion in the developing world (UNWTO, 2005). As well, “tourism was the primary source of foreign exchange earnings in the 50 least developed countries” (UNWTO, 2007: 4). The popularity of alternative forms of tourism, such as ecotourism and rural tourism, ensures that many of these tourists visit the rural areas of the developing world and encourages the industry to expand into more remote destinations. The effect of tourism development in rural areas has been a topic of interest not only to tourism researchers, but also to scholars in development studies, geography, anthropology, sociology and planning, among others.

Some scholars have asserted that ecotourism and other alternative forms of tourism may resolve the problems associated with local retention of revenues, as these tourists are typically interested more in experiencing local conditions and are thus more willing to patronise locally owned establishments (Hampton, 1998). However, critics have pointed out that problems still persist, perhaps in part because of an exploitative core-periphery relationship that can take place on an international scale (Britton, 1982), national scale (Weaver, 1998) and regional scale (Walpole and Goodwin, 2000). These studies have argued that less developed regions are frequently unable to take full advantage of tourism, as the more developed regions tend to own a majority of tourism businesses and less developed regions must import goods used in the tourism industry. Additionally, because the local communities in the periphery typically do not have the capital to create substantial businesses or the expertise to gain upper-level employment, they are often limited to menial labour or selling cheap crafts. This lack of local involvement often results in high external leakages that hinder economic development (Britton, 1982; Lindberg *et al.*, 1996; Lindberg, 1998). Rural areas are typically unable to

supply the tourism industry with the goods it needs to sustain itself at a competitive price. This requires goods to be imported from other areas.

In many respects, the imagined Africa has been strongly linked to wild environments and wilderness, that represents an opposite to culture and civilisation in Western thinking (Saarinen, 1998). The resultant domination of nature-based tourism activities has left local people and cultures in a relatively smaller role in tourism products. Thus, in the past, the position of cultural tourism occasionally was characterised as being a complement to wildlife, safari and wilderness tourism, rather than having its own distinctive profile and justification as a regional tourism product (Manwa, 2007). Currently, across southern Africa, cultural tourism is becoming more visible and important in the region's tourism development, including for the region's tourism policy-makers.

As Manwa, Moswete and Saarinen (2016) record, southern Africa is endowed with diverse cultural resources that include numerous ethnic groups, languages, communities, traditions, religions, archaeological sites, museums, industrial sites, townships, battlefields, San rock art paintings and carvings, rural landscape, cuisine, vineyards and other heritage resources (Tomaselli, 2012). As a result, nowadays several countries in the region see the promotion of cultural tourism as a viable strategy that can be used for poverty alleviation, inclusive growth and socio-economic development. Many African countries, including Botswana, Ghana, Mali, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, are using cultural tourism as a niche product to diversify their tourism economies (Rogerson, 2012).

Zimbabwe has a unique abundance of exceptional natural landscapes, fauna and flora that attract an emerging breed of domestic and international wildlife tourists who seek the experience of being able to explore an unspoilt ecosystem and its inhabitants. There is need to put urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice through appropriating the best standards in green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe and see how they fit or fail to fit with the aim of plugging the gap.

RESULTS

This section embarks on presentation, analysis and discussion of the research findings. The findings of the study are analysed following the dominant themes that emerged in the study. The main themes were benchmarking and

standardisation, social ecology, financing, corporate will and how communities and organisations mobilise resources. The findings and the discussion thereof are presented below.

BENCHMARKING AND STANDARDISATION

It is noted from the study that all certification programmes, no matter what they are certifying or what kind of criteria they use, should follow some set of best practice standards in terms of operational and procedural aspects. The sector was limping in terms of strategic direction and also without well-orchestrated development and an informed growth path resonating with one key centre of focus. This, in turn, had placed the nation and sector in a negative competitive advantage in the region (*Newsday*, 2018).

