Fundamentals

in Research
Proposal and
Thesis Writing:
A Practical Approach

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FOREWORD

Proposal and thesis writing are areas of research that have provided challenges to many students and scholars. However, the ability to identify, define and research an issue or problem impacting on education, business or society is a necessity for students undertaking undergraduate or postgraduate studies. Students are required to prepare scholarly research papers that examine in detail issues or problems and provide recommendations or solutions.

This book has therefore been written to address these challenges and provide guidelines for the preparation of scholarly research documents. It will aid in teaching and learning of business research methodologies in higher institutions of learning and research institutions. The book attempts to use various examples to illustrate basic issues in research methodology. The illustrations are drawn from studies done in the Zimbabwean context using qualitative and quantitative research methodologies though they are inclined to Tourism and Hospitality Management cases.

The authors invite readers' contributions, comments and criticism to improve the book. Contact vitalisbasera@yahoo.com or judymwenje@gmail.com. The authors acknowledge the invaluable services provided by various people.

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ABSTRACT OF THE BOOK

This book attempts to analyse the five major chapters in proposal and thesis writing. It also pinpoints how the references should be formulated. In the appendix readers are informed on ways of preparing effective budgets and work plans. This book is divided into eight major sections:

Preliminaries: This section gives a brief overview of what research is. It also defines a research proposal and thesis. Research variables are discussed. The types of research and their applicability are discussed. The section also discusses strategies in topic and title selection.

Introduction: This section discusses the first chapter of the research proposal and thesis. This includes background of the study, statement of the research problem, objectives of the study, research questions, justification of the study, scope of the study, limitations of the study, and the conceptual framework.

Literature Review: This section discusses the second chapter of the thesis. It pinpoints the importance of literature review in research. It also discusses qualities of an effective literature review, guidelines in formulating effective literature review and challenges faced in the formulation of a literature review.

Research Methodology: This section discusses the third chapter of the research proposal and thesis. It discusses the research philosophy and paradigm, research design, research site, study population, sampling, sampling design, target population (selection of respondents and participants), research instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

Data Analysis and Presentation: This section discusses the fourth chapter of the thesis. It defines data analysis and indicates pitfalls in data analysis and interpretation. The main methods of data analysis, qualitative and quantitative methods are highlighted giving different

data analysis tools appropriate respectively. Errors in data analysis and problems with interpretation are highlighted.

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations: This section discusses the fifth chapter of the research thesis. It points out ways of summarising, concluding and giving recommendations. Summary of the main findings is briefly discussed indicating methodological problems encountered in the study for other researchers to take relevant precaution in future studies. The conclusion is presented indicating what the study results reaffirm and clearly state how the study has contributed to knowledge. The recommendations section suggests solutions to the challenges at hand exposing further problems and introduces more questions suggesting how the study can be improved based on the study's findings.

References: This section pinpoints various ways of writing the reference section. The reference list should contain the most relevant and important publications. The two most common methods for citing published work are the number system and the name year system.

Appendices: This section is meant for information which may be of interest to the reader but not critical to the study. Information usually includes research instruments; copies of letters of respondents, tables, figures, the budget, and the work plan are discussed. Some things which are typically included in appendices are data files that are too large to be represented simply in the results chapters, pictures or diagrams of results and research instruments which are not important enough to keep in the main text.

CHAPTER 1: PRELIMINARIES

INTRODUCTION

Proposal and thesis writing are areas of research that have caused many challenges to scholars and researchers. These challenges are at times caused by the researcher's inability to clearly define what is expected in a research proposal or thesis. Proposal and thesis writing constitute part of the research process. This chapter, therefore, gives a brief overview of research proposal and thesis writing and the differences therein.

THE CONCEPT OF RESEARCH

The term 'research' means to look for, examine, investigate or explore. Research is the process of solving problems and finding facts in an organised way. According to Waltz and Bausell (1981) research is a systematic, formal, rigorous, and precise process employed to gain solutions to problems or to discover and interpret new facts and relationships. Kothari (2006) defines research as a pursuit of trust with the help of study, observation, comparison and experiment, the search for knowledge through objective and systematic method of finding solutions to a problem. Payton (1979) describes research as the process of looking for a specific question in an organised, objective, and reliable way. Kerlinger (1973) defines research as a systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena.

Research involves the following components:
1. **It is systematic.** Research attempts to solve problems whether social, economic, political, and cultural or health related in a systematic way. It is systematic in that a general system is followed. This involves identification of the problem, review of related literature and data collection. The process of data collection requires proper organisation and control so that the data will enable valid decisions to be made about the research problem at hand. This is followed by data analysis, conclusions and recommendations.
2. **It is objective.** Research attempts to find an objective, unbiased solution to the problem. Research involves gathering new data from primary sources (first-hand) and secondary sources (using

existing data). It attempts to find an objective unbiased solution to the problem.
3. It is based on **observable experience or empirical evidence.** It demands accurate observation and description.
4. It employs carefully **designed procedures** and **rigorous analysis**.

TYPES OF RESEARCH
Research can either be qualitative or quantitative.

1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH
Qualitative research is primarily exploratory research. It is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. It provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. Qualitative Research is also used to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem. Qualitative data collection methods vary using unstructured or semi-structured techniques. Some common methods include focus group discussions (FGDs), in-depth interviews, key informant interviews, and participation observation. The sample size is typically small, and respondents are selected to fulfil a given quota. Sometimes qualitative research is called naturalistic inquiry or field studies.

Table 1.1: Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research

Advantages of qualitative research	Disadvantages of qualitative research
☐ Rich, in-depth detail is possible (e.g., participants can elaborate on what they mean)	☐ Not always generalisable due to small sample sizes and the subjective nature of the research
☐ Perceptions of participants themselves can be considered (the human factor) Appropriate for situations in which detailed understanding is required	☐ Conclusions need to be carefully hedged
☐ Events can be seen in their proper context / more holistically	☐ Accusations of unreliability are common (different results may be achieved on a different day/with different people)

Qualitative research includes the following:
1. Ethnographies that are observation of groups.
2. Phenomenological studies which study subjects over a period of time through developing relationships with them and reporting findings based on research experiences
3. Case studies which use various data to investigate the subject over time and by activity.
4. Netnography which includes observation of behaviour of internet users online.

2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Quantitative research is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviours, and other defined variables and generalise results from a larger sample population. Quantitative research uses measurable data to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more structured than Qualitative data collection methods. Quantitative data collection methods include various forms of surveys – online surveys, paper surveys, mobile surveys and kiosk surveys, face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, longitudinal studies, website interceptors, online polls, and systematic observations. Quantitative research is often associated with the theory-testing.

Table1.2: Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research

Advantages of quantitative research	Disadvantages of quantitative research
☐ Larger sample sizes often make the conclusions from quantitative research generalisable ☐ Statistical methods mean that the analysis is often considered reliable ☐ Appropriate for situations where systematic, standardised comparisons are needed	☐ Does not always shed light on the full complexity of human experience or perceptions ☐ Can reveal *what / to what extent*, but cannot always explore *why* or *how* ☐ May give a false impression of homogeneity in a sample

3. *QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH*

Qualitative and quantitative approaches and researches are complimentary. Where appropriate, they should be combined to maximise the strength and minimise the limitations of each. For example, in a study on the enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level and rural communities in Zimbabwe (Marunda, 2014), the researcher used qualitative and quantitative methodologies to allow the limitations of each approach to be transcended by comparing findings from different perspectives. Population of the study was from four clusters (Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls). The sample of the study was derived from this population, face to face interviews were carried out and self-administered questionnaires were administered to different respondents.

Table 1.3: Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research

Qualitative	Quantitative
Depth of understanding	Level of occurrence
Asks 'how' and 'why?'	Asks 'how many' and 'how much'
Studies motivation	Studies events
Subjective	Objective
Enables discovery	Discovery and proof
Exploratory in nature	More definitive
Interprets	Describes

RESEARCH PROPOSAL

To propose means to put forward, suggest, intend or advise. Proposals therefore refer to suggestions, intentions, plans or schemes. A research proposal can consequently be referred to as a research plan, request or suggestion. It is a plan since it puts forward for consideration one's plan of intent. It is a suggestion as it attempts to persuade people reading to do something. This is either to fund a study, recommend that research should be carried out or to

recommend the implementation of a project. Therefore, a research proposal is a request to implement a programme/ study.

A research proposal includes the core elements of the four main chapters found in a thesis (Introduction, Review of related literature, Research methodology and Data presentation and analysis). The first chapter is introduction; it consists of the background to the study, statement of the research problem, purpose and objectives of the study, hypothesis, and conceptual or theoretical framework. The second chapter is the review of related literature while the third chapter deals with the research methodology and the fourth chapter presents the data collected and how it is analysed to give it meaning and sense to reach meaningful scientific conclusions. References and appendices are included at the end of the proposal. A research proposal is not written in chapters; however, its key elements are the ones that lead to the build-up of the thesis.

CRITICAL ELEMENTS OF A GOOD PROPOSAL
A good proposal clearly states:
    i.   What is being proposed and what the project is about?
    ii.   How it will be carried out?
    iii.   When it will be carried out?
    iv.   How much it will cost?

RESEARCH THESIS
A research thesis is a written scientific report that deals with concerns related to a problem or series of problems in one's area of research. A thesis consists of the first three chapters of the proposal, plus the research findings, conclusions and recommendations. The structure of the thesis includes the following:
Chapter one: Introduction
Chapter two: Literature review
Chapter three: Research methodology
Chapter four: Research findings
Chapter five: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations.

It also includes references and appendices. A thesis also includes an abstract. The past tense is used in the thesis. This a general guide, however on Chapter two, if it is a lengthy thesis, the literature review can extend to more chapters where each chapter will be reviewing literature as per given objective(s). Chapter three also can be split into more than one chapter according to one's methodology. For instance, if a mixed methodology is adopted in research, a chapter can be written up for each methodology used. Even Chapter 4 can be split into more than one chapter to show each type of data analysis used in different chapters and discussion separately. Hence, a thesis can have more than five chapters depending on the presentation style adopted in the write up.

The thesis paper should begin with an introduction of the subject matter being explored; provide background information related to the subject and provide the reader with information regarding the significance of the subject. The author should present the reader with supporting documentation that either proves or disproves the theory being presented. A discussion of the findings and conclusions sums up the paper. The final thesis report can only be written after data collection, analysis, conclusion and recommendations. The thesis focuses on presenting a unique and original idea to the audience that the author intends to prove. It should focus on issues of concern in society, particularly what is already known about the issues, what the author did about solving the problem, what the author thinks results mean, and where or how further progress in the field can be made. The author is expected, through the thesis to make an original contribution to human knowledge.

CRITICAL ELEMENTS OF A GOOD RESEARCH THESIS

Philip & Pugh (1994), Saunders *et al.* (2007) point out that a good thesis should have the following characteristics:

a) It should be contestable; that means, it should propose an arguable point with which people could reasonably disagree.
b) It should be provocative: it takes a stand and justifies the discussions and conclusions the author presents, but also allows

readers to analyse the findings and make their own conclusions either in support or against.

c) It should be specific and focused. There is systematic link from the research title, problem statement, objectives, data collection and analysis, and the conclusion.

d) It should be flexible. The evidence may lead one to a conclusion one did not expect.

e) It avoids vague language (like 'it seems') and avoids the first person ('I believe', 'In my opinion').

f) It should add to the existing body of knowledge.

TOPIC SELECTION

The term 'topic' refers to subject, issue or area under discussion. The topic one selects is essential to the success of the research project. This is mainly because one's interest in the topic will sustain research. If a researcher is interested in a particular area, he or she will enjoy reading material related to the subject and will put time and effort into work. The researcher will be keen on collecting the required data, analysing it and finding out results. All research requires painstaking thought, writing, and reading before the proposal or thesis is finalised. If the researcher is interested in the topic, this will be an exciting venture. It is therefore imperative that the researcher selects a topic that interests him or her. The following are some of the steps that should be followed when looking for a thesis topic.

i. IDENTIFY WHAT INTERESTS ONE IN AN AREA OF STUDY

There are many issues in life that may interest a researcher. These may be social, economic, health, political or cultural issues. However, it is important to identify a puzzling aspect in one's area of study. This not only enables the researcher to go in-depth in one's professional area, but also to defend the researched work with authority.

For example, in identifying an area of study student in the Tourism and Hospitality may be interested in outbound travel as to why people travel for holiday outside the country despite having better tourist attractions in the country. A student in the department of Business

studies may be interested to know why small business are not sustainable though the government supports the small businesses. An educationist may be interested in free primary education and school accessibility, retention and performance. A doctor may be interested to understand why, despite awareness creation on malaria prevention and the provision of mosquito nets to a certain district, malaria prevalence was still high. These are fertile grounds in which students can identify research topics.

ii. IDENTIFY KEY WORDS FOR TOPIC

The researcher should then focus on the real aspect interesting him or her and express in key specific words what the study will investigate. These words can include words representing the issue that has interested the researcher. For example, if the researcher has interests in outbound travel, the key words may be increase of outbound travel. Key words for the student in Business Studies Department may be failure of small businesses despite government support. The doctors key words may be awareness creation versus malaria prevalence. The researcher should think on what to concentrate on based on key words.

iii. DEFINE TOPIC

After identifying the keywords, the researcher wants to concentrate on, he or she must define the topic. Defining the topic involves analysing the selected words keenly. For example, on outbound travel the researcher must decide on what to concentrate on, whether it is causes, effects or the costs. At this point the researcher must filter and come up with the topic to be studied. For example, on the issue of primary education, the researcher may decide to concentrate on free primary education and student accessibility, or free primary education and student retention or free primary education and learner's performance or all of the above, thus analysing free primary education and school accessibility, retention and performance. The researcher must identify specifically what he or she wants to concentrate on. This enables the study to be focused.

iv.   FORMULATE THE TOPIC

After identifying and defining the topic, the researcher should formulate it. For example, the outbound travel in Zimbabwe. The researcher should search for articles and other materials relevant to the research topic. This information will assist the researcher develop clarity over topic selected. This will also assist the researcher in the formulation of the research problem later. The researcher should take notes, paraphrase and summarise what has been read on relevant materials. This will be included in the literature review. Relevant information related to the selected topic can be found in libraries or internet.

ELEMENTS OF A GOOD RESEARCH TOPIC

A good research topic has the following elements:

a) It is researchable: That means it is a subject where the research instruments can be easily formulated, and the study population sampled. The objective that will be formulated based on the topic are measurable.

b) It captivates the researcher: The topic selected should be one that the researcher has interest in.

c) It contributes to knowledge: A good research topic is one in which the researcher is aware that the findings of the study will contribute to the body of knowledge.

d) It is provocative: It is open to varied views and interpretations.

e) It is clear and focused: The topic is not vague or alien to the researcher.

f) It is broad but not too broad.

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED IN TOPIC SELECTION

Selecting a topic in research is essential and requires much care. This is because a topic selected has much influence on the success of the study. There are various challenges encountered in topic selection and some have resulted in researchers quitting the project halfway, or the project taking longer to be completed than anticipated. The following are some of the problems encountered in topic selection.

a) CHOOSING A TOPIC THAT IS TOO WIDE

A researcher may select a research area that is too wide and fail to limit the scope. This occurs due to underestimating the dimension of the topic. For example: *The Effects of Tourism.* This topic may be problematic since the effects of tourism vary by region and type of tourism. The effect of tourism in Zimbabwe specifically in Victoria Falls may be different to effect of tourism in Domboshava. The topic should contextualise city, country or continent. It may also be vague since the effect of tourism on politics may be different on its effect on environment. To avoid selecting a topic that is too wide, the researcher should be very clear and focused on what they want to research on. If it is issues related to effects of tourism, then they must be very certain on what they want to investigate in relation to tourism and make that focus on the study.

b) CHOOSING A TOPIC THAT IS TOO COMPLEX

At times a researcher may choose a topic that is too complex for research at the level of the student. This complexity is because some of the research may require large samples. For example, a study on Tourists' reaction to price increases may require a large population sample. A study on the lack of skilled labour in hospitality industry is complex in that it requires a clear definition of the term 'skilled' and 'hospitality industry'. A single researcher may not undertake this type of research. It may require different approaches, many a capital and expertise. This topic may present the researcher with problems particularly during data collection and analysis.

c) POOR TIMING

Most research work has limited time span for which data should be collected and presented. Failure to adhere to this may lead to disqualifications or penalties. Some topics, for example *Effects of Increase in Accommodation tax over five years* may not be feasible for a masters' programme. This is mainly because these programmes at most cover span of two years. If for some reasons, gathering information will take many months or even years, then the topic may

not be suitable, particularly if the researcher has a specific deadline to meet.

d) LIMITED ACCESSIBILITY TO MATERIALS AND RESPONDENTS

A particular topic may prove unsuitable simply because there is no ready accessibility to the requisite source materials. It is common for some source materials not to be made available for some years after an event or during lifetime of an individual. In Zimbabwe, for example details on the death of Hebert Chitepo in 1989 were not released until 2018 after Robert Mugabe was no longer president of the country. Other details may not be available in libraries and or changed due to political issues.

The topic selection is vital in proposal writing as it contributes to the success of the research. The researcher should therefore ensure that he or she is certain about the topic to be researched, is interested in the topic to be researched, interested in the required materials and resources available.

TITLE SELECTION

The name 'title' refers to heading, tag or label. The title of the proposal or thesis describes what the study is about. The title is a mini abstract. It portrays a quick summary of the key idea(s) in a proposal or thesis. For example, the following title by Marunda (2014), *The enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level in rural communities in Zimbabwe* indicates that the study is on tourism education. It also indicates that the researcher will analyse tourism training in primary schools in rural areas of Zimbabwe. Examples of titles:

- Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in Zimbabwe hotel industry, (Basera, 2021)
- The online marketing strategies of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and South Africa Tourism (SAT): A comparative study, (Basera, 2014)
- The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in South Africa and Zimbabwe, (Chikuta, 2015)

- An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe, (Ndhlovu, 2015)
- An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare, (Maphosa, 2014)

In title selection, a researcher may discuss topical issues in society. This may include issues such as tourist attractions that are declining in business, the effect of tourist attraction location on the success of a destination, the tourist security and success of destination. In tourism and hospitality, a researcher may analyse factors hindering success of travel agents. The title should be formulated after the researcher has identified the research topic.

The following steps are essential in title selection:
- *IDENTIFY KEYWORDS FOR TITLE*

Before selecting the title, the researcher should identify the key issues in the topic the researcher is interested in.
- *REFLECT ON KEY ISSUES*

The researcher should brainstorm key issues identified. This includes attempting to find out the independent and dependent variables. For example, if one is interested in transport price increase and holiday travel, questions that the researcher should attempt to answer are:
1. Does transport price increase affect holiday travel?
2. Does transport price increase influence holiday travel?
3. Does holiday travel influence transport price increase?

The researcher will attempt to find out how these issues can be linked to for a title.
- *FORMULATE A TITLE*

After the researcher is clear about independent and dependent variables, the title can be formulated. The formulation of the title involves trying to link the key variables. This can be formulated by using terms such as *The effect of..., An assessment of…., The effect of transport price increase on holiday travel or, The effect of holiday travel on transport price increase*.