In line with benchmarking and standardising activities in the tourism industry the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MoTHI) submitted formal requests for support in aligning the Tourism Act [Chapter 14:20] with the Constitution. The project provided technical research support in the review of the Tourism Act [Chapter 14:20] for purposes of identifying legislative gaps that are inconsistent with the Constitution and international conventions and treaties relating to tourism that the Government of Zimbabwe is party to. The Tourism Act was regarded as inconsistent with the standards in the UNWTO, that the State has a legal obligation to implement and incorporate into legislation and policy in accordance with Section 34 of the Constitution. Gaps and issues identified in the Tourism Act were:

1. the definitions of tourism and tourist in the Act are inconsistent with the definitions in the UNWTO;
2. the Act does not adequately addressing internal tourism in a similar manner as in the global code of ethics for tourism of the UNWTO;
3. there are no guidelines in the Act by which the responsible Ministry can implement tourism ethics in the global code of ethics;
4. issues such as sustainable tourism, eco-tourism, among others, are not addressed in the Act that simply focuses on the establishment of the ZTA; and
5. the linkage between the national and local boards is not defined.

The Act should encompass issues to do with cultural tourism under the framework of “Culture” pronounced in section 16 of the Constitution (Stakeholder Consultation Report, 2015).

To ensure benchmarking and standardisation in the tourism sector, the National Tourism Master Plan was developed. The process was led by Keois Consultants, with funding from the African Development Bank. Consultation of over 1 000 people to come up with an implementable master plan was done. The National Tourism Master Plan had identified 11 development zones that include Bulawayo, Midlands, Victoria Falls, Mavhuradonha and Kariba and two national projects, the National Heritage Trails and the National Tourism Signage project that would enhance the visibility and uniqueness of Zimbabwe as a destination. The plan is expected to drive the growth and success of the sector in the next two decades and help attain the vision of Zimbabwe becoming one of the top five tourism destinations in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (*Newsday*, 2017). The target is to have the tourism sector improving its earnings from the current \$1 billion to over \$5 billion, with tourist arrivals expected to multiply to 12,5 million by 2035.

In line with the United Nations General Assembly designated 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development, Zimbabwe launched a Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development under the theme, *Travel, Enjoy and Respect* on June 2017. The global designation was used as a way of bringing all stakeholders together to exchange ideas to foster sound partnership to advance tourism for sustainable development and poverty eradication in Zimbabwe. A plethora of tourism certification programmes have sprung up in Zimbabwe to recognise tourism businesses that truly work to reduce negative impacts by using sustainable practices. Accreditation provides certification programmes with the legitimacy and credibility they need to differentiate their programmes and thus the certified tourism businesses, from others with weaker standards and may eventually lead to a shift of the tourism industry towards more sustainable practices. Since the tourism industry is so diverse, offering both products and services, and has such a far-reaching supply chain, certification across the industry is not an easy task in Zimbabwe. Most certification programmes have, therefore, focused on certifying lodging facilities that are at the heart of most tourists' vacations. A small but growing number of programmes certify other sectors of the tourism industry such as tourism operators, tour guides, parks, convention centres, golf courses and transport providers. Another challenge for the success of sustainable tourism certification is the difficulty in creating criteria that accurately measure triple bottom line standards of social, economic and environmental sustainability. Socio-cultural criteria are noted as being especially open to interpretation.

SOCIAL ECOLOGY

It is noted from the study that understanding consumer behaviour and, more specifically, tourist behaviour, helps organisations design their products and services, improve their strategies and satisfy their clients. Creating synergies between culture and tourism for permanent and temporary citizens is one more step for sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. As the spaces and administrative contexts in which culture, creativity and tourism most frequently, come together, rural and urban areas need to react to and increasingly direct such relationships. However, tourism is often blamed for producing negative sociocultural, ecological and economic impacts in Zimbabwe (Kabote, 2013). Community concerns and visitor satisfaction are psychological measures of tourism impacts that are collectively labelled as a people-centric approach, because communities or visitors set the limits of acceptable change. Being a subjective measure, the perception of impacts varies within and between communities and tourists, as they may have their own perceptions of impacts, or they may have different preferences about the nature of tourism development. For example, at Great Zimbabwe, there are at least four communities that are living in the ten-kilometre buffer zone. It is noted that acculturation and commoditisation of culture were major concerns raised from the communities who feared losing their traditional way of life (Marunda *et al.*, 2014).