◻ *EVALUATION*

After formulating the title, the researcher must ensure that it is clear and specific. This means the independent and dependent variables are easily identified (variables will be discussed later). For example, if the title is on the effect of transport price increase on holiday travel the researcher may specify it as: *The effect of public transport price increase on holiday travel in Zimbabwe.*

ELEMENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE TITLE

An effective research title should have the following elements:

a) It should be brief and specific: For example: *The impact of three tier pricing for tourist visiting Victoria Falls.* This brevity makes the title stand out and have strong impact. It is easier to identify the independent and dependent variables. The title becomes clear and focused.

b) It should be in line with the set objectives: The title is a brief summary of what the study is about. It should portray the aims and objectives of the study. The words used in the title should clearly reflect the focus of the study.

c) It should be clear and unambiguous: The title should not lead to various interpretations of the study.

d) It should reflect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, for example the effect of price increase on holiday travel.

e) The title should portray an issue that is researchable. The aspects in question should be measurable.

f) It should focus on contemporary issues

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED IN TITLE SELECTION

There are various challenges encountered by researchers in title selection. These include the following:

◻ *CHOOSING A TITLE THAT IS NOT SPECIFIC*

A researcher may choose a title that is open to varied interpretations. For example, *Crime in Zimbabwe* is a wide title that is open to various interpretations. This is because there are also varied forms of crime. For it to be effective it must be specific. To avoid this in title selection,

the researcher should be very clear and focused on what the independent and dependent variables of the study are:

  ☐ *WRITING A TITLE THAT IS TOO WORDY.*

A brief title is more effective than a long one. This is because variables are easily identified. Some titles musto many words. To avoid this, researchers should ensure that words that are not necessary for understanding the title are omitted. Example of a too wordy title, *The effect of duty free on importation of capital good on the performance of five star hotels and four star hotels and their product pricing models in Zimbabwe*. The topic can be summarised as, *The effect of duty free on the performance of hotels*. A two-part title can be used with the parts separated by a colon if reducing the wording fails.

  ☐ *POORLY FORMULATED TITLES*

Some titles are difficult to comprehend for example, *Understanding dark Tourism in Zimbabwe.* It is difficult to comprehend what the term 'understanding' means.

  ☐ *LACK OF CONSISTENCY*

Some study titles neither tally with the research objectives, nor with the problem statement or methodology applied. For example, a researcher who is in a study on; *The effect of transport price increase on holiday travel in Zimbabwe* concentrates on finding out about transport operators road indiscipline during holidays.

VARIABLES

The term variable is derived from variations. This refers to differences. Variables are attributes or qualities of the cases that we measure or record. For example, if the cases are persons, the variables could be age, sex, height, weight, level of empowerment, ability, and so on. They are referred to as variables because it is assumed the cases will vary in their scores on these attributes. For example, if the variable is age, we obviously recognise that people can be of different ages. In any study, variables can play different roles. For example, the reaction of travellers towards transport price increase may vary according to type of travellers, their origin, purpose of travel and mode of transport. An increase in A1 jet fuel prices may be viewed positively by those who do not travel by aero-planes but negatively by those that use aero-

planes to travel. There are two major forms of variables: the independent and independent variables.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Independent variables are also known as the predictor or explanatory variables. These are the factors that the researcher thinks explain variation in the dependent variable. In other words, these are the causes. In Figure 1.2, the internal factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in hotels, the internal factor is the independent variables. If a study is on; *The impact of transport price increase on holiday travel in Zimbabwe,* then the price increase is the independent variable. This is because it can explain or affect the increase or decrease in holiday travel.

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Usually there is one dependent variable, and it is the outcome variable the researcher is attempting to predict. In Figure 1.2, the internal factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in hotels, the researcher attempts to predict the adoption of quality management systems in hotels. The quality management systems in hotels are the dependent variable. In the study on, *The impact of transport price increase on holiday travel in Zimbabwe* more specifically its transport price decrease or increase is the dependent variable. In other words, the dependent variable 'depends' on the independent. For instance, the fluctuation in holiday travel is seen in so far as it is caused by the transport price increase – independent variable – which is expected to change or alter in some way the dependent variable.

To understand the independent and dependent variables let us analyse the example below:
In this title: *The internal factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in Hotels in Zimbabwe,* there are two keywords, internal factors and quality management systems. In this study an attempt is made to find out how the internal factors influence the adoption of quality management systems. This can be put in a diagram as shown in Fig 1.2:
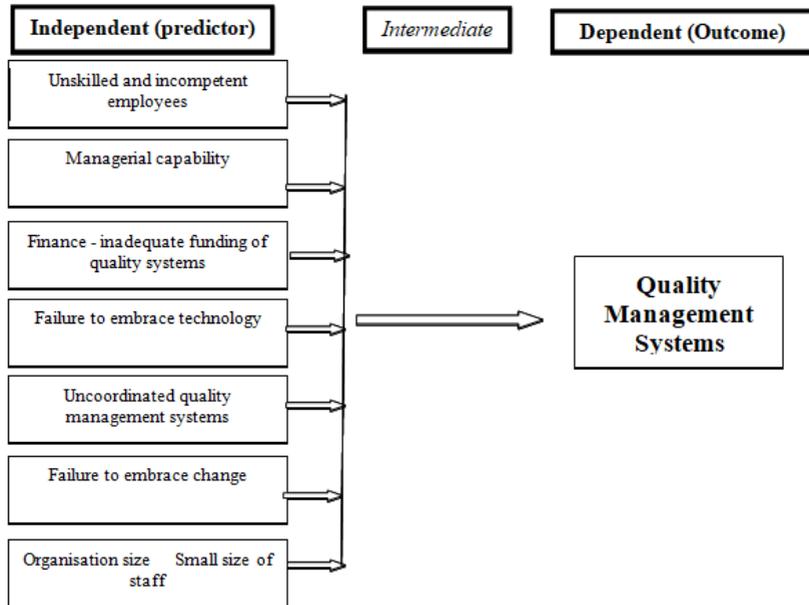
Figure 1.1: *Internal factors affecting quality in hotels* (Basera, 2019)

CHAPTER 2: THE INTRODUCTION

The first section of the proposal is referred to as the introduction. It serves to discuss the background for the proposed research, state and define the problem that the proposal or thesis is attempting address or solve, state the aims and objectives of the research work, and give an indication of how the work will progress. This section is referred to as the introduction since it can be regarded as the opening of the study. It attempts to establish that a problem exists and there is need for a study to be carried out. It also justifies the study. The author in this chapter attempts to analyse the study in these divisions; background to the study, statement of the research problem, aims and objectives of the study, research hypothesis, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, and the conceptual and theoretical frameworks.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY
In research the term 'background' refers to the setting or position of the study. It is a brief overview of the problem the researcher aspires to tackle. Background information plays a major role in research. This includes the following:

a) It helps clarify what has brought about the need for the study.
b) It points out the challenges faced due to the identified issue.
c) It indicates the opportunities for improvement.
d) It demonstrates the researcher's view of the research problem.
e) It shows the reader that the researcher knows the study area as the researcher is familiar with what has preceded.
f) It helps to convince the readers that the problem or opportunity exists and that it should be addressed.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY
An effective background to the study has the following qualities:

- It is brief and specific. Though it borrows lot from the literature review, it is a summary of the information in the literature review.

- It engages the interest of the reader. An effective background should get the reader concerned about the problem, excited about the opportunity of having the problem addressed and interested in the eventual solution proposed by the research.
- It gives the reader a glimpse of the research problem.
- It gives the reader an idea of how the proposal is structured.
- The language used is simple and straightforward.
- It is informative and persuasive since it attempts to enlighten the reader about the research problem and the urgency of addressing the problem.

STEPS IN WRITING AN EFFECTIVE BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The following steps are essential in writing an effective background.

- **Reflection** – Before writing the background to the study. The researcher should analyse the selected topic and title and identify the variables. The identification of the variables will assist in locating the relevant literature related to the research problem. This literature will assist in background formulation.
- **Brainstorming** - The researcher should think about the relevant literature related to the topic that will specifically bring out the need for the study. The challenges related to the selected topic should also be reflected in the selected literature.
- **Material compilation** - The researcher should use the library to peruse through and read various books and articles related to the topic. The researcher should note down essential information related to the topic.
- **Formulation** - The researcher should use part of these materials which will later on be used in the literature review to write the background to the study. The researcher should cite previous studies that are similar to what he/she is proposing.

CHALLENGES FACED IN WRITING AN EFFECTIVE BACKGROUND

There are various challenges that researchers experience in writing an effective background. This includes the following:

- Lack of differentiation between the background to the study and the literature review. While the literature review expounds on various studies related to the area of study, the background should be a short summary briefly expounding on factors that have brought about the need for the study and opportunities for improvement.

- Some researchers use the background content to justify the need for the study. Yet this section should give, brief overview of the research problem.

- Lack of clarity due to poor language use. This involves the use of jargon such as slang, trendy words, abbreviations, colloquial expressions, redundant phrases and confusing language.

- Quoting studies but not explaining how they fit in the background.

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EXAMPLE OF BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Example 1: **The online marketing strategies of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and South Africa Tourism (SAT): A comparative study: (Basera, 2014)**

The tourism industry is regarded as one of the biggest industries in the world generating an estimated 11% of the global gross domestic product (GDP) and employing over 200 million people while serving 700 million tourists worldwide (UNWTO, 2012), a figure which researchers and analyst expect to double by the year 2020. In light of poor performance of the traditional economic sectors (manufacturing, mining and agriculture), the tourism industry has emerged as the biggest contributor of the GDP since the early 1990s in most African countries and is now viewed as the only hope for turning around African economies. Evidence from previous studies (Maswera *et al,* 2006 and Chikuta *et al*, 2013) all points to a growth of the tourism industry since the beginning of the new millennium. As a result of this realisation, governments the world over have since established standalone organisations responsible for promoting both domestic and international tourism. It is also significant to note that this ministry works hand in hand with other public, private and international bodies to boast tourism.

On the other hand, various bodies responsible for tourism in various countries have been working frantically to market their tourism facilities to the world market. To this end, it is thus essential to highlight that tourism industry promotion like any other industry promotion has also evolved with time. Many tourism regulator bodies are now embarking on the dual marketing strategies which incorporate both the traditional marketing and the current technologically based marketing strategies which involves the use of the internet. The importance of information and communication technology (ICT), especially the Internet, in the travel and tourism industry has increased tremendously over the past few years. The travel and

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tourism area is one of those industries that can gain enormous synergy effects from use of the Internet.

Internet has brought with a cost saving, effective and efficient communication connectivity that is fast with stakeholders in business. Rogerson (2013) said that internet has led to the boom of ecommerce which is changing the nature of business. Internet has capacity to create and bring in more revenue which is what tourism industry in developing regions need. Many developing countries like African countries can boost their struggling economies by investing in tourism that is being hampered by few development resources such as finance and skills. Many organisations in the world over have adopted online tourism marketing strategies and from research done by Marcussen in 2005 shows that travel and tourism industry revenue have increased by adopting ecommerce. Below is a summary of studies conducted on online marketing strategies in various countries.

Guðmundsson (2010) conducted a study on the online marketing of tourism companies in Iceland. It is important to note that the main objective of this thesis was to study how companies that cater to tourists in Iceland use the Internet as a marketing tool. The study was also based on the philosophical assumption that the increasing usage of internet in Iceland and around the world makes a good marketing tool as a message can reach the whole world just after a click of a button. The study was a survey of four companies in the tourism and hospitality sector. It is also clear that the study was qualitative research that means most of the references were obtained after interviewing owners and managers of case sample companies. The key findings of this study were that most respondents lacked knowledge on online marketing while others had knowledge, but time constraints were the major challenge hindering its use. More importantly, the study concluded and recommended that everyone seemed to appreciate the value of using the internet. The companies decided that internet-based marketing is a tool can use to come up with a powerful promotional mix in the future. At this juncture, it is worth noting that although, the study wanted to establish the online marketing strategies in Iceland, the study concentrated more on the perceptions of the respondents instead of observing what was being done to promote online marketing. In light of this, this study seeks to analyse the online marketing strategies which are being used by ZTA and SAT through a thorough assessment of the online marketing tools.

Another study was conducted by Nguyen and Wang (2011) on the practice of online marketing with social media in tourism destination marketing in Sweden. They wanted to get insight in the use of internet with social media in tourism industry from the view of destination marketing organisation (DMOs), assessing their effectiveness for destination marketing management. The other purpose of the study was to discover the role of online marketing using social media in building the destination brands and interacting with audience to reach potential visitors. The study recommended that DMOs need to give emphasis to the carrying out online marketing and participate in social media activities so that they get payback. However, this research falls short from the fact that it was carried in a specific DMO; it should have been carried out in two destinations so that it would have been evaluated in comparison to get meaningful conclusions. In line with this weakness, this study therefore will take a comparative path where online marketing strategies being used by ZTA and SAT will be compared.

Lai and Vinh (2013) conducted research on the online promotion and its influence on destination awareness and loyalty in the tourism industry in Vietnam. The main aim of this study was to explore how online promotion and its influence on destination awareness and loyalty in the tourism industry. The study provided a framework for understanding the interrelationships between online promotion, destination awareness and satisfaction and the other constructs in relation to behavioural intentions. The study used a quantitative study which utilised information collected from randomly selected respondents who were given questionnaires. The study results were that tourism promotion through viral online marketing provides the needed information for tourism programs in Vietnam which is adequate for decision of purchase by clients. And that online viral tourism promotional information is characterised by accuracy, clarifies the details of touristic products, clarifies things relevant with time intervals, indicates the ingredients of products clearly and indicates clearly the cost of these products accurately. In line with the findings and recommendations of the study, this study seek to compare the online tourism marketing strategies at ZTA and SAT as a way of highlighting areas which needs improvement and to draw lessons from one side to the other.

On the other hand, Potgieter *et al* (2013) conducted a study on innovative marketing information system: a management tool for South African tour operators in South Africa. The primary objective of the study was to establish how South African tour operators utilise information systems in marketing themselves. The study followed a quantitative descriptive design. The findings were that South African tour operators do not currently make use of information systems to provide them with market and marketing-related information for management and marketing decisions. In conclusion, the study recommended that tour operators and information system designers and developers consult on a regular basis and find solutions to the information needs of tour operators. Similarly, a study conducted by Maswera *et al* (2006) about e-commerce adoption in South Africa, Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe all showed that few of the African destination marketing organisations are fully appreciating e-commerce. The study revealed that some African organisations websites are comparable to the developed countries to their counterparts Europe and USA; most websites had room for considerable improvements. The African websites were found to be fully informative and lacked interactive options for performing online transactions. Considering these weaknesses, the survey recommended that these African organisations develop their websites to become marketing tools for them to benefit from the benefits of internet marketing.

This study therefore seeks to establish the online marketing strategies which have been adopted by ZTA and SAT especially coming from the background of those similar studies (Maswera *et al,* 2006 and Potgieter *et al,* 2013) that websites of most African organisations lacked interactive facilities and also from the conclusions that some tour operators have limited knowledge on the significance of information systems. In line with the above recommendations, and also coming from the background where tourism has been branded the fastest growing industry, this study will be a comparison of the ZTA and SAT online marketing strategies.

Example 2: **The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in South Africa and Zimbabwe: (Chikuta, 2015)**

Disability tourism, also known as accessible tourism, is a philosophy that endeavours to ensure that tourism destinations, products and services are accessible to all people, regardless of physical limitations, age or disabilities (Darcy & Dickson, 2009;34). It enables individuals with mobility and other challenges to access destinations without much aid and with dignity by ensuring that products, services and environments are designed to meet their needs. This includes those travelling with children in prams, People with disabilities (PwDs) and seniors (Pegg & Patterson, 2011:174). It encompasses all dimensions of disability, including sensory, mobility and vision, among others (World Health Organisation, 2002; Oliver, 1996:9).

1.2.1 Universal accessibility

The concept of universal access is inseparable from accessible tourism. According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, Article 2; universal access refers to the design of products, environments, programmes and services that are usable by anyone to the greatest extent without the need for adaptation or specialised design (UN, 2006). The definition emphasises the need to ensure that anyone, regardless of ability, age, size and gender can use the facility independently and with ease (Parks & Benefits, 2007:4). Connell, Jones, Mace, Mueller, Mullick, Ostroff, Stanford, Steinfeld, Story & Vanderheiden, (2008:2-10) identified the following seven principles of universal design for the National Center on Accessibility (USA):

- ☐ Equitable use - useful to all people despite disabilities.
- ☐ Flexibility in use - should accommodate a wide range of individual preferences and abilities.
- ☐ Simple and intuitive use – the design is easy to understand regardless of a user's situation.
- ☐ Perceptible information - communicates information effectively to users regardless of the type of impairment.
- ☐ Tolerance of error - minimises hazards and adverse consequences of accidents or unintended actions.
- ☐ Low physical effort - the design can be used efficiently and comfortably, with minimum fatigue.
- ☐ Size and space for approach and use - appropriate size and space for use regardless of the user's body size and mobility.

The following section offers insight into the relationship between age and disability.

1.2.2 Disability and aging

No discussion on disability and accessibility is complete without examining the issue of aging. Worldwide, the number of PwDs has increased in recent years, mainly because of ageing and other health related factors (Darcy, 2002:137; Turco, Stumbo & Garncarz,1998; Yau *et al*., 2004:948). Research has shown that there is a positive correlation between ageing and disability (WHO, 2007). However, Mann (2005:6) argues that older persons with impairments may not necessarily be disabled if they find ways of compensating for that impairment. In most cases, however, most old people are unable to do so, thus becoming disabled. The number of aged people is expected to increase tremendously by 2050 and the

greatest increase is expected in developing countries, especially in Asia. This is attributed to the improvement in the general standard of living in these countries. In 2005, 16.7% of Americans were 60 years and older and by 2050, the number is expected to increase to around 26%. In 2005, people aged 60 and older represented 10.9% of China's population; this is expected to rise to 31% by 2050. Germany and Japan are expected to register the largest growth from 25.1% and 26.3% to 35% and 41, 7%, respectively (Eurostat, 2005:254; Dobriansky, 2007:5). These patterns show how important disability tourism is and is likely to become in the future.

1.2.3 Economic significance of the disability market

The number of PwDs worldwide is estimated to be between 600 and 859 million (APEC, 2003:5; United Nations, 2009). This represents a significant 10% to 19% of the global population (Bull, House & Weed, 2003:14; Huh & Singh, 2007:212). These patterns are reflected in national statistics. For instance, in 1997, the US Census Bureau reported that 21% of the population was disabled amounting to approximately 54 million people (US Department of Commerce, 1997).

It is therefore clear that the disabled have become a significant consumer market (Darcy *et al.*, 2010:817; Buhalis, Michopoulou, Eichhorn, & Miller, 2005; Darcy, 2002:61). Lipp and Van Horn (2007:3) found that American adults with disabilities spend an average of $13, 6 billion US on tourism each year. This research further revealed that these people made 32 million trips in 2002 and spent $4, 2 billion on hotels, $3, 3 billion on airline tickets and $2, 7 billion on food and beverages while they were travelling (Harris Interactive Research, 2005). Parker *et al.* (2002:283), Rains (2007:2) and the UNESCAP (2007) emphasise that creating accessible tourist destinations is not about charity but serious economic gains.

The same study found that, in the UK, 10 million adults with disabilities spend approximately 80 billion pounds on tourism per year and in Canada, economically active disabled people spend 25 billion Canadian dollars on travel (Lipp & Laurel, 2007:3). Dwyer and Darcy"s (2011:228) study revealed that overall expenditure by tourists with disabilities in the United Kingdom from 2003 to 2004 was close to US$12 billion. This is massive expenditure and sufficient reason to take disability tourism seriously. The Commonwealth Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources (CDITR, 2003:45) has identified the disabled and the senior population as an emerging market which can sustain the tourism industry. Tourism Australia has responded by establishing disability tourism as a niche (Tourism Australia, 2005:4)

In the East and South Asia Pacific (ESCAP) region, PwDs and older people are a growing group of consumers of travel, sport, and other leisure-oriented products and services (ESCAP, 2000:75-76). Aged people's share of tourism in developed countries has increased with „baby boomers" coming of age and representing a very lucrative market for travel and tourism. The developing world is following suit as health facilities and medication improve (ESCAP, 2000).

The United Nations (UN) projects that by 2025, about 14% of the ESCAP region's total population will be over the age of 60 and the region is expected to be home to more than 50% of the world's aged population. By 2041, about 23% of Canadians will also be over 65 (Horgan-Jones & Ringaert, 2004:6).

Studies have revealed very important characteristics of tourists with disabilities. People with disabilities stay longer at a destination than their able-bodied counterparts; they spend more money per day and usually demand more services. Another important attribute of this growing market is that they travel out of season to avoid crowds (Burnett & Bender-Baker, 2001:6; Denman & Clerkson, 1991b:46; Ray & Ryder, 2003:63, Van Hon, 2001). This is particularly important when one considers the fact that the tourism and hospitality industry is highly seasonal and that patronage during the off-season is a „blessing". Moreover, once one captures this niche, it is likely that friends, family members and associates of tourists with disabilities will also be captured (Buhalis & Darcy, 2011:6).

Many PwDs not only have the will but the disposable income to travel (Australian Hotel Association, 1998:2; Bennet & Bender-Baker, 2011:6; Darcy, 2000:12, 2002, 2008). While it is assumed that the situation in Europe and America applies to all parts of the world, there are variations in economic, socio-cultural and legal frameworks. In this regard, Southern Africa needs tailor-made policy frameworks for sustainability. The following questions remain unanswered: are there enough facilities to enable PwDs to travel? Do these facilities meet the expectations of tourists with disabilities? How can Southern Africa become an accessible destination?

1.2.4 People with disabilities and nature-based tourism

Like any other tourist segment, PwDs are greatly interested in exploring nature (Lais, McAvoy & Frederickson, 1992:10). Research has shown that PwDs participate in nature-based tourism and engage in activities such as sightseeing, birdwatching, camping and hunting (among others) (McAvoy, Holman, Goldenberg & Klenosky, 2006:24; Cordell, 1999, McCormick, 2001:12). Indeed, McCormick"s research shows that PwDs" level of participation in outdoor recreation in the US equals, and at times, exceeds that of able-bodied tourists. Some tourists with disabilities engage in more challenging activities than their able-bodied counterparts (Anderson, Schleien, McAvoy, Lais & Seligmann, 1997:214). This demonstrates that PwDs are by no means spectators when it comes to nature-based tourism.

The motivation for visiting natural areas has been found to be the same regardless of whether one is able-bodied or disabled (Yau *et al.*, 2004:947, Lais, 1995; Roggenbuck & Driver, 2000:25; Brown *et al.*, 1999:210). This includes escaping the day-to-day mundane environment, relaxation, enhancing family interactions, experiencing natural beauty and taking photographs, among others (Shi, 2006; Singer & McAvoy, 1992; Saayman, Van der Merwe & Slabbert, 2009). However, PwDs also have other motivations. The most noted reasons for visiting a wilderness environment include the need to experience personal challenges, to increase self-confidence, social adjustment and family satisfaction and to enhance self-understanding (Anderson *et al.*, 1997:220; McAvoy *et al.*, 1989; Singer & McAvoy, 1992). Shi *et al.* (2012:229) identified a further reason why PwDs visit various areas of interest, including natural areas. The „do it today" syndrome reflects the fact that tourists with disabilities are not sure of what tomorrow holds, so they decide to enjoy the best of today. This is vindicated by the fact their impairments are likely to worsen with age.

Even though PwDs are interested in nature-based tourism, the number of disabled visitors to national parks worldwide has not been significant (UNCRPD, 2006). This is despite the statutory instruments put in place by some governments to encourage disability tourism. In 1994, only 2.3% of park users in the US were mobility disabled; 14.4% of the US population was mobility impaired at that time (Bricker, 1995:11; Lais, 1992). This may be an indication of the inaccessibility of national parks in that country that could also be the case in Zimbabwe and South Africa.

The major debate on the accessibility of natural areas has been how to strike a balance between enhancing accessibility and preserving the natural state of the wilderness environment (Ray & Ryder, 2003:57; Lovelock, 2010:358; Jaquette, 2005). The use of cars and electrical devices to enhance access (industrial tourism) has been regarded as a threat to national parks and the wilderness experience. It makes access to nature too easy (Bricker, 1995) and is environmentally damaging.

The question is: how can access be enhanced while keeping the national parks attractive? Advocates of environmental sustainability have argued that any change in the ecological set-up to accommodate the mobility impaired compromises the quality of the very nature that draws these tourists (Zeller, 2008:15; Jaquette, 2005, Lais, 1992). On the other hand, those that subscribe to the philosophy of universal access argue that it is an infringement of the rights of PwDs to deny them access to these natural areas on the bases of sustainability (Lovelock, 2010:358). They argue that motorised access to national parks must be allowed to cater for the mobility impaired and the aged (Lais, 1995:27).

Environmentalists have argued that motorized access would deny everyone (including the disabled) a true wilderness experience (Bricker, 1995). However, tourists with mobility impairments state that they do not necessarily want to make natural areas too easy to access. All they want is for these parks to be universally accessible to afford them the experience and challenges that able-bodied person can experience (Zeller, 2008:17). What they are against is the total inaccessibility of these places which is tantamount to exclusion. Environmentalists seem to put unwarranted emphasis on the exclusion of motorised/mechanised devices like wheelchairs in the parks. The Americans with Disabilities Act title V, Section 507c provides for the use of the wheelchair for individuals whose disabilities require its use (ADA, 1990). It is argued that a wheelchair does not involve the motorisation of national parks; rather, it is somebody's footwear and should be allowed in parks just as others" shoes are. (Zeller 2008:17). Jaquette (2005:2) observes that making parks more accessible would not necessarily make them more visibly constructed.

A few studies have been conducted to determine tourists" perceptions of motorised access to natural environments (Zeller, 2008; Lovelock, 2010). The results of these surveys show that it is in the interests of both the able-bodied and the disabled to ensure that the pristine nature of wilderness areas remains untainted by modernity. While some mobility impaired tourists supported enhanced motorised access, the majority were not are favour of this option. It is however clear than all people with disabilities require an accessible natural environment.

Access to tourist areas by PwDs has been cause for concern and, of late, researchers have investigated ways of making these areas more accessible (Lais, 1995; Jaquette, 2005; Lovelock, 2010:357). However, there is a paucity of research on the accessibility of national parks, among other natural areas (McAvoy *et al.*, 2006:30; Lovelock, 2010:360). Indeed, PwDs have been referred to as „outsiders" when it comes to national parks for the simple reason that these environments have been deemed unsuitable for them (Matthew & Vujakovic, 1995). Some managers of remote areas do not accommodate disability because of the costs involved. They are reluctant to invest in this emerging market and therefore relegate PwDs to the periphery of their markets (Lovelock, 2010). This review has revealed that PwDs are an emerging and potentially viable market segment for nature-based tourism. The problem is therefore not whether PwDs want to engage in nature-based tourism but rather accessibility. In fact, denial of access to natural environments contacts nature even more precious (McAvoy, 2006:31).

1.2.5 Research on disability and tourism

Research on tourism and disabilities can be classified into several categories. The first is to do with legislation. National governments" increased interest in issues to do with PwDs and the enactment of legislation such as the Americans with their Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 and the Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) of 1995 which have contributed to an increase in research on disability (Darcy, 2010:5). Much research has been conducted globally on disability legislation and ensuring that the civil and legal rights of PwDs are protected (O"Neill & Ali Knight, 2000:1; Boyne, 2005). Other researchers examined the impact of the ADA, DDA and other legislation on the hospitality and tourism industry (Ohlin, 1993, Forbes, 2009, Rosen 2007, Shaw *et al.*, 2005). This research was supply-side driven and little attention has been paid to the demand side (Darcy, 2010; Snyman, 2000).

The second category of research focused on the human resource aspects of disability, focusing on the employment of PwDs in the hospitality and tourism industry and staff attitudes towards tourists with disabilities (Gröschl, 2007, Darcy, 2010, Darcy & Peg, 2011). Ross (2004) drew attention to ethical issues and how employees with various impairments are treated within the tourism and hospitality industries. Again, this category is supply-side driven.

Some studies focused on models and dimensions of disability while others raised the contentious issue of universal access and universal design (Connell el al., 2008, United Nations, 2006, Centre for Universal Design, 2009; Rains, 2004:23). Studies conducted in Australia, the United States of America and parts of Europe examined the economics of disability tourism to determine the viability of this up-and-coming market (Darcy, 1998; Harris Interactive Research, 2005). Wilderness tourism has also been a subject of discussion and research in the academic arena although little emphasis has been placed on PwDs (Zeller 2008:16; Jaquette 2006:8; MacAvoy *et al.*, 2005; Lais 1996).

Even though there has been a significant increase in the literature on accessible tourism, this subject is still evolving in academic study and in industry practice (Buhalis & Darcy, 2011). Furthermore, studies on disability have focused on Europe, the USA and Australia (Grady & Ohlin, 2009; Ozturk, Yayli & Yesi Ltas, 2008). The primary concern has been what other people think of PwDs; very

limited information is available on disabled people's perspectives of tourism products, particularly in nature-based tourism (Snyman, 2002; Mckercher & Chan, 2005:4). Therefore, this study takes a two-pronged approach in examining both the demand and supply side to come up with a balanced framework for universal accessibility, particularly in national parks.

It is evident from the literature reviewed that while disability tourism has been a subject of concern in countries like Australia, the USA and parts of Asia, very little research has been done in this area in Africa, particularly Southern Africa. It is this knowledge gap which the current study sought to bridge.

Example 3: **An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe: (Ndhlovu, 2015)**
The sections below discuss the background of the study. It focuses on the hotel and hospitality industry in general and the general structure of hotels in Zimbabwe. For hotels in Zimbabwe the major focus is on Harare where the study was conducted and an attempt has also been made to unpack the problem being investigated.

1.2.1 The Hotel and Hospitality Industry
A hotel is a place of solace for the avid traveller. The definition of hotel is surrounded with many confusion especially when the terms motel, inn, or lodge are introduced. This confusion is mainly attributed to the many properties that offer similar services in the hospitality industry and the many owners who classify their properties as they deem appropriate especially in unregulated scenarios (Kasavana & Brooks, 2001). A hotel is part of a broader grouping of similar establishments known as the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry itself is also part of the larger travel and tourism industry (Kasavana & Brooks, 2001). Although diverse and having many definitions (Mullins & Dossor, 2013), the hospitality industry includes 'a wide range of businesses each of which is dedicated to the service of people away from home' (Walker, 2010). The hospitality industry usually consists of lodging or accommodation operations and food and beverage operations (Kasavana & Brooks, 2001).
The hotel concept, part of the broader hospitality industry, emanated from inn
………………. ……
1.3 The Hotel Industry in Zimbabwe
The hotel industry in Zimbabwe, like any other in Southern Africa is a combination of small, medium and large enterprises. These hotels also range from privately owned, family run and ungraded hotels to international chain luxury hotels (Mkono, 2010). For the graded hotels they are classified into five categories ranging from one star to five stars (Statutory Instrument no.128 of 2005). The one star and the two stars hotels are referred to as the small to medium size hotels (Statutory Instrument no.128 of 2005). Some of the hotels are government owned through the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012). Zimbabwe has the second largest number of hotel rooms in Southern Africa after South Africa (Ruzivo Trust, 2013). While the majority of hotels are concentrated in the major tourist centres of Victoria Falls and Kariba, Harare, the capital city also houses a considerable number of hotels, especially commercial hotels. Harare City, the area of study in this research is well known for the plethora of both individual and internationally recognised hotel brands.

One of the main international hotel players in the City is Africa Sun Hotels and Resorts. The group was established in 1968 (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012), and was initially known as Zimbabwe Sun Hotels. The group now has presence, not only in Zimbabwe, but in Ghana, Nigeria and South Africa. In Zimbabwe, the group is associated with two hotels in Harare, the Crowne Plaza Monomotapa and the Holiday Inn Harare (Africa Sun Hotels, 2014). Crowne Plaza Monomotapa is a four star hotel located in the city's central business district (CBD), that attracts both business and leisure travellers (Africa Sun Hotels, 2014). The Holiday Inn, a three star hotel, is located on the outskirts of the CBD and offers ample parking space. The hotel also attracts both business and leisure travellers.

The second largest hotel group is Rainbow Tourism Group (RTG). According to Rusike and Chitambara (2012: 11)

> The group operates four distinct quality hospitality brands which are Rainbow Resort Hotels, Touch the Wild Limited (which operates four lodges), Tourism Services Zimbabwe and Rainbow Hospitality Business School. It operates 6 hotels in Zimbabwe, two hotels in Zambia and one in Mozambique through lease and management contracts. It has placed itself as the leading provider of Unique African Hospitality.

The Group was established in 1992 and became Zimbabwe's second largest chain group in 1998, a position it has maintained to date (Rainbow Tourism Group, 2013). The group boasts of two hotels in Harare, the Rainbow Towers Hotel and Conference Centre, and the New Ambassador Hotel. The Rainbow Towers is a five star hotel with 304 rooms. The hotel has three restaurants and a bar, all catering for the business traveller. The New Ambassador Hotel has 72 rooms and is also located in the CBD and caters for the business traveller (Rainbow Tourism Group, 2013). Cresta Hotels, also one of the leading hospitality groups in Africa, has units in Zambia, Botswana and Zimbabwe. The hotel group started operations in Zimbabwe in the mid 1970's, with only 2 hotels that were owned by Tobacco Auctions (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012). Cresta now owns 4 hotels in Zimbabwe mainly in Harare where the group operates three hotels, Cresta Lodge, Cresta Jameson and Cresta Oasis. Both the Cresta Jameson and Cresta Oasis are located in the central part of Harare City. Cresta Lodge is located a few kilometres from the city centre.

In total, Harare has twenty-one hotels that include the famous Meikles Hotel that is a five starhotel, and other five star lodges such as the Amanzi Lodge, the Ballantynes Lodge and the Woodlands Guest Lodge. Hotels in Harare are prominently important for the business traveller and the city is well known for the Sanganai/Hlanganani World Travel Expo Business Forum which attracts a considerable number of international business players (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012). The Expo is held annually at the Harare International Conference Centre.

According to Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (2011), Harare has twelve independent hotelestablishments which include hotels such Selous hotel, Russel hotel, Courtney hotel, Red Fox Chase hotel, Semanzini Park hotel, Holly's hotel and Night Club, hotel Elizabeth, Adelaide Acres conference centre, the Queens hotel, and Sogecoa Zimbabwe Golden Peacock Villa and Pandhari hotel. Some of these

hotels closed and some are now operating as night clubs. Only a few are still operating as hotels. Despite the prolific hospitality sector in Harare, there are several challenges facing the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. Among these is the need for refurbishments, under investment and socio-political unrests (Ruzivo Trust, 2013). There is also instability in terms of employment due to on-going retrenchments (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012).

Of the five independent hotels in the central business district (CBD), three have no star rating while the other two have a star rating of two. Working towards attaining a star rating of five or less appears to be quite a big challenge for most of them. This makes it difficult for them to compete with the giant chain hotels. For small to medium sizes independent hotels, survival means bracing competition even amongst themselves. Competition in tourism is driven by several factors including pricing, volume, innovation, technology and entrepreneurial management (Christie & Crompton, 2001). However, this study is more concerned with innovation in hotel SMEs, their growth and failure as this is an area that has received anecdotal attention in tourism literature (Thomas, Shaw & Page, 2011). Research in the operations of small to medium size independent hotels is scant. Little is known about innovative measures employed by privately owned hotels in the management of business. Most of the research on hotel innovation tends to focus on large chain corporations though in recent years there has been an increasing awareness and recognition of the importance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in extant literature.

In Zimbabwe the promotion of small to medium enterprises (SME) which is often synonymouswith economic indigenization, is being hailed for its pivotal role in promoting grassrootseconomic growth and equitable sustainable development. In particular the development of SMEsis seen as a way of accelerating the achievement of wider economic and socio-economic objectives (Chidoko, Makuyana, Matungamire & Bemani, 2011). The most important economic benefit from SMEs in Zimbabwe is employment creation because the civil service and the large multinational companies only absorb a limited fraction of the country's labour force. The number of persons who were gainfully employed in Harare by 2012 was 242 400 a decline of about 6.8% from 260 100 in 2010 (ZimStat, 2013). This drop may be attributed to the increase of people who were leaving formal employment to embark on personal business especially in small to medium enterprises that have been viewed as a perfect substitute to conventional formal employment (Maunganidze, 2013).

The SMEs sector is efficient at generation of job opportunities however at a very low cost for some segments of the population. Jobs in the large scale corporations in Zimbabwe are showing negative growth, while some jobs in the SMEs sector of the economy are showing positive growth. The contribution of the SMEs sector to the Zimbabwean economy is crucial for the achievement of the broader development objectives such as poverty alleviation, spreading of employment opportunities and increasing indigenous ownership of resources in the economy (Chidoko *et al.*, 2011). SMEs are seedbeds for indigenous entrepreneurship as they are responsible for mobilizing ungenerated capacity (Charantimath, 2006), are labour intensive, and contribute to the decentralization of industry (Hutchinson & Quintas 2008) and contribute more to equitable distribution of the national income

(Dumbu & Musingafi, 2010). Other economicadvantages of small to medium-scale businesses include supplying dynamism (i.e., they contribute to the growth of the economy), contributing to economic competition, raising the level of popular participation in the economy and promoting growth with equity.

To show the importance of the SMEs sector to the economy, the government of Zimbabwe established the Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises, and such organs such as Small Enterprises Development Corporation (SEDCO) and Venture Capital Company of Zimbabwe (VCCZ) among others, to provide targeted support to SMEs. This is a clear demonstration of the Zimbabwean Government of its realization of the importance of the sector and the roles it plays to correct the poor performance of the economy. Although Fan (2003) argues that SMEs are the major sources of technological advances and new products. Small to medium size enterprises (SMEs) in Zimbabwe face a dynamic and competitive business environment. Such competition manifests also in SMEs that fall under the hotel sector. Most of them are struggling to survive and grow despite the efforts engaged by the Government (Maseko *et al.*, 2012) and the private sector in general, to offer financial assistance and non-financial incentives. Some even end up closing down. The Germini Report of 1993 found that 48-60% of SMEs closures in Zimbabwe occur within the first three years. As a result the sector has suffered stunted growth and sluggish development. In addition it has been also difficult for the SMEs to compete with the large chain corporations in attracting markets and maintaining market share.

On the contrary small to medium size independent hotels are operated by owner-managers or by a small consortium. There is no separation of ownership and control as the business has no outside equity owners. Most of them are ungraded and have no star rating. It is upon this background that the study sought to explore and understand the innovative measures employed by small to medium size independent hotels in the management of business in a dynamic and competitive environment. The section below tries to articulate the problem being investigated in the study.

Example 3: **An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare : (Maphosa, 2014)**
Lodges in Zimbabwe are graded using the provisions of Statutory Instrument 128 of 2005 and the Tourism Act chapter 14:20. Once graded the validity of the lodge's grade runs for a period of two years or until reviewed for whatever reason. Ideally a lodge is expected to improve to a better grade after at least two years, for instance, an upgrade from being standard to comfort, to luxury or to even a hotel. However, for the past 4 years according to the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority July 2014 lodges database, at least 40 registered lodges in Harare out of a total of about 45 registered lodges in Harare are still in the same grade, two were downgraded while only three were upgraded. There has also been an unprecedented mushrooming of unregistered lodges in and around the city. Table 1.1 presents a comparative analysis of the grading status of registered lodges in Harare in the years 2011 and 2014.