FINANCING

The Government of Zimbabwe provided some incentives that were meant to support refurbishment and expansion programmes of tourism facilities. It was noted from the study that the \$15 million Tourism Revolving Fund was set up by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe as a way to undertake major renovations at Cresta Oasis, Cresta Lodge, Cresta Churchill in Bulawayo and Cresta Sprayview in Victoria Falls (*Herald*, 2017). The US Agency for International Development (USAID) provides financial assistance for tourism-related infrastructure and ecotourism activities as part of its economic development and environmental programmes. Development cooperation includes grants to governmental and non-governmental organisations, including technical assistance and provision of equipment. The European Community (EU) has led the way in providing support for the expansion of tourism in developing countries, including Zimbabwe. The British Department for International Development (DFID) underwent an evaluation of its role in tourism and decided to focus on nature tourism in particular. SNV, a Dutch development cooperation agency, also has been active in tourism over the years and has undergone internal consideration and discussion of desired involvement in this

field. SNV supports this kind of development through research, training, marketing and transfer of knowledge and finance (SNV, 2012). It was noted from the study that the major challenge for sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is lack of low-cost financing for the tourism sector. Tourism infrastructure development is limited by lack of capital, given the liquidity crunch in the economy and limitations with regards to offshore financing due to the country's external payment arrears. Furthermore, access to domestic credit remains constrained by the not so conducive lending tenures being offered by the market. For instance, it was noted that the average tenure of the lending, though improved from between 30 and 90 days in January 2010 to levels of 180 days, did not meet long-term borrowing requirements for capital expenditures. Such terms and conditions are not supportive of long-term capital investments. In addition, when funds are available, they are often prohibitively expensive compared to external borrowing. As of end of 2012, lending rates ranged from 10% to 35% per annum, compared to interest rates offered by some donor agencies, that are concessionary in nature, for example, the World Bank and some government-to-government facilities attract interest rates of below 2% over lengthy tenures. Hence, a deliberate effort should be put in place to resolve the enablers issue, that has become a challenge to the whole economy (World Bank, 2012).

CORPORATE WILL

This study shows heightened attention and enthusiasm to corporate social responsibility in the sector an escapable priority. Zimbabwe's Pamushana Lodge sounds alarmingly opulent. Malilangwe's Neighbour Outreach Programme spending on community projects totals over Z\$31m. The list of concrete achievements includes the construction of clinics and classrooms, the provision of bursaries to over 280 primary, secondary and tertiary students and the donation of textbooks worth the Z\$450 000 to schools (Siyabona Africa, 2017).

Corporates and organisations are providing support, research, education and training and campaigns on tourism and hospitality sustainability practices and procedures. These corporates are working with partners committed to moving the agenda forward in reducing the negative and enhancing the positive economic, environmental and social-cultural impacts of tourism and related industries. For example, Rainbow Tourism Group (RTG) has realised the benefits of adopting lasting solutions to social responsibility values programmes through engaging and participating in initiatives that add value not only to local communities, but to its business as well. The group continued

with its sponsorship drive in areas of environment and health. During the first quarter of 2010, the Kadoma Hotel and Conference Centre donated a water pump to Kadoma Provincial Hospital. The provision of the water pumps alleviated the plight of pregnant women and new-born babies in the Mashonaland West Province. The group, through Environment Africa was in 2010, awarded the 2009 Corporate Environment Award in recognition of its initiatives in raising awareness in local communities on the benefits of adopting environmentally sustainable practices. This initiative focused on the fundamentals of environmental awareness and advocated for a hands-on approach in the replenishing of trees in view of the desertification the country is faced with (Rainbow Tourism Group, 2010).

HOW COMMUNITIES AND ORGANISATIONS MOBILISE RESOURCES

Stakeholders have a role in continuing this form of sustainable tourism. This encompasses organisations and individuals. The private sector provides tourists and the tourism sector goods, facilities and services. They have the responsibility of specific infrastructure, accommodation services, specific activity in tourist attractions development and promotion through marketing activities. Local communities take part in identifying and promoting tourist resources and attractions that form the basis of community tourism development. Through the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme, empowerment and resident participation are considered essential. Some CAMPFIRE communities raise income by leasing land to tour operators such as the horseback safari company in Mavuradona. National Museums and Monuments in Zimbabwe (NMMZ) at Great Zimbabwe World Heritage site attempts to engage local communities in the management of the site through establishment of a local committee called Local Community Management Committee. These local people are usually the chief's representatives and are supposed to report back to the chief and the community of all developments at the site. However, communication between the trustees and the communities has not been effective and hence the relationship is not cordial. It is further argued that community participation in decision-making increases people's trust and confidence in the tourism industry. It also provides the local community with a voice in design and decision-making to improve plans, service delivery and, finally, promotes a sense of community by bringing together people who share common goals. The perceived hospitality of the local community is a major social factor forming part of the macro environment with regards to warmth of reception, ease of communication, willingness of residence to provide

information to tourists and attitudes towards tourists and the tourist industry (Nhuta, 2015).

It is observed that achieving green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is a matter of ensuring that the matrix is filled up to include benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology, financing and corporate will, being the mainstays for achieving this goal. From the study, it is noted that various pieces of legislation in place have a bearing towards access, control, ownership and utilisation. These pieces of legislation include the Constitution of Zimbabwe 2013, the Regional Town and Country Planning Act, the National Monuments Act, the Parks and Wildlife Act, the Rural District Councils Act, the Urban Councils Act, the Traditional Leadership Act and the National Tourism Master Plan. These pieces of legislation form the crux of putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe (*Herald*, 2017).

It is noted that the Constitution of Zimbabwe (Amendment Act 20) of 2013 is the supreme law of the country and all laws, practices, norms and values are subject to it. For purposes of tourism legislation, it is instructive that the obligations imposed by the Constitution are binding on every person, natural or juristic, including the State and all executive, legislative and judicial institutions and agencies of government at every level and must be fulfilled by them. It must be borne in mind that the State is enjoined by the Constitution to take measures to preserve, protect and promote indigenous knowledge systems, including knowledge of the medicinal and other properties of animal and plant life possessed by local communities and people. As such, it should be noted that each and every piece of legislation conforms to the principles of the Constitution, be it rural or urban areas, in a way to promote sustainable tourism.

Apart from the Constitution of Zimbabwe, it was also noted that the Regional Town and Country Planning Act (RTCPA) of 1976 (revised 1996) provides for standards and principles that determine who is supposed to practise what, how, where and when. The general framework of the RTCPA provides for the guideline of accessing and controlling, resources in both rural and urban areas. Part II Section 10-11 and Part IV, Section 13-21 of the RTCPA of 1976 provided for the preparation of master and local plans tourism areas. In the preparation of these plans, the responsible authorities are required by the Act to follow procedures that ensure that there is a large degree of conserving and improving the physical environment and in particular promoting health,

safety, order, amenity, convenience and general welfare. The essential theory is that all areas will have a statutory long-term plan and that all subsequent development will be managed and controlled in accordance with such plans. The RTCPA guides harmonious development in both rural and urban areas.

In addition, the National Museums and Monuments Act (Chapter 25:11) aims to provide for the preservation of ancient, historical and natural monuments, relics and other objects of historical or scientific value or interest. Through the Act, the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) administer monuments in the country. Like any other piece of legislation, the Parks and Wildlife Act plays a pivotal role on how access and control in parks and wildlife is undertaken. The Act laid the foundation for the initial and subsequent development of the wildlife industry in Zimbabwe. The passing of the National Parks and Wildlife Act devolved appropriate authority over wildlife to landowners and laid the foundation for private wildlife conservation in Zimbabwe. Through this Act, the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZIMPARKS) was established in 2001. The Authority is mandated to conserve Zimbabwe's wildlife heritage through effective, efficient and sustainable protection and utilisation of natural resources for the benefit of present and future generations.