Date	Name of Registered lodge	Grade	Date	Name of Registered lodge	Grade	Comment on upgrade
2011	Harare Safari	Comfort	2014	Harare Safari	Standard	Downgraded
	Aqua	No star		Agua	No star	No star
	Jacaranda	Standard		Jacaranda	Standard	No improvement
	Elephant	Standard		Elephant	Standard	
	West end	Standard		West end	Standard	
	Ngoko	Standard		Ngoko	Standard	
	Kuimba	Standard		Kuimba	Standard	
	Mugoni	Standard		Mugoni	Standard	
	Zimzac	Standard		Zimzac	Standard	
	Sloane	Standard		Sloane	Standard	
	Connaught	Standard		Connaught	Standard	
	Flame lily	Standard		Flame lily	Standard	
	Khahphinde	Standard		Khahphinde	Standard	
	Merrion	Standard		Merrion	Standard	
	Ruvimbo	Standard		Ruvimbo	Standard	
	Matohwe	Standard		Matohwe	Standard	
	Tynward	Standard		Tynward	Standard	
	Carry's Court	Standard		Carry's Court	Standard	
	Boulder's	Standard		Boulder's	Standard	
	Ebenezer	Standard		Ebenezer	Standard	
	Small World	Standard		Small World	Standard	
	Kia Ora	Standard		Kia Ora	Standard	
	Heritage Hills	Standard		Heritage Hills	Standard	
	Oohi Safaris	Standard		Oohi Safari	Standard	
	Riverstone	Standard		Riverstone	Standard	
	Limpopo	Standard		Limpopo	Standard	
	Mudzigashe	Standard		Mudzigashe	Standard	
	Mabvazuva	Standard		Mabvazuva	Standard	
	Mbizi	Comfort		Mbizi	Comfort	
	Thorn tree	Comfort		Thorn tree	Comfort	
	Borrowdale	Comfort		Borrowdale	Comfort	
	Geoko	Comfort		Geoko	Comfort	
	AmanziPeve	Comfort		AmanziPeve	Comfort	
	Stable	Comfort		Stable	Comfort	
	Pakanaka	Comfort		Pakanaka	Comfort	
	Pandhari	Comfort		Pandhari	Hotel	IMPROVED STANDARDS
	Lodge fairmil	Standard		Lodge Fairmi	Comfort	
	Woodlands	Comfort		Woodlands	Luxury	
	ImbaMatomb	Luxury		ImbaMatomb	Luxury	No Improvement
	York	Luxury		York	Luxury	
	Wild Geese	Luxury		Wild Geese	Luxury	
	Amanzi	Luxury		Amanzi	Luxury	
	Southerton	Ungraded possibly unregistered		Southerton	Ungraded possibly unregistered	Ungraded possibly unregistered
	Octopalm			Octopalm		
	Elmsfield			Elmsfield		

Table 1.1: Comparing Grading Status for Harare Registered Lodges, Source: Z.T.A; Accommodation database for the year 2011 and 2014.

Table 1 motivates the research study into seeking to investigate the possible causes of nonadherence to set quality standards that discourage improvement and upgrade of lodges. The possible causes to the non-improvement in quality standards, downgrading and mushrooming of unregistered lodges can be due to internal and external environmental forces. Table 1 shows that most lodges in Harare have not improved for the past 3 or so years, on the other hand some have even deteriorated.

Information brought out by Table 1 can be further married to what the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority annual report of 2012 page 40 revealed as evidence of lodges deteriorating standards. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority annual report of 2012 page 40 showed a 10% decrease in foreign tourists checking into lodges compared to the previous year 2011. The annual report indicates a 5% increase in foreign tourists checking into hotels compared to the year 2011. Where foreign tourists shun lodges for hotels this might indicate a decrease in lodges international recognisable standards. The decrease in foreign tourists checking into lodges mean a decrease in good word of mouth marketing and absence of expect lodges

human capital that can implement and put into use internationally recognisable standards. Hence, the research study would like to find out why foreign tourists are shunning the hospitality provided by lodges in Harare. Youell (1998:29) highlighted that tourist are becoming more sophisticated in their purchasing habits; they will increasingly expect higher standards of customer service, product and service quality, while still demanding value for money. Tribe (1997) in Egmond (2007) argued that amongst accommodation providers, there is still a lack of comprehensive study into the heterogeneity, complexity and dynamics for tourists or guest needs and wants. Failure to study and implement the recommendations of this psychological force has led to most lodges in Harare not to adhere to set quality standards.

Whilst the Statutory Instrument 128 of 2005 and the Labor Act Chapter 28:01 advocates for designated tourist facility to ensure that at least 25% of employees be trained from institutions duly Recognised and registered with the ministry responsible for higher education, observation is that majority of lodges in Harare are being manned by less qualified employees. Elephant and West-end lodges for example, are being manned by students from Harare and Gweru polytechnic. The students are in-charge of most day-to-day operations of the lodge, from Front office services, housekeeping, kitchen services, administration and food and beverages. The Rhodesian Hotel and Catering Gazette January 1979 noted that Hotels and lodges can be persecuted if they fail to distinguish duties, for example general duties hand and kitchen porter. General duties hand means an employee performing general labouring and cleaning duties. Whereas kitchen porter is an employee who is employed on one or more of the following duties: cleaning the kitchen, service and scullery and all the apparatus, cleaning and preparing raw vegetables, or fish, plucking poultry, or game, collecting, cleaning, washing or sorting plates, crockery or glass. This is however absent in most lodges in Harare, today. The kitchen porter is sometimes the general duties hand and housekeeper. And because students are manning lodges with no or less mentoring, this has gone against the standard requirements of the Statutory Instrument 128 of 2005 that requires that employees of a designated tourist facility to be supervised by well trained and experienced personnel.

To add on, it is observed that there is low morale in most lodges sighting a command approach management style and wide salary gap between top management and shop floor workers. For instance, most General Managers are earning a salary of at least US$1 800whilst shop floor workers are earning about US$250 and students on attachmentUS$100.However, the Rhodesian Hotel and Catering Gazette January 1979:18 reports that all hotels and lodges employees were placed in a grade appropriate to occupation and wages paid accordingly. Any employee and employer who agree to receive and pay less than the prescribed wage; both may be prosecuted for a breach of the agreement.

The study appreciates the Occupational Health and Safety Laws that are applicable in the Tourism and Hospitality industry which are enshrined within the Labor Act 28:01 and Statutory Instrument 128 of 2005 that require for employees to put on uniforms and protective clothing in service departments such as housekeeping, kitchen, waitering, food and beverages and maintenance. These departments are crucial because the employee is in direct conduct with the guest.

Hence, as a standard measure, employees must put on uniforms which are clean, uniform, inspected and which discourage the transfer of bacteria from say housekeeping to kitchen. It is by this research study that lodges such as Southerton, Octopalm and Elmsfield though assumed not to be registered, employees assigned duties in housekeeping, food and beverages and maintenance do not wear uniforms and do not have protective clothing. This is a health risk to both the employee and customer. There is a possible transfer of bacteria from housekeeping to kitchen and to customer during waitering. However, it is by this evidence that the research study is motivated into investigating the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe.

A report from the Parliamentary debates, House of Assembly volume 39:13 (07-05-2013), advocated for organisations to move with the current technology times. The report advocated that organisation would be better able to deliver quality services to both its internal and external customer. Hotels such as Meikles and Jameson use the Medallion information system and Crown Plaza use Opera information system so to enhance efficiency and effective operations, support decision making and support strategies for competitive advantage. Information system in the Tourism and Hospitality industry aid in making reservations, cashing up, linking front office, bar, restaurant, kitchen, and management. However, the application of modern technology such as computer software providing reservation services, housekeeping discrepancy services, and receipting services seem to be absent in most lodges in Harare. Telephone services linking the front office and rooms is absent in most lodges. Examples include Elephant lodge, West-end lodge, Southerton lodge, Octopalm lodge, Elmsfield lodge, and Selous lodge. Also, the importance of information systems as illustrated by Pyramid 1 seem to be absent in most lodges in Harare.

Figure 1.1: IT Aiding in Supporting Strategy, Decision Making and Business Operations. Source: O'Brien.J. (2000), Introduction to Information Systems. 9th Edition, McGraw Hill, Boston.

Youell (1998:29) advocated for accommodation providers to respond quickly to changes in the marketplace, technology and effective human resources strategies

so to reap the benefits of the predicted growth in international and domestic tourism. According to the Old Mutual July 2014 Economic Brief, the World Bank revised Zimbabwe's 2014 economic growth projection down from 3 % to 2% citing underperforming national revenues and weak international commodity prices among other factors. Deflation decelerated as year-on-year inflation for May 2014 closed at -0.19%, up from -0.26% in April 2014. Observation is that economic challenges have been the scapegoat of most lodges on why there are delivering poor service quality. Hence, the research study would like to find out whether or not Zimbabwe's economic challenges are contributing towards lodges not adhering to set quality standards.

Besides the economic challenges, the Urban Councils Act Chapter 29:15 and the map of Harare City Council clearly bring out the reserved areas for lodges. The reserved areas according to the Harare City Council map give room for lodges' physical expansion, taking into consideration moral and ethics associated with lodges, bigger parking space and where tourists can easily reach. This is however contrary to what is taking place in Harare. An example would be Westend and Elephant lodges' which some of the rooms are very small being less than 10m². According to the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority grading team minimum room area excluding sanitary / restroom facilities for a standard lodge must be at least 10m² for a comfort lodge 14m² and luxury 18m². However, lodges seem to be mushrooming everywhere in Harare. Some are being illegally located in residential areas and also not registered especially in residential areas such as Southerton, Glen View, Budiriro, Avenues area and Highfield. Where lodges are operating illegally the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority grading team and those responsible for International Standards Organisation (1SO) are unable to set quality standards there. The Ministry of Health is also unable to set up health and hygiene standards and enforcing the Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) system.

To compare, the South African lodges located in its capital city Johannesburg, such as Dibiloni lodge, Morning noon and Night lodge, and Fly Inn lodge charge between R175 to R430 which when converted to United States of America dollar (US$) is US$18 to US$45 per night. These lodges offer DSTV on a flat screen television, WIFI, tea facilities, spare blanket and sheets and toiletries. These lodges strictly adhere to the quality set standards tabled by the South Africa Tourism Authority (S.A.T.A) such as, beds must be replaced after every 5 to 7 years and guests are kings that must never be offered wet or dirty linen. Whilst most Zimbabwean lodges such as Elmsfield, Octopalm and Southerton lodge charge between US$10 to US$15 per hour without the same incentives as South African lodges have. Lodges such as Jacaranda, Ruvimbo, Aqua and Westend only offer the same facilities as South African lodges have when there charging accommodation services at a rate of between US$40 to US$70 per night.

Against this background, the research study would like to find out what causes lodges in Harare not to adhere to quality set standards. Harare houses the head offices of Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, Standards Association of Zimbabwe, Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe Council for Tourism, Ministry of Health and the biggest City Council Authority in the country.

Example 4: **The enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level and rural communities in Zimbabwe:** (Marunda, 2014) Tourism in Zimbabwe contributes significantly to the economy creation and support to the country's tourism and hospitality industry agriculture and mining. Up until the end of the Second World War, there was virtually no tourism in Zimbabwe with the Victoria Falls hotel built in 1904 being the only available accommodation unit. Significant tourism developments started emerging in the 1950's, initiating some improvements in facilities, and coinciding with the growth tourism in the 1960's. Zimbabwe's tourism after the promulgation of the Hotels Act in 1968 when many hotels were refurbished anticipation of grading. A new significant attraction lake Kariba was built in 1958. Figure 1.1 shows tourists' arrivals in Zimbabwe since 1964.
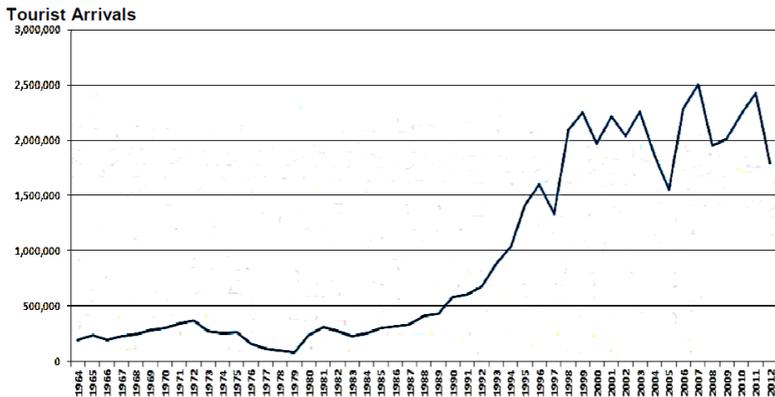
Tourist Arrivals

Figure 1.1: Tourist arrivals 1964 (ZTA, 2012)

In the pre-independence era arrival figures reached a peak in 1972 but fell gradually to a low of 79 000 in 1980 due to the process of figures to Zimbabwe peaked in 1999 only to steadily decline thereafter increased drastically again as from 2006 to just over two and a half million in 2007. The country however recorded 1 794 230 arrivals in 2012.

Tourism in Zimbabwe is based on its natural heritage which comprises national parks, wildlife and its unique cultural heritage like the Great Zimbabwe, the Victoria Falls etc. Reviewed literature (Murphree, 1991; Petersen, 1991; McIvor, 1994) reveals that studies already carried out on the subject area, have focused on CAMPFIRE projects. These in turn have concentrated on wildlife management especially, the management of elephant populations and distribution of proceeds from hunting and photographic safaris. Recommendations have been made regarding institutionalised guidelines. The Zimbabwe Trust Report (1991) in respect of community-based tourism projects in Muzarabani and Mavuradonha suggests creating an institutional structure that ensures genuine community participation in eco- tourism and the equitable distribution of benefits to local communities. McIvor (1994) recommends the establishment of guidelines and regulations between communities and private operators to ensure equitable

distribution of benefits derived from hunting or other types of tourism. He argues that while CAMPFIRE is a step in the right direction, it does not go far enough towards realising its aim. Of late sustainability is seen as the logical approach to matching the requirements of conservation and development to ensure long term viability.

CAMPFIRE clearly shows that a gap exists between policy endorsement and policy implementation. Shortcomings in the implementation process arise because of conflicts between resource management agencies, tourism developers and the communities affected. To achieve greater tourism environment compatibility, the introduction of education to all tourism interest groups especially the host communities, tourism developers and school children who are the future custodians of the industry is necessary.

Tourism based on wildlife, demands large tracts of land to be set aside as animal habitats, thereby forcing land planners to forego other activities giving rise to conflicts over for land use options. Moreover, national parks are extremely fragile ecosystems. Following extensive spatial developments, the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Estates in Zimbabwe was formed in 1964.

Before the advent of the white man, the locals had arguably managed their wildlife in a sustainable fashion, killing only those animals that were necessary for their own habitually subsistence needs. They would not hunt down pregnant animals as an example. In a bid to make way for National Parks, land was taken away from the people, resulting in the villagers losing their food supplements, wild fruits, fish, and meat. They could no longer enter the National Parks to hunt for meat or harvest firewood. Grazing was poor and animals died or consequently gave very little milk and labour. Straying animals into National Parks were shot or confiscated. Honey could no longer be collected from 'state land'. Traditional healers could no longer collect their herbs for medicinal purposes.

Frequent migration of animals into neighbouring communities in search for food caused widespread destruction of crops and to compound the problem, communal farmers were routinely killed as they were trying to protect their crops or property. Only National Parks had the right to kill problem animals such as hyenas or lions that attack humans. Following these developments, National Parks suddenly became the bone of contention for the local communities living around the parks increasing hostility between the National Parks rangers, tourists and the local communities (MacIvor, 1994).

The benefits to be reaped out of tourism often attract related costs which, if not checked on time, will cause the downfall of the tourism industry itself. Careful planning can bring about tourism development that can benefit local communities and the host economy in a sustainable manner.

Figure 1.2: Tourism receipts in Zimbabwe for the period 1979 - 2012
Source ZTA 2012
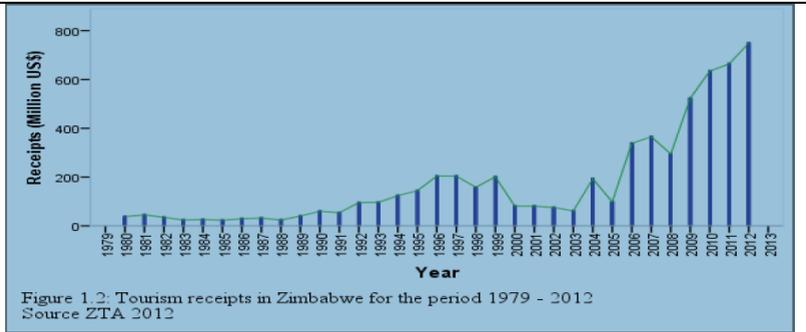
Figure 1.2 below shows the receipts from tourism since independence in 1980

Although eco- and cultural tourism are being generally paraded as a panacea for the economic, social, environmental and cultural problems found in rural communities, there are few or no existing guidelines to foster sustainable tourism development. Such a guideline to govern the implementation of eco- and cultural tourism to the maximum economic benefits of rural communities at the same time, augmenting the minimising of negative social and cultural impacts.

Zimbabwe launched the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) projects in 1989. This programme was introduced at the beginning to curb poaching which was rampant in those National Parks neighbouring Communal areas, and later developed to include local communities for a share in the requisite financial benefits, while encouraging them to conserve the environment. Although CAMPFIRE projects have enjoyed considerable success throughout the country, local communities are yet to realise the full benefits in terms of financial empowerment and conservation efforts but at the same time being meaningfully involved in the implementation of these projects.

Example 5: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**
Globally, inferior quality products have been synonymously associated with low to medium rated hotels in the hospitality and tourism industry from countries such as Nigeria, India, Malaysia, Ghana and South Africa (Christie *et al.*, 2013; Anuar *et al.*, 2017; Maarof & Fatimah, 2016). Research shows that the problem is more apparent in developing countries but findings by Sainidis *et al.*, (2016) have also indicated that 43.3% of hotels in the United Kingdom (UK) failed to maintain the quality of their services during the recession period in the UK. Zimbabwean hotels are without exception. The country is lowly ranked at 114 out of 136 countries, conferring to the 2017 Global Competitiveness Report by World Economic Forum. According to the ZTA annual reports, since 2007; average occupancy rate per annum of hotels in Zimbabwe has never exceeded 53% as shown in Table 1.1 below. In 2017, one of the biggest hotel chains in Zimbabwe, the Rainbow Tourism Group (RTG), recorded an occupancy rate of 57% which is their highest since the year 2000 (RTG Annual Report, 2017). In 2019 the overall national average bed occupancy declined by 7 points from 39% in 2018 to 32% in 2019 (ZTA, 2019). Although various quality managements systems exist such as total quality management (TQM), ISO 9001:2008, ISO 9001, ISO 14001, Malcom Baldridge National Quality Award, Demning 14 points and six sigma (Foris *et al.*, 2018;

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Nanda, 2016) quality improvement tools, very little has been done to embrace quality systems by hotels in Zimbabwe so that they become more competitive.

Table 1.1: Zimbabwe Hotel Occupancy (2007-2017)

	Room Capacity in 2019	Room occupancy %												
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Harare	2491	36	50	55	53	53	58	52	59	57	57	55	63	49
Bulawayo	785	34	48	48	49	47	51	52	44	42	37	46	51	37
Mutare/Vumba	537	42	46	47	57	57	44	42	40	38	40	41	48	45
Nyanga	244	24	22	22	33	33	35	42	41	37	42	37	45	37
Midlands	314	26	29	37	36	35	62	51	35	29	33	37	37	36
Masvingo	190	30	39	30	49	49	54	45	37	43	32	46	44	35
Kariba	447	29	40	23	40	40	46	43	45	38	49	43	44	33
Hwange	293	14	12	14	24	25	26	27	21	19	22	25	31	19
Victoria Falls	1199	29	28	40	46	50	45	53	49	49	52	55	58	52
Beitbridge	176	49	73	61	63	62	61	42	32	14	23	18	37	27
National	**6676**	**34**	**41**	**46**	**52**	**52**	**52**	**48**	**48**	**46**	**47**	**48**	**53**	**44**

Source: Zimbabwe Tourism Authority Annual Reports (2007- 2019)

Zimbabwe is the second largest tourist destination in Southern Africa and the aggregate contribution of tourism to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2019 was $USD1.2 billion which contributed 7.3% of the total GDP (ZTA, 2019). In 2019 alone, the tourism sector in Zimbabwe contributed about 5.1% of the jobs in the country with around 159 500 people employed in the industry. Though the industry was second best in Southern Africa, its contribution was significantly very little as compared to USD 24.6 billion to the GDP of South Africa and 9.1% of total employment (WTTC, 2020). Whilst it can be argued that the South African economy is significantly larger than the Zimbabwean economy, South Africa offers better priced tourism packages and products (Du Plessis & Saayman, 2015). Table 1.2 below shows the economic impact of tourism to Zimbabwe's economy from 2007 to 2019.

Table 1.2: **Percentage contribution of Tourism to GDP, employment and Exports** (ZTA Annual Reports, 2007-2019)

Year	GDP Value %	Employment %	Exports %
2019	7.2	5.2	4.7
2018	6.3	3.7	4.7
2017	3.0	1.7	4.7
2016	3.5	2.3	7.3
2015	5.2	3.0	9.0
2014	5.6	3.5	9.5
2013	5,5	3.6	10
2012	5.9	4	10.7
2011	5.7	4.1	8.9
2010	8.8	4.4	10.3
2009	6.5	---	----
2008	21.8	----	----
2007	16.8	-----	----

Zimbabwe has many tourist attractions and has natural wonders and sights that often get massive attention from both international and local tourist (ZTA, 2019). The country has vast business opportunities in tourism, mining, agriculture and manufacturing. Based on these business opportunities, business in the hotel industry is naturally expected to be high but the opposite is true. Many countries in the Southern African region connect to each other by road through Zimbabwe. There are many hotels in Zimbabwe including world famous hotels (Holiday Inn, Crown Plaza) located in cities and resort areas. The hotels are registered with the ZTA and are star rated. The hotels provide their services to tourists, travellers, businesspeople who hold meetings and conferences, and private functions. The hotels are owned by international corporations, local businesspeople and local institutions operating as chain hotels or independent hotels. The hotels are facing quality problems as most of their problems emanate from cleanliness, food quality, customer service, ambience, bedding, lighting, water and security according to the review by one of the biggest and popular travel blogs (TripAdvisor, 2020). Looking at quality from a human standpoint, Pareto analysis, check sheets, cause and effect diagram brings out relatively similar problems of quality among the hotels. The researcher has been a practitioner in the hospitality industry for eleven years. During my eleven years of experience, I noted relatively similar major and ancillary causes of poor quality in the hotels. The hotels are lagging in the adoption of quality management systems especially low to medium rated hotels. Table 1.3 below shows the hotels in Harare, their grade, ownership, location, level of service and size.

Table 1.3: *Hotels in Harare* (Research Data)

Hotel	Size /Number of rooms	Ownership /Affiliation	Grade (star)	Location	Level of Service
Rainbow Towers Hotel	305	Chain	5	Suburban	Luxury
New Ambassador Hotel	72	Chain	3	Downtown	Mid-range
Meikles Hotel	312	Independent	4	Downtown	Luxury
Cresta Jameson Hotel	122	Chain	3	Downtown	Mid-range
Cresta Lodge Hotel	175	Chain	4	Suburban	Luxury
Cresta Oasis Hotel	110	Chain	3	Downtown	Mid-range
Russel Hotel	?	Chain	2	Suburban	Economy
Harare Safari Lodge Hotel	12	Independent	1	Suburban	Economy
Holiday Inn Harare	201	Chain	3	Downtown	Mid-range
The N1 Hotel	?	Independent	2	Downtown	Economy
Bronte Hotel	102	Independent	3	Suburban	Mid-range
Monomotapa hotel	180	Chain	4	Downtown	Luxury
Pandhari Hotel	71	Independent	3	Suburban	Mid-range
Queens Hotel	35	Independent	2	Downtown	Economy
Hotel Almond	40	Independent	1	Downtown	Economy
Selous Hotel	50	Independent	2	Downtown	Economy
Queens Hotel	?	Independent	1	Downtown	Economy
Golden Peacock Hotel and Villa (Segecoa)	?	Chain	3	Suburban	Mid-range
Elizabeth Hotel	?	Independent	1	Downtown	Economy

Studies by Mugondi (2015), Maphosa (2014), Chikosha (2016), Mangwiro *et al.*, (2015), Chivandi and Maziri (2017) and Zengeni *et al.*, (2014) show that local hotels are increasingly facing quality problems. To deal with this challenge, Zimbabwe's hotels need to adopt quality management systems to improve their competitive advantage by reducing costs of services, improving service delivery and improving quality of products. The hotels have failed to adopt quality

management systems due to several causes such as shortage of finance, lack of support from the owners, resistance to change, cultural and religious beliefs and high cost of finance (Maarof and Fatimah, 2016). Apparently, hotels in Zimbabwe seem to be struggling with the adoption of QMS. Recent efforts by the Standards Association of Zimbabwe (SAZ), Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe (HAZ) and the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) to engage hotels to standardise their products and services have not yielded much anticipated results as most of them fail to acquire credit or working capital to standardise their products (Maphosa, 2014). Research shows that failure to standardise products and services results in variation of product quality, poor service and wastage of service and ultimately results in a reduction in customer base which affects hotel revenues (Mmutle & Shonhe, 2017).

The quality of tourism products and services seem to be affected by high labour turnover which has led to a gradual decrease in both product and service consistency. According to Vincenzo (2020), the direct impact of high labour turnover in the tourism and hospitality industry has led to high training costs. It also affects competitiveness and operating profit especially when key personnel leave which result in poor service delivery. Of late, the current economic environment has been very difficult for hotel proprietors in the hospitality and tourism industry. In Zimbabwe, all hotels operate below 52% capacity (ZTA, 2019).

Measuring success of quality management systems amongst hotels is particularly difficult in the sense that most facilities have poor record keeping procedures. Studies carried out in Zimbabwe show that literature is scant and only seemed to focus on TQM of large organisations in the manufacturing industry at the expense of the hospitality and tourism industry (Ngwenya and Sibanda, 2016; Maga *et al.*, 2013). The present study seeks to explore the factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in particular to the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe had implemented five different economic development strategies (Economic Blueprints) since 2007 which are Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy -ZEDS (2007-2011), Short Term Emergency Recover Programme I -STERP (2009) and Short-Term Emergency Recover Programme II -STERP (2010-2012), Medium Term Plan – MTP (2011-2015), Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation – ZIMASSET (2013-2018) and The Transitional Stabilisation Programme -TSP (2019). Despite the economic blueprints recognising tourism and hospitality industry as one of the pillars in the development of the economy, no significant growth was recorded in the industry which can be attributed to quality issues. The government of Zimbabwe has set Vision 2030 'Towards a Prosperous and Empowered Upper Middle-Income Society' and its realisation is anchored on the Zimbabwe's National Development Strategy 1 (NDS) 2021-2025 (Government of Zimbabwe, 2021). The implementation of economic development strategy demands a model of quality management system (QMS) adoption in the hotel industry and other industries for realisation of positive economic results. Past economic blueprints failed to produce expected results since their implementation was not supported with empirical models. This research will lead to the development of a model of quality management system (QMS) adoption in the hotel industry grounded on a multiple case study of hotels in Zimbabwe.

***Example 6:* Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**
Travel and tourism have become the world's largest and fastest growing industry, and its growth shows a consistent year to year increase (UNWTO, 2018). The

sector contributes directly to 5% of the world's GDP, one in 12 jobs globally, and is a major export sector for many countries, both in the developing and developed world (UNWTO, 2018). The increase in global tourism numbers (1 billion in 2012) compared to 710 million in 2000 (UNWTO, 2001) has resulted in intense competition between destinations to grow their market shares (UNWTO, 2019). According to UNWTO (2019), international tourist arrivals rose by 6 % in 2018 to hit the 1.4-billion mark, from 1.3 billion in 2017. The UNWTO's tourism forecast which was published in 2010 suggested that the 1.4 billion arrivals would be attained in 2020, yet the rapid tourism growth on the international scale has seen that target being attained two years ahead of time (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority [ZTA], 2016). The global expansion, especially of the media-tech savvy travellers, urges tourism and hospitality business organisations to wrestle fiercely not only for the tourist's expenditure but also for their voice and mind. This demands that each national tourist organisation presents its country as the most appealing destination in the region or world.

Tourism products, unlike manufactured ones, are characterized by perishability, inseparability and intangibility (Muhoho-Minni, 2016). The intangibility of tourism products means that their image is the only way which potential tourists have of comparing destinations and choosing between them and therefore it is important to create and transmit favourable images to potential tourists in target markets (Kyalo, Katuse, & Kiriri, 2016). As tourism services are intangible, images become more important than reality (Kyalo *et al.*, 2016). Nyaruwata and Douglas (2017) suggested that as tourism destination products and services cannot be tested prior to purchase, consumers must build images of them and make their purchase decision based on those images. This makes the tourist's perceptions of the product not only a fundamental component of the decision-making process, but also a key determinant of the performance of the tourist destination.

Destination image (DI) is increasingly viewed as a strategic issue that can contribute to the competitiveness of tourism destinations (Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007; Pike & Page, 2014a). A strong DI gives a competitive advantage over other destinations (Artuger & Cetinsoz, 2017). Creevey, Kidney, and Mehta (2019) posited that a positive DI enhances the probability of greater tourist numbers. In fact, the creation of positive DI has been claimed to affect the very viability of destinations (Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou, & Andronikidis, 2016; Xu, 2010). This tends to add weight to the argument that image is one of the drivers of the performance of the tourism sector. This derives from the fact that the image of a destination is one of the main factors that prospective visitors consider when choosing a holiday (Muhoho Minni, 2016). This view is shared by Agyeiwaah *et al.* (2019) who highlighted that image enhancement is high on the agenda of destination marketing organisations (DMOs) owing to its critical role in determining tourists' decision making, patronage and recommendation of a destination.

The idea of DI was introduced into tourism studies in the early 1970s by Gartner and Hunt (1987), Ben-Akiba, Gunn, and Silman (1984) and Pike (2007) and has since become one of the most researched topics in tourism-related research UNWTO (2015) due to its association with tourism performance (Xu & Ye, 2018). However, there is a less marked mention of DI recovery and performance in literature, that is, the DI recovery-performance correlation has been marginalised.

Some studies have focused on DI and tourist loyalty (Agyeiwaah *et al.*, 2019; Chang *et al.*, 2010). Others have examined DI and technology (film, Internet and others) (de la HozCorrea, Muñoz-Leiva, & Bakucz, 2018; Kanokanga & Mabwe, 2018). Some have investigated DI and information sources (de la Hoz-Correa *et al.*, 2018; Shafiee *et al,* 2016) while some have focused on DI and branding (Creevey *et al.*, 2019; Miličević, Mihalič, & Sever, 2017). A sizeable number of scholars has investigated DIs held by particular groups of people (Artuger & Cetinsoz, 2017; Pike & Page, 2014b; Stylos *et al.*, 2016). Some scholars have examined DI and events (Avraham, 2016; Avraham & Ketter, 2017). There is therefore an interstice in research on DI recovery and performance nexus.

Globally, France, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, the United States, Spain and China continue to top the rankings in terms of both international arrivals and receipts in 2018 (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2017). The sound performance of these tourist destinations tended to suggest a strong DI. The European continent continued to lead in terms of arrivals in 2017 (713 million, plus six percent). The UNWTO (2017) noted that Europe owes its strong DI and sound tourism performance to the fact that European governments have well-funded, competent tourist authorities with both marketing and development powers, supported by a robust tourism infrastructure (UNWTO, 2017). Furthermore, the use of a single European currency, the euro, in many European countries has facilitated tourism in the region. In 2018, Asia and Pacific registered 343 million arrivals, (+3%) coming second after Europe, the Americas (217 million, plus six percent) and the Middle East (64 million, +10%) (UNWTO, 2018). Africa which received 67 million arrivals (plus seven percent) got a mere 3 million arrivals ahead of the Middle East. This suggested that Africa, like the Middle East, was faced with a weak DI when compared to the other world regions such as Asia and Pacific, the Americas and Europe.

Africa's weak image was generally attributed to political upheavals, disease, a poor infrastructure, poverty, and frequent droughts (Avraham & Ketter, 2017). These factors negatively impacted the economies of the African destinations and specifically, the tourism economies. Avraham and Ketter (2017) identified Africa's 'unfortunate' image as an obstacle to the region's competitiveness in the global tourism market, ascertaining that there is overwhelming evidence to suggest that Africa faces a huge challenge in counteracting the continent's prolonged negative image and perceived risks as a tourist destination. This was part of the reason why in 2018 Africa attracted only five percent of the international overnight visitors, accounting for 67 million international tourists (UNWTO, 2019) against a global total of 1.403 billion international tourists. Tourist arrivals in sub-Saharan Africa grew by 6% with the island destinations, namely Cabo Verde, Reunion and Mauritius registering strong growth (UNWTO, 2019). Kenya witnessed a rise too especially in July and August, thanks to improved air connectivity. South Africa, the sub region's most visited destination, reported a most growth partly owing to its strong currency and a drought which mainly affected Cape Town, one of South Africa top tourist destinations.

What seems to be emerging from the above discussion is that many African destinations, including Zimbabwe, are faced with a challenge of a weak DI and an

equally weak performance of the tourism sector. They therefore needed to explore DI recovery strategies which could enhance the performances of their tourism sectors. The negative image bedevilling destinations in sub-Saharan Africa was highlighted by the African Development Bank-(AfDB, 2018) whose study established that despite the many unique and fascinating tourism attractions in Sub-Saharan Africa, the sub-region is still the least visited in the world. The AfDB (2018) suggested that the poor performance of the tourism sector in the region was due to poor image, among other factors. Part of the solution to the poor DI image lay in the African governments demonstrating more political will to develop tourism (Zengeni, Zengeni, & Chipungu, 2015).

There is a dearth of research on destination performance (Ben Aissa & Goaied, 2017). Scholars who have explored tourism performance include (Ben Aissa & Goaied, 2017; Enright & Newton, 2004; Griffin *et al.*, 2014; Kaurav, Baber, Chowdhary, & Kapadia, 2015; Mapingure, du Plessis, & Saayman, 2019). However, these researchers did not explore DI and the performance of the tourism sector jointly. This study sought to fill this interstice.

The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) have made efforts to react to the tarnished image through various promotions focusing on rebranding as an exceptional ingredient to give the country's tourism a facelift (Chigora & Zvavahera, 2015). This has seen Zimbabwe as a tourist destination rebranding three times between 1980 and 2011 (Chigora & Mutambara, 2019). The 20th edition of the UNWTO General Assembly which was co-hosted by Zimbabwe and Zambia in Victoria Falls in 2013 was believed to have potential for positive ripple effects in rejuvenating the tourism sectors of the two countries (Njerekai & Mabika, 2016). However, it appears that the negative image has remained in place, well after the hosting of the highly touted UNWTO General Assembly. Zimbabwe's tourism arrivals and receipts indicate that the sector has been on an unstable path in the last decades, with fluctuating performances in tandem with the deteriorating local economic conditions and the global economic crisis in 2008 exacerbated by the global economic crisis/credit crisis which affected mostly developed world tourism markets and led to many traditional tourists cutting back on their travel and leisure expenditure (Zhou, Qu, & Li, 2016).

In Zimbabwe, tourism is one of the four pillars anchoring economic growth after Agriculture, Mining and Manufacturing (Chigora, Nyoni, & Mutambara, 2019). Moreover, Chigora *et al.* (2019) pointed out that the tourism economy in Zimbabwe is critical because of its employment and foreign currency generative capacity. The tourism economy includes direct industry and private and government investment in the travel and tourism sectors, and the domestic supply chains providing inputs for the direct industry (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2016). The travel and tourism sector employs about 180 028 people in Zimbabwe (World Economic Forum, 2017). However, it is possible that the sector supports an additional 150 000 jobs indirectly (Zhou *et al.*, 2016). This is because owing to the multiplier effect of the tourism sector, downstream jobs have always been associated with tourism development. Taxi drivers, entertainers in hotels and near tourist attractions and similar places as well those who sell souvenirs and artifacts represent downstream jobs. However, the economic downturn has seen the closure of some firms such as African Sun's Beitbridge Express Hotel and National Social Security-owned hotel which had a management contract with the Rainbow Tourism Group. The

possible effect of this is a rise in the numbers of the unemployed in Zimbabwe. A study by Bhebhe *et al.* (2015) on unemployed educated youths in Zimbabwe found out that the country has the highest unemployment rate in the world, at 95%. The likely result of this is a rise in criminal activity which in turn is bound to influence tourist perception and hence negatively affect DI and performance. Janicke, David, and Chapuis (2015) pointed out that perceived risk has been suggested as an important inhibitor to travel.

Zimbabwe, as a tourist destination, enjoyed peace and a positive image between 1986 and 1996 and tourist arrivals were rising (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2017). However, the period after the financial crisis of 1997 saw an unpredictable trend in terms of tourist arrivals. The Land Reform and the accompanying negative publicity and the General Elections of 2008 (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2016), were some of the causes of the unpredictability of tourism performance (Figure 1.1). The slump in tourism performance is also related to the challenge of growing the overseas market (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2015) which the destination is grappling with that in turn could be bordering on image. Given the past trend, the recent growth in Zimbabwean tourism does not seem to be sustainable and guaranteed. Similar rises have been witnessed before.

Woyo *et al.* (2019) have posited that since Zimbabwe had now begun a new era dubbed the 'new dispensation', a fresh approach which was buttressed by a new and better set of strategies was a prerequisite to turning around DI and performance of its tourism sector. Strategies which result in regaining lost ground and support the mantra Zimbabwe is 'open for business', were required (Woyo *et al.*, 2019). Figure 1.1 shows the foreign tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe 1999-2018.
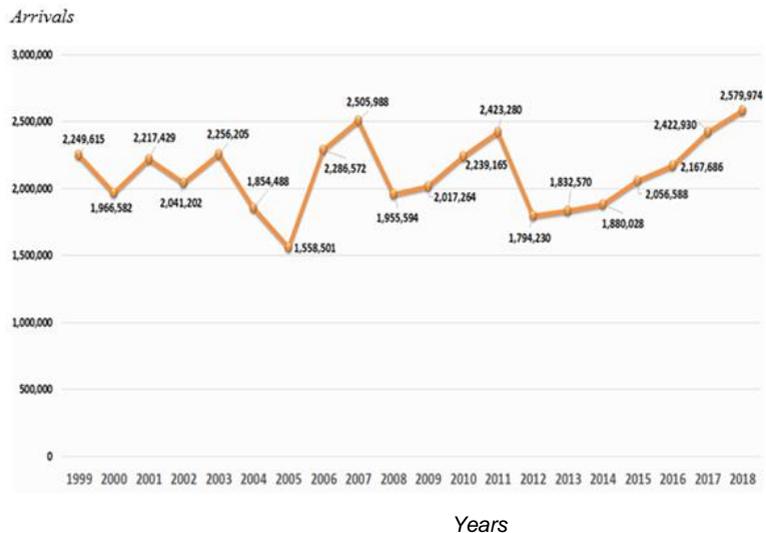
Figure 1. 1: Foreign Tourist Arrivals 1999-2018 (ZTA, 2018)

In analysing these backgrounds, the following points emerge:
- ☐ They are brief, specific and give an overview of the problem.
- ☐ The language used is simple and straightforward.
- ☐ This section engages the interest of the reader. Previous studies that justify what the authors are proposing are cited.
- ☐ The authors portray their familiarity with current happenings in relation to the problem being addressed.
- ☐ The funnel approach is used. Discussion starts with a global perspective and eventually focuses on the country in question.