It is noted that areas that require sustainable tourism lie in different jurisdictions. The Rural District Councils Act and the Urban Councils Act cater for rural and urban jurisdictions, respectively. The two acts provide for the setting up of urban/rural councils and or urban/rural settlements. For example, the Rural District Councils Act includes a schedule that clearly specifies the areas in which rural councils enjoy privileges of enacting legally binding by-laws.

Lastly, the Traditional Leadership Act provides for best practices in green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. It is enshrined in the Act that traditional leaders are the custodians of the areas under their jurisdictions. Traditional societies enforced wildlife conservation by discouraging indiscriminate killing of animals and birds. It was believed that wanton killing of wildlife was punishable by the spirits and control mechanisms were found in traditional taboos, totems and customs. Traditional taboos and customs enabled the people in pre-colonial Zimbabwe to live in harmony with nature by maintaining a healthy balance between them and their environment. However, the advent of colonialism in the last decade of the 19th century in Zimbabwe severely disrupted the harmony and close ties that had existed between

indigenous peoples and nature. The established colonial administration introduced protective and command type natural resource and wildlife conservation legislation to preserve once plentiful wildlife populations.

DISCUSSION

The findings point to a deep-seated lack of good governance within the Zimbabwean natural resource management system that renders some programmes inappropriate to context. Involvement of various actors in tourism has created confusion in all aspects of environmental governance, especially in the structure of the government in terms of which ministries, agencies and departments has control over what aspect of the environment or environmental management and the hierarchy of this governance. There is a further confusion about the policies in place in Zimbabwe, with many different actors from international to local scales attempting a plethora of different activities that frequently conflict, overlap or duplicate each other. This confusion is best shown at district level, where the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWM) give Appropriate Authority (AA) RDCs.

In the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for tourism, careful attention should be given to identifying investment and livelihood opportunities that can be built. In particular, green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice needs to be institutionally located in a way that allows it to play a role in putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective. Planning can and should play a significant role in overcoming governance fragmentation in public policy formulation and decision-making, since most national and local development policies and related investments in tourism have a spatial dimension. It can do this most effectively through building horizontal and vertical relationships using place and territory as loci for linking planning with the activities of other policy sectors, such as infrastructure provision. Therefore, regulatory power needs to be combined with investment and broader public-sector decision-making.

Spatial planning strategies operating at multiple scales have in the last decade come to be viewed as key policy instruments for effective territorial governance. Informed in particular by the emergence of radical relational approaches to the theorisation of socio-spatial relations recent thinking on space, place and scale, has led to a fundamental questioning of the traditional and long-established notion of the “region” as a “closed”, “bounded” and territorial entity. Considering the multitude of tourism impacts and the need to

address them, it is clear that to define sustainable tourism, one needs to take into account the diverse and fragmented nature of the industry and that any attempt towards sustainable tourism practices needs a united and coordinated effort among all parties involved.

CONCLUSION, POLICY OPTIONS AND PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter set to explore the gaps, that exist between urban and rural areas in Zimbabwe for sustainable tourism. Putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice requires planners to engage and work with the tourism industry, investigate issues related to governance and regulation and doing research for the tourism sector. The key issues that have been noted include the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for tourism, paying particular attention to benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology and financing. It is noted that sustainable tourism must be the collective and conscious effort of all tourism businesses, governmental policy-makers and planners and key stakeholders to prioritise environmental and social issues in their daily undertakings. It is concluded that the inevitable link between tourism and the physical and social environments implies that tourism's survival depends highly on its ability to minimise its negative impacts on these environments and societies.