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM
A research problem refers to an issue, concern or gap that puzzles the researcher or society at large. This may be due to its effect or consistence despite measures taken. For example, a researcher may be puzzled as to why holiday travel is still high despite the increase in prices. A researcher may also wonder why the incidence of human wildlife conflict is still high in communal areas near national parks. These are concerns that may result in the formulation of a research question.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE RESEARCH PROBLEM
The following qualities are reflected in an effective research problem:
a) The research problem is clearly stated. It is concise. The reader is made aware that there is a definite issue that needs to be solved. This is mainly because the problem stands out clearly and is easily recognised.
b) Evidence to support the existence of the problem is provided.
c) The research problem has an impact on the whole topic being investigated.
d) The research problem clearly indicates the urgency of the research and shows that the research is needed.
e) The problem is 'researchable', this refers to a problem that can be systematically investigated through the collection and analysis of data.
f) Scholars are cited when stating the problem. Recent dates make the problem current and interesting.

g) The language used is simple and objective. No poetic, comical or emotional language is used.

There are various steps that should be taken to write an effective research problem.

1. *Reflection –* The statement of a research problem usually starts with an idea the researcher might have as to what kind of a problem he/she wants to solve or what questions the researcher wants to answer in a selected topic. Everyday practices and experiences usually bring up questions the researcher wants to answer. These are fertile grounds for identifying the research problem. The researcher should write down some research ideas he/she has been debating based on the selected topic. Reflection involves assessing the selected research topic and title and thinking of the best way to reflect the riddle in the research topic. The researcher should also attempt to reflect on key issues in the topic and independent and dependent variables of the study.

2. *Identification* - After identifying the key variables, the researcher should attempt to identify the key uncertainties. The researcher should attempt to answer the following questions: Is there something wrong in society, theoretically unclear or in dispute related to the topic selected? Why is this a problem? A problem may simply be a lack of something. For example, a lack of literature on service quality in events.

3. **Formulation** - After identifying the problem, the researcher should formulate it by clearly explaining why this is a problem and how it affects people or institutions. The researcher should indicate what it is he/she knows about the problem, through personal observation and/or research.

4. **Justification** – After stating what the researcher thinks is the problem, he/she should explain briefly the repercussions likely to follow in the long run if the problem is not addressed. The researcher should use the statement of the problem to show that research is needed.

- **Defining the research problem** - One problem faced by researchers in stating the research problem is lack of clarity. The issue being addressed is hardly noticeable in the research problem. Let us take the example of *Problems faced by hotels in Zimbabwe*. In this statement the reader will not be made aware of the definite issue that needs to be solved. This is mainly because the problem is not clearly stated. There are many problems faced by hotels which include economic, social, technological, legislative, and so forth.

- **Lack of unity between the research problem, objectives and literature review** - Sometimes there is hardly any relationship between the research problem, the objectives and the literature review. For example, in a study on the factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in hotels, the problem may be that little has been done to create awareness of the importance of quality management systems in hotels. However, if literature review simply concentrates on the benefits of quality management systems, it is not addressing the question raised. The literature review should attempt to clarify what is raised in the problem. The research problem should have an influence on the whole topic being investigated.

- **Lack of urgency** - Some research problems do not reflect urgency for the study. The problem at times lacks any supportive evidence that if not tackled, the repercussions could be serious for the country in general and individuals in particular.

- **Emotional language** – Some research statements lack objectivity and only reinforce the researcher's emotional views over the selected topic. Some of the emotionally identified problems cannot be easily investigated through the collection and analysis of data.

EXAMPLES OF THE STATEMENTS OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Example 1: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

For the past 13 years, from 2007 to 2019 (Table 1.1), hotel occupancy has never surpassed an average occupancy rate of 52% at national level according to the

Zimbabwe Tourism Annual reports of 2007 to 2019. Room capacity has been growing slowly from 6 266 rooms in 2007 to 6 676 in 2019 which is a growth of 6.5%. There was also an unchanged hotel clientele mix of 84% locals and 16% foreigners (ZTA, 2019, p.41). Also, tourism contribution to GDP, employment and exports in the past 13 years remained below 2-digit figures with only a record of a 2-digit figure towards GDP in the years of hyperinflation (Table 1.2). This evidence echoes a compromised and unsustainable standard of operations in the hotels. There is reason to believe that the low economic impact of tourism in terms of GDP, employment and exports in Zimbabwe is due to the late adoption of quality management systems in the tourism industry.

Over the last twenty years, hotels have discovered quality to be fundamental to sustainable operations; market distinction, increasing customers, competitive advantage, and creating employment (Oliveras-Villanueva *et al.*, 2020; Abdou *et al.*, 2020; Mbasera *et al.*, 2016). However, failure to meet quality expected by customers resulted in Zimbabwe's hotel products not attractive to tourist and travellers.

Example 2: **The online marketing strategies of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and South Africa Tourism (SAT): A comparative study (Basera, 2014).**
The research seeks to establish useful lessons that ZTA can learn from SAT marketing strategies given that South Africa's tourism is performing better in Southern Africa than all other countries. Zimbabwe tourism market is shrinking since the turning of the millennium; the negative developments can be corrected if proper online marketing of tourism is adopted at national level. Tourism marketing lays the foundation for the tourism industry development (Duman and Tosun, 2010), thus ZTA needs a vibrant marketing strategy for Zimbabwe's tourism industry to develop. This study compares the online marketing strategies adopted by ZTA and SAT.

Example 3: **The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in South Africa and Zimbabwe (Chikuta, 2015).**
It is evident that People with Disabilities (PwDs) and the aged are a growing market for nature-based tourism (MacAvoy *et al.*, 2006:23; Zeller, 2008:15) and that the potential contribution of this market to tourism and national economies is enormous (Darcy, 1998:2). The fact that nature-based tourism (particularly national parks) is Southern Africa's major tourist draw card due to its natural endowments underlines the importance of this market (Snyman, 2000). Among Southern African countries, South Africa and Zimbabwe have the richest endowment of flora and fauna and are home to some of the largest and most renowned national parks such as Kruger National Park and Hwange national Park. These countries could be losing numerous potential tourists due to lack of efforts to make these destinations more universally accessible. Although South African National Parks have guidelines, protocols and products that cater for the disabled, the implementation of these policies often relies on the discretion of park managers and is not uniform across the different parks. In most cases products cater for only one or two disabilities.

***Example 4:* An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe (Ndhlovu, 2015).**
Small to medium size independent hotels in Zimbabwe are faced by a dynamic and competitive environment. The question that remains unanswered is what innovative measures are employed by small to medium size independent hotels in managing business in a dynamic and competitive environment. The hotel industry has not been much scientifically studied and literature on empirical studies is scant (Hjalager, 2010). Therefore the study sought to explore and understand innovative measures employed by small to medium size independent hotels in Harare.

***Example 5:* An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare (Maphosa, 2014).**
For the past 4 years according to the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority accommodation database of 2011 to July 2014 (Table 1), at least 40 out of about 45 registered lodges in Harare have not qualified for an upgrade, 2 downgraded, 3 upgraded and there has been mushrooming of unregistered lodges (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority accommodation database 2011 and July 2014). Also on March 31 1979, A' Zambezi River lodge, Wankie lodge and Zimbabwe safari lodge shut down operations (Rhodesian Hotels and Catering Gazette: November 1979). Majority of these lodges seem to fail genuinely, or deliberately or due to ignorance on not adhering to the quality set standards stipulated by the Statutory Instrument 128 of 2005, International Standards Organisation (ISO), and Tourism and Hospitality authorities. Further on the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority annual report of 2012 page 40, reported a 10% decrease in foreign tourists checking into Lodges and a 5% increase of foreign tourists checking into hotels. This evidence reflects a decrease in hospitality standards being offered by lodges compared to hotels. Hence, the research study is motivated into seeking to find out the obstacles which are hindering lodges to adhere to set quality standards in the Tourism and Hospitality industry.

***Example 6:* The enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level and rural communities in Zimbabwe:** (Marunda, 2014)
The development of tourism in Zimbabwe is based on the unspoiled environment which has strong linkages to the culture of the local people. Only when eco-tourism development takes cognisance of the local communities' culture, will it have a chance to survive the negative impacts of unplanned development. Bringing tourism education to children at an early age and tourism training to the local communities should yield the answer to the sustainable development of tourism in Zimbabwe as a whole.

If an economy consumes natural capital in producing current income, it must of necessity find a means of replacing this capital for posterity (Gillis, Perkins, Roemer, and Snodgrass, 1992). Zimbabwe's tourism and hospitality developments need to merge short-term consumption patterns and economic goals with the long-term

goals of sustainable development to ensure that future generations enjoy the fruits materializing out of the same environment. The focus of this study is to identify a curriculum for the education of primary school learners and for the training of rural communities. This will become a model for the contractual partnerships that should empower schools and communities thereby enabling them to benefit from tourism developments in their areas and take the lead in protecting and preserving their tourism environments

Consequently, the statement of the research problem is based on exploratory research showing a gap that there is hardly any tourism curriculum for primary school learners or any sizable tourism training for local communities. It is therefore within this paradigm that this study seeks to develop a way to introduce tourism education at primary school education level, and training for local communities.

***Example 7:* Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**
Zimbabwe is grappling with a negative tourist DI and a decline in the performance of the tourism sector. Despite several studies, for example (Mapingure *et al*., 2019; Njerekai & Mabika, 2016; Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017; Woyo *et al*., 2019) which have been carried out to improve the performance of the country's tourism sector, image and performance remain problematic. Zimbabwe's travel and tourism competitiveness index (ranking) has not been impressive. In 2015, Zimbabwe was ranked 115 out of 141 tourist destinations across the world and an equally low 114 out of 136 destinations in 2017 (World Economic Forum, WEF, 2017). In terms of prioritization of travel and tourism, Zimbabwe was at 105 out of 136 while it scored a very low 134 out of 136 destinations for its business environment in 2017 (WEF, 2017). In terms of international arrivals, the 2011 figure of 2 423 20 was marginally better than the 2017 figure of 2 422 930 (ZTA, 2018). This suggested a lack of tangible growth in terms of arrivals. The country's image in the source markets is still associated with political instability, policy inconsistency, and disease outbreaks (World Economic Forum, 2017). There is a strong market perception that the destination is not price competitive and that the overall product is tired (ZTA, 2017). Zhou *et al*. (2016) note that ZTA has been promoting tourism through beauty pageants, carnivals and sporting events such as soccer tournaments. The ZTA website has also served as a promotional tool (ZTA, 2018).

However, as indicated by Chigora *et al*. (2019), Zimbabwe is still failing to gain its previous position as a destination of choice. Furthermore, the goal of a middle-income economy for Zimbabwe by 2030 may remain a pipe dream unless there is an improvement in the economic, social and political environments (Chigora *et al*., 2019). Although Zimbabwe's tourist figures have increased here and there since 2008, as a destination, it is still struggling to restore itself to its former glory as a competitive force in southern Africa. Zimbabwe's negative perception hinders its visibility in the international markets as a tourist destination which in turn is reflected

in weak demand among international tour operators and travel agencies (ZTA, 2015). Negative perceptions of tourist destinations lead to the poor performance of the industry (Muhoho-Minni, 2016). The highest number of tourists the country has received (2 579 974) in 2018 almost equals that of 2007 (2 505 988), that is, twelve years ago (Figure 1.1). Unless this problem of a weak image is resolved, Zimbabwe's negative perception in the source markets will remain, and the performance of the tourism sector will remain depressed resulting in a low tourism multiplier effect. This in turn will stifle the sector's contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment, foreign earnings and investment. This study adopted a mixed research methodology to address the question: What sort of DI recovery Model can be developed for enhancing tourism performance in Zimbabwe? Several African destinations continue to depend on destination image recovery models designed largely for Western destinations and hence they do not get the best results. The past models were based on countries of the past researchers. Also, the contribution of price, ancillary services, amenities and accessibility to image recovery and the enhancement of tourism performance has not been given adequate attention by tourism scholars. The study will benefit tourism and hospitality stakeholders such as tourists, the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, tourism and hospitality researchers, planners, policy formulators, tourism and hospitality business operators and local communities.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

In any form of research there is need for indicators that reflect the intention and direction of the study. These indicators should also create the setting for the study the researcher is proposing.

AIMS

Aims are intentions, goals or what the researcher strives to achieve. They are also referred to as long term objectives. For example, in Zimbabwe, one aim of Zimbabwe Tourism Authority is to promote the sustainable growth and development of tourism in Zimbabwe for social and economic benefit of the nation through setting and monitoring of standards marketing, marketing activities. This is a long-term objective. In research an aim is a general statement that reflects the intention or purpose of one's research. It is a general statement of what the researcher hopes to accomplish by the end of the study. The aim reflects the aspirations and expectations of the researcher. They are usually stated in general terms that are not easily measurable.

Aims reflect the outcome of the research. In essence, the aim portrays the overall expectation of the study. By analysing the aims of the study, one can assess the study and evaluate its progress. They assist in the formulation of objectives as they pinpoint the purpose of the study. They also reflect the aspirations and expectations of the researcher. They, therefore, help in identifying whether the research is urgently needed or not.

QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE AIMS

Effective aims portray the following qualities:
a) They are pragmatic. Although they state the purpose of the study, they do not refer to specific issues.
b) They state the accomplishment of a group rather than individuals.
c) They are always stated in general terms that provide direction for research development.
d) They are broad enough to lead to specific objectives.
e) They are clearly stated and are reflective.

STEPS IN CONSTRUCTING EFFECTIVE AIMS

Before writing the purpose of the study, the major steps to be followed are as follows:
a) **Reflection** – The researcher(s) should take time to think about what they want to accomplish by the end of the study. This can be achieved by analysing the title.
b) **Formulation** – The researcher should then write down what the purpose of the study will be.
c) **Analysis** – The researcher should then analyse the selected aims to find out if they address the research problem and research questions.

CHALLENGES FACED IN THE FORMULATION OF AIMS

☐ **Lack of clarity** – One problem faced by researchers in stating the aim of the study is lack of clarity. The purpose of the study is not clearly articulated.

- **Lack of cohesion** – In some research works there is no link between the title, purpose of the study objectives or problem statement.
- **Overambitious aims**- Some researchers set out overambitious studies that may not be achievable based on the sources and time available. For example, as noted previously, a master's student whose aim is to find out the effect of free primary education in a five-year span may not achieve this. This is mainly because most programmes at the master's level run for a span of two years.

Examples of research aims

Example 1: **The online marketing strategies of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and South Africa Tourism (SAT): A comparative study (Basera, 2014).**
To establish useful lessons that ZTA can learn from SAT marketing strategies given that South Africa's tourism is performing better in Southern Africa than all other countries.

Example 2: **The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in Southern Africa and Zimbabwe (Chikuta, 2015).**

To develop a universal accessibility framework for national parks in Southern Africa and Zimbabwe

Example 3: **An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe (Ndhlovu, 2015).**
The aim of the study was to explore innovative measures employed by small to medium size independent hotels in Harare (Zimbabwe) in managing business. It was anticipated that, through a better understanding of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size independent hotels, challenges they faced in embracing innovation and the strategic measures that can improve the operations of these hotels, informed decisions could be made that could enhance the management and competitiveness of these hotels. The section below gives an outline of the research questions that guided the study.

Example 3: **An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare : (Maphosa, 2014)**
The research study seeks to find out the obstacles which are hindering lodges to adhere to set quality standards in the Tourism and Hospitality industry.

Example 4: **The enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level and rural communities in Zimbabwe (Marunda, 2014).**
The study seeks to develop a way to introduce tourism education at primary school education level, and training for local communities.

From the above samples, all the aims formulated are linked to the title. The aims do not refer to specific issues and state the accomplishment of a group rather than individuals.

OBJECTIVES

Objectives are intentions or purposes stated in specific measurable terms. They provide opportunities for evaluating the end results. In research, an objective *is a specific statement relating to the defined aim of the study*. Specific objectives constitute how the major research objectives could be achieved. They specify what the researcher will do in the study. Objectives are operational. They state specific tasks that will be carried out by the researcher to accomplish the aims of the study. These tasks are measurable.

IMPORTANCE OF OBJECTIVES

Objectives play a vital role in research. This includes the following:

a) Objectives guide decisions in the selection of respondents, research instruments and the study area. This assists the researcher to avoid the collection of data which are not strictly necessary for understanding and solving the problem identified.

b) Objectives influence all components of the research design including data analysis and report writing.

c) A clear statement of objectives helps to limit the scope of the literature review. This is necessary for valid outcomes. They assist the researcher to be precise about what to accomplish. They help organise the study in clearly defined phases.

d) Objectives serve to clarify the variables of the study. This helps in the evaluation of the study.

e) Objectives break up the aim into achievable and measurable components. They serve as a guide for evaluation.

f) Objectives provide a common consistent focus for the many activities in research. Some unity in emphasis and some common foci are needed to achieve the goal of the study. This facilitates sequencing.

QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES

Effective objectives display the following qualities:

a) **They are specific** - This means that the objectives selected clearly state what the researcher will do to fulfil the purpose of the study.

b) **They are measurable** - thus can be evaluated.

c) **They are focused** - The objectives should narrow the study to essentials. They should also cover the different aspects of the problem and its contributing factors in a coherent way and in a logical sequence. They should systematically address the various aspects of the problem, particularly the key factors that are assumed to influence or cause the problem.

d) **They are operational** - They should be clearly phrased in operational terms, specifying exactly what the researcher will do.

e) **They are realistic** - therefore achievable.

GUIDELINES IN WRITING OBJECTIVES

To write specific objectives that will be effective to the researcher, the following guidelines should be followed:

☐ **Reflection** - This involves analysing the aim of the study, the topic, and title before formulating the specific objectives. Specific objectives should relate to all these aspects.

☐ **Formulation** - The researcher should write down the specific objectives ensuring that they are measurable and if accomplished will answer the research question.

☐ **Evaluation** - After the formulation of objectives, the researcher should attempt to answer the following questions:

a) Do the objectives address the parts of the research problem?

b) Do the objectives measure what is being researched?

c) Are the objectives feasible?

d) If too ambitious, could the scope of the study be reduced?

Answers to these questions will assist the researcher formulate effective objectives.

CHALLENGES FACED IN SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES FORMULATION

1. **Lacks of clarity –** In some studies' objectives are not clearly articulated. The objectives do not focus clearly what the study hopes to accomplish.

2. **Overambitious objectives** – At times the objectives stated by the researcher are too many and cannot be achieved within the time frame stated and the finance implied. The scope may also be too wide.
3. The objectives **do not follow a logical order.**
4. **Unrelated objectives** – Formulating objectives that do not deal with all aspects of the research problem.
5. **Not specific** - Some stated objectives are not specific and therefore difficult to evaluate. Objectives stated by non-action verbs such as, to appreciate, to understand or to study, are difficult to assess.

EXAMPLES OF OBJECTIVES

Example 1: **The online marketing strategies of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and Southern Africa Tourism (SAT): A comparative study (Basera, 2014).**
Study objectives
☐   To establish the online marketing strategies adopted by ZTA and SAT.
☐   To compare the online marketing strategies adopted by ZTA and SAT.
☐   To determine the effectiveness of ZTA and SAT's online marketing strategies.
☐   To produce a set of recommendations that can be used to enhance online destination marketing by ZTA and SAT.

Example 2: **The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in Southern Africa and Zimbabwe: (Chikuta, 2015)**

The goal led to the following objectives:
Objective 1
To analyse literature concerning universal accessibility in tourism with specific reference to research in national parks or nature-based products.
Objective 2
To establish the extent to which national parks in Southern Africa and Zimbabwe are universally accessible.
Objective 3
To collect data on the accessibility expectations of tourist with disabilities and the views of park management on the universal accessibility of Zimbabwe and Southern Africa's National Parks.
Objective 4
To draw conclusions and make recommendations on universal accessibility and to develop a framework that could be used to enhance accessibility in national parks.

Example 3: **An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe: (Ndhlovu, 2015)**

Objectives of the study

- To establish characteristics that characterise small to medium size independent hotels in Harare.
- To assess the types of innovations implemented by small to medium size independent hotels in the management of business.
- To assess the innovative measures employed by small to medium size independent hotels in the management of business.
- To investigate the challenges faced by small to medium size independent hotels in enhancing innovation.
- To establish the strategic innovative measures that can improve the operations of small to medium size independent hotels.
- To design a model of innovation for small to medium size independent hotels.

Example 4: **An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare (Maphosa, 2014)**

Objectives of the study

1. To establish the causes of failure to adhere to set quality standards in the day-to-day operations of lodges in Harare;
2. To find out the reasons why lodges in Harare do not adhere to set quality standards;
3. To find out what measures stakeholders have put in place to support the establishment of quality management systems in lodges; and
4. To come up with strategies that can be recommended to stakeholders to help address the challenges of quality management in lodges.

Example 5: **The enhancement of sustainable tourism education and training to primary school level and rural communities in Zimbabwe (Marunda, 2014)**

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify a curriculum to teach tourism and hospitality management to learners at primary school level in Zimbabwe;
2. To identify a curriculum to teach tourism and hospitality management to rural communities to enable them to develop skills to promote sustainable tourism in their regions;
3. To develop a model or framework that would link education at primary school level and community training to benefit sustainable tourism development in Zimbabwe
4. To establish the challenges facing local communities when they manage their environment vis. A vis. tourism development and the preservation of their culture;
5. To determine the negative impacts of eco- and cultural tourism on schools

and local communities and how they can be minimised; and

6. To develop policy and regulatory guidelines for public-private sector-rural communities working contracts which guarantee community benefits and sustained tourism development and protection and preservation of biodiversity.

Example 6: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**

The major objective of the study was to develop a destination image recovery model to enhance tourism performance in Zimbabwe.
The specific objectives of the study are:
1.2.1 Assess the current situation with regards to destination image and performance of the Tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
1.2.2 Examine the determinants of destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
1.2.3 Investigate the extent to which destination image affects performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
1.2.4 Develop a destination image recovery model for enhancing performance of the Tourism sector in Zimbabwe.

Example 7: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**
The investigation focused on the following six objectives:
   i.   to investigate the level of stakeholders' awareness of QMS in the Zimbabwe hotel industry;
   ii. to determine the internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within the Zimbabwe hotel industry;
   iii. to determine the external factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within the Zimbabwe hotel industry;
   iv. to examine the benefits of adopting Business Excellence (BE) as a tool for improving quality in Zimbabwe hotel industry;
   v.   to identify external stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS within the hotel industry in Zimbabwe and
   vi. to propose a model of QMS adoption within the hotel industry.

One notable fact about these objectives is that they are specific. There is something the researchers want to determine, to establish, to identify, and to investigate. The objectives therefore clearly state what the researchers will do to fulfill the purpose of the study. These objectives can be evaluated, narrow the study to essentials, phrased in operational terms, specifying exactly what each researcher will do, and

are realistic and achievable. An aim is a general statement that reflects the intention or purpose of one's chosen area of research, whilst an objective is a specific statement relating to the defined goal/aim of one's research. It is not uncommon to have more than one objective to satisfy one's research aim.

In simple terms the aim and objectives are interrelated. The aim is what you want to achieve, and the objective describes how you are going to achieve that aim.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

A hypothesis is a guess or an assumption. It is a tentative explanation for certain behaviour patterns, phenomena, or events that have occurred or will occur (Gay, 1996). For example, price increase influences commodity consumption. This is only a guess. It may or may not be true, or it may be applicable to some commodities and not others. In this guess, a relationship is perceived between price increase and commodity consumption. It therefore must be verified. In research, a hypothesis is a statement that describes all unknown but tentatively reasonable outcome for the existing phenomenon. It is a tentative answer to what the researcher considers as ought to be the possible outcome of an existing problem or phenomenon. It is a likely solution to a problem being studied that is advanced before the actual research is undertaken. Orodho and Kombo (2004) define hypothesis as educated guesses about possible differences, relationships or causes of research problems. They state what the researcher thinks the outcome of the study will be.

TYPES OF HYPOTHESES

There are four types of hypotheses: the conceptual, research, statistical and a directional hypothesis.

1. CONCEPTUAL HYPOTHESIS

This is a statement about the relationship between theoretical concepts. These are mainly ideas that can never be directly tested because they cannot be measured. They must be operationalised or

made measurable before they are tested. For example, *high prices at a destination reduce tourist or poor quality reduces demand.*

2. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

This is a statement about the expected relationship between observable or measurable events. An experimental research hypothesis states expected relationships between independent and dependent variables. For example, *development of a destination image recovery model will enhance the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe*. This is an example of experimental research hypothesis.

One may decide to investigate the relationship between the number of tourists visiting Zimbabwe after developing a destination image recovery model. The data obtained will be used to determine whether there is a significant negative or positive relationship between tourists visiting Zimbabwe and a destination recovery model. The research hypothesis may be formulated as follows: The development of a destination recovery model will enhance positively the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.

3. STATISTICAL HYPOTHESIS

This hypothesis states an expected relationship between the numbers representing statistical properties of data such as the mean, variance and correlation. This hypothesis is a guess about the value of a population parameter or about the relationship between values of two or more parameters the hypothesis is testing. The statistical hypothesis consists of the null hypothesis (Ho) and the alternative hypothesis (H_1). An example of a statistical hypothesis can be stated as the mean different scores in Accounts by students in the Tourism and Hospitality Department and those in the Department of Accounting is zero.

WAYS OF STATING THE HYPOTHESIS

There are two forms of stating the hypothesis: the null and alternative forms.

a) NULL HYPOTHESIS

The null hypothesis states that there is no difference between the variables studied. The aim of testing is to show that the hypothesis is false and thereby accept the alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis refers to the guess the researcher tests and hopes to prove wrong, reject or nullify. The null hypothesis states that no relationship exists between the variables studied. Confirmation of the research hypothesis is based on rejecting the null. For example, *there is no significant difference in the academic performance of students who attend private schools and those who attend public schools in national examinations.*

If the researcher wishes to show that a difference exists in national examination performance among students in public and private schools, then the researcher must prove that there are no differences. The null hypothesis specifies the expected value of a single population parameter or the expected relationship between two or more parameters.

The first step in testing a hypothesis is to make the assumption that there is no significant difference between variables or conditions being studied. This assumption is called Null and it refers to nothing or no relationship. Null is symbolised by H_0.

The aim of testing is to show that the hypothesis is false and thereby accept the alternative one. The null hypothesis states that no relationship exists between the variables being studied. Confirmation of the research hypothesis is based on rejecting the null.

Examples:

$H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in the academic performance of students who attend private schools and those who attend public schools in national examinations.

If the researcher wishes to show that a difference in performance exists in national examinations among students in public and private schools, then he/she must prove that there are no differences.

Other examples are:

$H_0 2$: There is no significant difference between an individual's success in life and his/her academic certificates.

$H_0 3$: There is no significant difference between business locale and profit margin.

H_04: There is no significant difference in performance between female and male entrepreneurs.

H_05: There is no significant difference between the behaviour of female and male pastors.

H_06: There is no significant difference between managerial skills of male and female managers.

Null hypotheses specify the expected value of single population parameter or the expected relationship between two or more parameters. Therefore, it is important to note that all the hypotheses should be tested. There is no way a verdict can be passed without an investigation.

THE ALTERNATIVE HYPOTHESIS

This hypothesis states a value or relationship, and it is different from the null. It asserts that the value of relationship in the null is not true. In research, the null hypothesis is tested, and if rejected, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Alternative hypothesis is the opposite of null and it is symbolised by H_1

Examples:

H_1: There is a significant difference between the perception and attitude of entrepreneurs.

H_2: There is a significant difference between success in business and determination.

H_3: Teachers determine the success or failure of their students in life.

All stated hypotheses require testing. Therefore, it is imperative for a researcher to know that all the hypotheses should be backed up by evidence.

4. DIRECTIONAL HYPOTHESIS

If the researcher's interest is in finding a difference only in a particular direction, then a directional hypothesis is used. A directional hypothesis states the relationship between the variables being studied or difference between experimental treatments that a researcher expects to emerge. For example, if a researcher is interested in finding out how teacher qualifications influence students' performance in mathematics in secondary schools, the directional hypothesis can be stated as following: *There is a positive and significant relationship between the qualification of teachers and student performance in mathematics in secondary schools.*

IMPORTANCE OF HYPOTHESES IN RESEARCH

The hypothesis plays a vital role in research. This includes the following:

- ☐ It states the researcher's expectations concerning the relationship between the variables in the research problem.
- ☐ The hypothesis refines the research problem.
- ☐ By defining the variables in the study, the hypothesis enables the researcher to collect data that either supports the hypothesis or rejects it.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE HYPOTHESIS

All effective hypotheses have the following qualities:

a. It states as clearly and concisely as possible the expected relationship (or difference) between two or more variables.
b. It defines the selected variables in operational and measurable terms.
c. It is testable and verifiable. It is possible to support or not support the hypothesis by collecting and analysing data.
d. The wordings are clear and precise.
e. It gives logical arguments to justify the hypothesis.
f. It is consistent with the existing body of knowledge

GUIDELINES IN FORMULATING THE HYPOTHESIS

In formulating an effective hypothesis, the following guidelines should be adhered to:

- ☐ Reflect on issues of concern.
- ☐ Analyse the research problem, title, objectives and literature review. These sections will identify key variables that the researcher can use as a base to define the relationships.
- ☐ Generate operational definitions for all variables.
- ☐ State the research hypothesis. The research hypothesis should clearly state the relationship that the researcher thinks exists between the independent and dependent variables.
- ☐ Formulate –The researcher should then write down the relationship between the variables ensuring that they are measurable and if accomplished will answer the research question. The researcher should ensure they reflect expected relationships or differences.
- ☐ Evaluation - After Formulating the hypothesis, the researchers should evaluate it to find out if it addresses all sections of the research problem.

CHALLENGES FACED IN FORMULATING THE HYPOTHESIS

There are various challenges faced in hypothesis formulation. These challenges include:

☐ Lack of clarity: In some studies, the hypothesis does not clearly state the relationship between two or more variables. They do not focus on the relationship the study hopes to portray.

☐ At times the variables stated in the hypothesis are too many and cannot be achieved within the time frame stated.

☐ Some of the formulated hypotheses are not testable or verifiable.

☐ Some hypotheses do not address all aspects of the research problem.

Hypothesis can be used in both qualitative and quantitative research. They are applicable when the researcher intends to show that a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables.

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**
The following hypothesis were tested in the study:
H1: Price is significantly positively related to affective image
H2: There is a significant and positive relationship between amenities and affective image
H3: Ancillary services have a significant relationship with affective image
H4: Accessibility has a significant positive influence on affective image
H5: Price significantly influences performance
H6: Amenities significantly influence performance
H7: Ancillary services significantly influence performance
H8: Accessibility significantly influences performance

Example 2: **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**
H_01 A high level of stakeholder awareness of quality management systems will not lead their early adoption.
H_1 A high level of stakeholder awareness of quality management systems will lead their early adoption.
H_02 An understanding of endogenous factors affecting quality in the hotels sector will not lead to the early adoption of the QMS.
H_2 An understanding of endogenous factors affecting quality in the hotels sector will lead to the early adoption of the QMS.
H_03 An understanding exogenous factors affecting quality in the hotels sector will not lead to early adoption of QMS.
H_3 An understanding exogenous factors affecting quality in the hotels sector will lead to early adoption of QMS.

H_04An understanding of the benefits of embracing business excellence as a tool for improving quality in the hotel sector will not lead to early adoption of QMS. H_4 An understanding of the benefits of embracing business excellence as a tool for improving quality in the hotel sector will lead to early adoption of QMS. H_05 The identification of external stakeholders affecting quality in the hotel sector will not lead to the early adoption of QMS. H_5 The identification of external stakeholders affecting quality in the hotel sector will lead to the early adoption of QMS.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

These are issues that the researcher seeks to answer. They are related to the research objectives. These questions guide the research process by addressing the variables of the study.

Examples of research questions
Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe** The major research question was to find out how Zimbabwe destination image can be recovered to enhance tourism performance? 1.3.1 What is the current situation with regards to destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe? 1.3.2 What are the determinants of destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe? 1.3.3 To what extent does destination image affect performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe? 1.3.4 What destination image recovery model can be developed for enhancing performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe? *Example 2:* **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe** The study seeks to answer the following six research questions: • What is the level of stakeholders' awareness of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?   • What are the internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?   • What are external factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?   • What are the benefits of embracing Business Excellence as a tool for improving quality in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?   • What are the external stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?   1.6.6   How can a model of QMS adoption within the hotel industry be constructed?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This section outlines the significance or importance of the issue at hand. If for example the researcher is investigating poor prices, then the significance would be related to the improvement of prices. It could also involve creation of awareness of market forces. In simple terms, the significance of the study is basically the importance of one's research. When stating the significance, one must highlight how one's research will be beneficial to the development of science and the society in general. One can first outline the significance in a broader sense by stating how your research will contribute to the broader problem in the field under study and gradually narrow it down to demonstrate the specific group that will benefit from your research. While writing the significance of your study, you must answer questions like: Why should your research be published? How will this study contribute to the development of your field? Significance also applies to the identification of those who are going to benefit from the study.

EXAMPLES OF SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Example 1: **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe**

1.7 Significance of the study
The study has a significant impact on several stakeholder constituencies which include the hotel owners, customers, government, academia and the researcher.

1.7.1 The hotel proprietors
The study will have an impact in the hospitality industry as proprietors will have access to information relating to how they can improve the quality of their products. The hotels will be able to retain workers and create more jobs as they will grow their businesses. The study will assist hotels to make informed decisions to employ formalised quality management systems in their organisations following the proposed model of QMS adoption. Most hotels consider formal QMS as time consuming and unachievable exercise (Anuar *et al.* 2017). The research is aimed at removing such perceptions and highlight that there is need for formal QMS in the hotel industry. According to Zimwara and Mbohwa (2014), locally produced products and services are facing stiff competition from external competitors, hence the need for strategies aimed at improving the competitiveness of the hotel industry which is paramount for growth of our tourism and hospitality industry. If the strategies that will be proposed in the research are adopted, a significant growth and improved performance of hotels will be realised. From a strategic point of view, today's hotels must see themselves as large organisation in future and this does not come on its own but requires careful planning and strategic organisation.

1.7.2 Customers

Adopting QMS helps an organisation to have more emphasis on the customer and enhances consistence in the quality of the service or product (Nanda, 2016). This results in satisfied customers that in turn bears more repeated business and results in the growth of the business. The study will serve to highlight customer concerns in the hospitality industry with a view to see an improvement in the quality of services and products offered. Customers will get quality services and products in the hotels if they adopt QMS.

1.7.3 Government and Authorities

This study will help government as the policy maker to implement informed policies. The study will show a heightened need to bring out the factors that have been undermining the growth of the hospitality industry by bringing to the fore areas that need to be adjusted. When there is improved performance in the hospitality industry, the government will benefit in terms of more taxes being paid (OECD, 2020). Improved performance of hotels will also help the government in alleviating problems of unemployment. Implementation of QMS by hotels will also help authorities and regulators in that it reduces cases of violation of statutory and regulatory requirements. This will reduce the burden of monitoring by regulators who are already not able to cover all the areas in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Improvement of QMS systems in the tourism industry will improve the impact of tourism in the economy by increasing GDP, exports and creation of more jobs as the organisations grow. Government will be able to better the development of its infrastructure and social services from the increase in its revenue collections as businesses grow. Quality management systems adoption model developed from the study will enable the effective implementation of the National Development Strategy I – NDS I (2021-2025) to realise the country's Vision 2030 "Towards a Prosperous and Empowered Upper Middle-Income Society".

1.7.4 Academia

The research will create a new body of knowledge to the already existing works that have been undertaken in quality management in the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe. The study also helps those in academia and research practitioners to get a greater understanding and appreciation of how the adoption of QMS can improve organisations' performance. The study will provoke fellow researchers into further research on quality management systems implementation in the hotel industry.

1.7.5 The researcher

The successful completion of the research study will assist the researcher acquire more knowledge and career progression in the field of quality management especially in the hospitality and tourism industry. It will also enable the researcher fulfil the requirements to attain a doctor of philosophy degree.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

This section gives rationale or justification for doing any research and must be gleaned from the existing literature on the subject. You will need to conduct a thorough literature survey and identify gaps in the current literature. The best way to write this is to introduce the current literature in the background/Introduction section and then highlight the gaps in the literature that have not been addressed or are yet to be understood. This will help set up the need for the current study and thus justify the need for this research.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Addressing assumptions in your research involves acknowledging, evaluating, and justifying them, and considering their implications and limitations. To do this, you should clarify and define your assumptions, providing evidence and arguments for them. Additionally, consider alternative or opposing assumptions that might challenge or contradict your own, and anticipate potential objections or criticisms. Lastly, discuss the implications and limitations of your assumptions, including areas of uncertainty, ambiguity, or complexity. By doing this, you can ensure that your research is accurate and valid.

Assumptions are accepted as true, or at least plausible, by researchers and peers who will read your dissertation or thesis. In other words, any scholar reading your thesis/dissertation will assume that certain aspects of your study is true given your population, statistical test, research design, or other delimitations. For example, if you tell your friend that your favourite restaurant is an Italian place, your friend will assume that you do not go there for the sushi. It's assumed that you go there to eat Italian food. Because most assumptions are not discussed in-text, assumptions that are discussed in-text are discussed in the context of the limitations of your study that is typically in the discussion section. This is important, because both assumptions and limitations affect the inferences you can draw from your study. One of the more common assumptions made in survey research is the assumption of honesty and truthful responses. However, for certain sensitive questions this assumption may be more difficult to accept, in which case it would be described as a limitation of the study. For example, asking people to report their criminal behaviour in a survey may not be

as reliable as asking people to report their eating habits. It is important to remember that your limitations and assumptions should not contradict one another.

EXAMPLE OF ASSUMPTIONS OF A STUDY

Example 1: **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe**

1.8 Assumptions
The study made the following assumptions:

- ☐ Hotel owners and managers know the benefits of an early adoption of QMS in improving performance of their organisations;
- ☐ The adoption of QMS introduces systems and processes that improve quality of hotels products and services;
- ☐ Hotels with QMS perform better than those without QMS;
- ☐ Respondents would give truthful and honest responses about QMS in the respective hotels they own or manage and
- ☐ Findings from the study would reflect a national view with regards to the QMS in the tourism and hospitality industry.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section indicates challenges anticipated or faced by the researcher. This includes time and financial limitations that influenced the scope of the study, data inaccessibility and unanticipated occurrences. However, the researcher should make all attempts to indicate how the challenges were overcome.

EXAMPLE OF LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Example 1: **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe**
1.10 Limitations of the study
Despite all the available information about the topic, the researcher had to manage with some limitations. The researcher had limited time to conduct interviews with respondents since interviews were conducted during business hours. Some respondents were not available to grant interviews due to their work time schedules. To accommodate them, the researcher had to notify them of the impending interviews at least two weeks in advance. Some respondents were unwilling to give in-depth information due to fear and confidential nature of some of the information they had to give. However, respondents were assured that their information and responses would be considered as confidential and private information. The researcher did not have adequate time to conduct all the interviews personally. For this reason, a research

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assistant was employed to help him in collecting data. Due to limited financial resources the researcher employed only one assistant to help in data collection. The study was confined to hotels in the capital city Harare to minimise costs of travelling and reduce time spent on data collection.

The study was conducted in one industry and is subject to disparagement for being too narrow and problematic to generalise the results and theory creation. Nevertheless, the study gives better control over differences in characteristics of industries and challenges that are explicit to the industry. Single industry studies can be replicated in other industries and relating the results to cross sectional and longitudinal studies over time.

Example 2: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**
1.6 Limitations of the Study
The respondents were selected from several areas in Zimbabwe including key tourist resorts. The areas include Harare, Victoria Falls, Kariba, Bulawayo, Masvingo, Zvishavane, Gweru and Kwekwe. Possibly, if data could have been collected from more areas, the research quality could have been better. However, the impact on the study arising from this was mitigated by ensuring that data was also collected from the areas which are mostly visited by tourists, namely Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls (ZTA, 2018). The impact was further mitigated by the fact that the respondents and participants were derived from mainly ZTA-tourism designated zones. The ZTA tourism zones comprised sixty seven percent of these areas. They were also spatially dispersed to reduce bias to a bare minimum.

The other limitation was that some service providers, especially big hotels, were reluctant to allow the researcher access to their guests fearing that the researcher could possibly disrupt the guest's experience. This was mitigated by approaching those who could be accessed but still without compromising systematic random sampling.

The researcher had challenges balancing work and research. To overcome this, he had to go on leave to concentrate on research. The high cost of living was an obstacle since financial resources were often inadequate. To deal with this, the researcher had to stick to tight budgets and avoid unnecessary expenses.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A concept is an abstract or general idea inferred or derived from specific instances. A concept is a word or phrase that symbolises several interrelated ideas. Unlike a theory, concept does not need to be discussed to be understood (Smyth, 2004).

Conceptualisation is inventing or contriving an idea or explanation and formulating it mentally. It is the act of creating or formulating something by thinking up ideas or actions intended to deal with a problem or situation. A conceptualisation is an abstract, simplified view of the world that we wish to represent for some purpose. Every knowledge base, knowledge-based system or knowledge level agent is committed to some conceptualisation, explicitly or implicitly (Geneserth & Nilson, 1987).

Framing is the formulation of plans and important details. It is a way of conceiving something.

> A conceptual framework shows the main concepts linked with the research, their association and the background in which the concepts are applicable (Yin, 2014). Jabareen, (2009) described a conceptual framework as a plane or network concepts interlinked together to provide a full understanding of a phenomena(on) under investigation. The meaning of 'framework' was also given by Yusof & Aspinwall, (2000) as a schema based on certain assumptions and principles for the purpose of guiding thoughts and actions.

> In simple terms a conceptual framework shows how the research variables relate to each other. The variables emanate from a thorough literature review, showing how the research questions are answered, the methodology, data collection methods and analysis connected to give a reliable and valid basis of academic research

USEFULNESS OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

According to Aletaiby (2018) and Yin (2014), a conceptual framework increasingly strengthens and keeps the research on track by:

a) Providing clear links from the literature to the research goals and questions.
b) Contributing to the formulation of the research design.
c) Providing reference points for discussion of literature, methodology and analysis of data.
d) Contributing to the trustworthiness of the study.
e) Giving a broad scope to thinking about the research.
f) Conceptualising the problem and providing a means to link ideas and data so that deeper connections can be revealed.

A conceptual framework should assist a researcher to organise his/her thinking and complete an investigation successfully. It must explain the

relationship among interlinked concepts. It explains the possible connection between the variables and answers the why questions. To find out how effective one's conceptual framework is, one should analyse whether the set objectives have been addressed (Symth, 2002).

When we understand a concept, we understand the links and associations that go with that concept. Researchers who understand concepts become more knowledgeable in their area of research. Understanding is greater and of higher quality if we understand the dynamics. In research, if one can understands a concept one becomes very close to 'owning' it.

STRATEGIES OF DESIGNING EFFECTIVE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

Learners at all levels of education consistently find the process of designing a conceptual framework a demanding, abstract and frustrating experience. To come up with an effective conceptual framework, one must analyse a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of inquiry, and study various works illuminating experiences where several threads of thought combine. Extensive bodies of knowledge could be used as cornerstones for organising one's thinking (Symth, 2002).

The extent and currency of these bodies of literature provided a sound foundation for a conceptual framework. This is because one can draw on this extensive and collaborated theorizing, to devise a common language, guiding principles and reference points from which to structure discussion and analysis. It is also useful for a researcher to understand what a conceptual framework is and entails before attempting to conceptualise.

The following strategies are useful in designing a conceptual framework.

- ☐ **Reflection** – assessing situation from social, economic and philosophical perspectives. One must be clear about what the research is about (title, objectives). Factors such as the independent and dependent variables, and research questions should also be put into perspective.

- ☐ Defining the **key issue (problem)** to be addressed and defining its practical boundaries.
- ☐ Identifying **key uncertainties (gaps in understanding / Knowledge)** about the situation or the social/economic systems and so on (The question that need to be answered by the study).
- ☐ Identifying and assessing **different possibilities for action**.

A well-constructed conceptual framework can guide the entire research writing process, keep the researcher on track, save time and enable researchers to defend their arguments soundly and readily.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

An effective conceptual framework should have the following qualities:
a) Should be clear and concise.
b) Language used should be simple and straight forward.
c) The conceptual framework should be self-explanatory.
d) Should have supportive evidence of ideas used.
e) It should be logical and address the title, research objectives, and statement of the research problem.
f) It should be consistent with the literature review.
g) It should also show a link between the literature review and the study problem.
h) It should develop a set of guiding principles against which judgments and prediction might be made.
i) It should act as a reference point from which to locate the research questions within contemporary theorising.
j) It should provide a structure within which to organise the content of research and to frame conclusions within the context.

CHALLENGES FACED IN DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPTUAL

There are various challenges faced in designing an effective conceptual framework and this should be addressed by researchers. One of the major challenges is in structuring the framework so that one can communicate through it effectively. Choosing the language for the descriptions needs careful consideration. Descriptors form the common language reference points for discussion, judgments and reporting.

In addition, elements of each theme overlap considerably, and it is therefore important to realise that themes are parts of an intertwined context rather than isolated strategies making independent contributions to the situation under consideration. Disunity in themes is a major weakness in conceptual frameworks. Some researchers write ideas that are isolated, yet in a conceptual framework element of each theme should overlap.

The literature review should support the investigation through the conceptual framework. It should provide reference points from which judgments can be made following the data analysis in subsequent chapters. One of the challenges faced is planning and finalizing the conceptual framework without the planner being conversant with the research objectives. Another major challenge is copying conceptual frameworks of other researchers without a keen study to find out if the framework fits in the current study.

LIMITATIONS OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

A researcher should be aware of the following limitations when designing a conceptual framework. A conceptual framework is a construction of knowledge bound by the life-world experiences of the person developing it and should not be attributed a power that it does not have (Yin, 2014). Moreover, the nature of a conceptual framework means that it consciously or unconsciously informs thought and practice by increasing personal sensitivity to particular occurrences and so this must be taken into account (Mason & Waywood, 1996). No researcher can expect that all date will be analysed using the framework without the risk of limiting the results from the investigation.

By considering these cautions, one should remain open to new or unexpected occurrences ill the delta and the investigation.

STEPS IN PREPARING AN EFFECTIVE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There are various steps in preparing an effective conceptual framework. These are as follows:

a) **Selection of concepts** - A person selects the concepts to be used in relation to the problem. At this level of abstraction, the focus is on alternative ideas that bear directly on the problem or situation. These ideas relate directly to the problem.
b) **Creation of options** - the construction of possible actions prior to selection. It addresses the act of creating the sequences for creating ideas. The perception of the circumstances or imagining the circumstances immediately gives rise to mental sets in relation to those circumstances. These mental sets include our knowledge of what to do, and potential outcomes these comprise prior knowledge.
c) **Seek the tools to conceptualise** - the very tools for the highest level of abstract thought. At this level, ideas are linked and relationships identified.
d) **Direct conceptualization process** - offering certain types of insight and write the conceptual framework.

POTENTIAL FOR TRANSFERABILITY

The usefulness of the conceptual framework as a research tool is illustrated by the researcher's ability to identify and account for occurrences of actions and behaviour in one's data through the descriptors in the framework (Smyth, 2004). The conceptual framework should demonstrate its potential as a meta-analysis tool by fulfilling the conditions set for it. It should be a useful research tool in the con text for which it was developed. The conceptual framework indicates the effect of the independent variable (cause) on the dependent variable (outcome).

EXAMPLE OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

Kanokanga (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe
The study identified price (PR), amenities (AM), ancillary factors (AN) and accessibility (AC) and tested the strengths of their relationship with affective destination image (AF) (a vital component of image recovery) and performance (VA) of the tourism sector. The conceptual framework depicts the study hypotheses, that components of the cognitive image, in this case price, amenities, accessibility and

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ancillary services impact both affective image and destination performance. Affective image which derives from the potential tourists' feelings towards the destination contributes to the improvement in overall destination image especially after visiting the destination (Le, 2017). This will ultimately result in; enhancing the performance of the tourism sector (destination performance) as the tourists spend money in the destination.
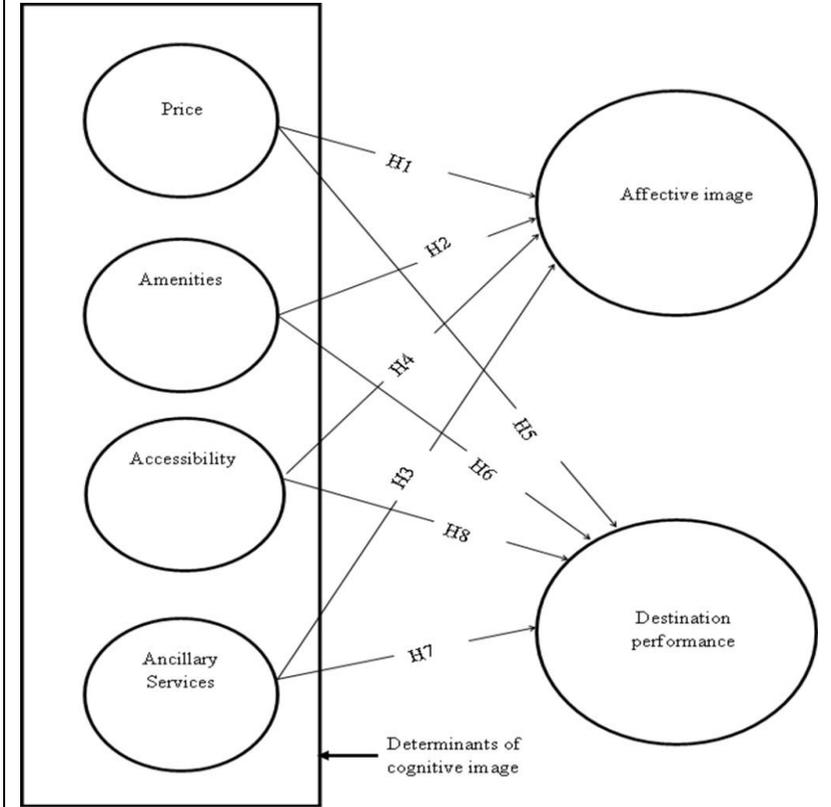
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A theoretical framework is a collection of interrelated ideas based on theories. It is a reasoned set of prepositions that are derived from and supported by data or evidence. A theoretical framework accounts for or explains phenomena. It attempts to clarify why things are the way they are based on theories. A theoretical framework is a general set of

assumptions about the nature of phenomena. To understand theoretical frameworks, an analysis of theories must be made.

THEORIES IN RESEARCH

A theory is a reasoned statement or groups of statements that are supported by evidence, meant to explain phenomena. They are a systematic explanation of the relationship among phenomena. Theories provide a generalised explanation to an occurrence. There are several kinds of theories in all disciplines. It is impossible for a researcher to know all these theories. Therefore, a researcher should be conversant with those applicable to one's area of research. When a theory fails to be supported by data, it can be rejected, or is revised. Theories are testable in a practical situation. Theories provide indicators and examples of what is incorporated in the framework. Theories provide tentative theoretical answers to questions, issues and problems before the researcher practically confirms through research that the answer is correct. Theories have proponents. Researchers apply theories to guide their work and help interpret findings. They provide a foundation for inquiries. The following are some of the theories that can be used to formulate a theoretical framework:

a. *STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONALISM THEORY (EMILE DURKHEIM, 1858-1917)*

This theory proposes that a human society is like an organism and is made up of structures called social institutions. These institutions are specially structured so that they perform different functions on behalf of society. This theory attempts to provide an explanation on how human society is organised and what each of the various social institutions does in order for society to continue existing. According to this theory, as a result of being interrelated and interdependent, one organ can affect the others and ultimately the whole. The whole can affect one or all the social institutions. A researcher can use this theory to point out why and how some societies operate relatively well compared to others socially.

B) *SYMBOLIC INTERACTION THEORY (MAX WEBER, 1864-1920)*

This theory deals with explaining how individuals relate with each other. This is a theoretic orientation that contains assumptions

proposing that the social world is made up of symbols that human beings use as a means of interaction. According to this theory human being do not act individually but interact with each other, thus reacting to each other. A researcher can use this theory to explain and understand how people relate to each other and what is used in facilitating a relationship between individuals and groups of people in society. A researcher may attempt to show how the behaviour expressed by members of groups to which one belongs and by members of one's personal networks have an influence. The researcher may show how people rely on the opinions of others, especially when a situation is highly uncertain or ambiguous and no objective evidence is readily available.

c) CONFLICT THEORY (KARL MARX 1818-1883)

This theory emphasises the existence of opposing forces in the life of individuals, groups, social structures and society in general. This theory views human society as a collection of competing interest groups and individuals, each with their own motives and expectations. The principal assumption underlying this theory is that all members in society do not have the same values, interests or expectations. These vary according to one's position, privileges, ability, class and wealth. Agreement tends to appear among those who share similar privileges. This is likely to encourage unequal distribution of the scarce but valuable resources and opportunities. This results in divisions in society resulting in hostility and opposition. A researcher can use this theory to explain why conflicts occur in society.

d) BASIC NEEDS THEORY (ABRAHAM MASLOW, 1943)

According to this theory, there are certain minimum requirements that are essential to a decent standard of living. These are known as physiological needs. They include food, shelter, health and clothing. They are primary needs and must be catered for before other needs such as security and shelter, sense of belonging and affection, love, esteem, and finally self-actualisation are pursued. A researcher can apply this theory when attempting to prove that lack of basic survival

needs may be a contributory factor to the situation of phenomena under study.

IMPORTANCE OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

A theoretical framework plays a major role in research. These include the following:

a) It introduces the researcher to a new view of the research problem. This enables the researcher to understand the total realm of the problem.

b) It enables the researcher to conceptualise the topic in its entirety as an outgrowth of the larger society. This helps the researcher to acknowledge the problem from a wider perspective and not from a narrow-personalised self-interest approach. This enhances the researcher's objectivity.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

An effective theoretical framework should:

a) Account for and explain a phenomenon.

b) Be specific and well-articulated.

c) Reflect the research problem being addressed.

d) Be measured in a practical situation.

e) Provide tentative answers to questions, issues and problems addressed in the research problem.

f) Should systematically address the various aspects of the problem, particularly the key factors that are assumed to influence or cause the problem.

GUIDELINES IN FORMULATING A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In formulating an effective theoretical framework, the researcher should adhere to the following:

1. Reflect - On the existing theories for the purpose of identifying a fitting context.

2. Analyse the research title to identify the **independent and dependent** variables. The researcher should then reflect on the relationship between these variables.

3. Find out which theories best explain the **relationship between the variables**. This can be achieved by using the library and reading books and articles related to the topic selected. The researcher should read through various theories related to one's research topic. The sources include professional publications, journals in education, theses, abstracts from doctoral dissertations and masters' theses and psychological abstracts. These readings will present various studies related to one's study area. This will assist in the formulation of the theoretical framework.

4. **Formulation** - The researcher should then write down the theories applicable, link the ideas and identify the relationship. After this the researcher should formulate the theoretical framework. This will involve discussing the selected theories to answer the research question.

5. **Evaluation** - After formulating the theoretical framework, the researcher should evaluate it to find out if it addresses all sections of the research problem.

CHALLENGES FACED IN FORMULATION OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Lack of differentiation between a theory and a theoretical framework. While a theory simply states what proponents have discovered in relation to a certain issue, a theoretical framework uses this theory to account for and clarify why things are the way they are. The researcher should therefore avoid simply stating the theories applicable to the study. Moreover, some researchers quote theories that do not explain the phenomenon under study.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Many researchers get confused whether to use conceptual or theoretical frameworks in their studies. Although both these frameworks are tools to assist a researcher make meaningful findings, they vary. A conceptual framework bases on ideas that may be formulated from a researcher's own perception. This may be from observation or experience. On the other hand, the theoretical framework is based on recognised theories.

A conceptual framework cannot be refuted or tested through research. A theoretical framework is testable and can be rejected or revised. Ideas raised in a theoretical framework have proponents while those in a conceptual framework are mainly the researchers with a few references to support them. A theoretical framework is a discussion of related theories attempting to predict a phenomenon. A conceptual framework is an idea stated.

EXAMPLES OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Example 1: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

1. **Resource-Based View theory (RBV)**
The Resource Based View (RBV) theory emphasises the conversion of valuable resources by organisations to attain their business goals (Rothaermel, 2012). The theory is the ground on the adoption of QMS because organisations depend on their intangible and tangible resources to change immediate advantages into the long-term competitive advantages. It is what the organisation owns that gives them a competitive advantage over others and requires that the organisation should possess inimitable resources that are incompatible and untransferable (Mweru & Muya, 2016). RBV theory explains that the firm should be able to deliver sustainable competitive advantages by managing resources in such a way that competitors cannot imitate their outcomes, hence creating a competitive barrier. The theory explains the Value, Rare, Inimitable, Opportunity (VRIO) approach; that for a firm to attain sustainable competitive advantage by adopting QMS, it should have unique resources which are Valuable (gives the firms more value over rivals), Rare (which cannot be easily accessed), Inimitable (resources should not be easily imitated but give long term advantage) and Opportunity/Organisation (the resource should give the firm an opportunity to succeed and the company must be organised to exploit the resource that it should be firm-specific (Rothaermel, 2012).

According to Gupta and Malhotra (2013), it requires both firm resources and capability in order for a firm to innovate and develop a new product and RBV theory highlights that being innovative and providing superior customer value is the key determinant to obtain sustainable competitive advantage. Not all firm resources give the firm sustainable competitive advantage and the differences in performance of organisations are attributable to the heterogeneity of assets. The RBV theory focuses on those factors that cause the differences to prevail. For hotels to be competitive and achieve long term sustainable success, they should possess these resources that give value, that are rare, inimitable and organised to grab the opportunities in business. Possession of these resources gives them sustainable competitive advantages over their rivals. It is also crucial that hotels possess the capabilities to deal with the external and internal factors to boost performance and survive. From a strategic management perspective of tourism facilities in Uruguay, Alonso (2017) applied the RBV theory in developing a management strategy and realised that if government and private tourism business put together their resources the country's tourism will be very competitive as it possesses high resources. RBV theory can be

used to evaluate the abilities desired by the supplier to attain the anticipated results using sound strategic planning. There is a positive relation between sales and apprehension of RBV theory, this was proved to be true by in sales of small to medium enterprises products by Yuga and Widjaja (2020). The researcher believed that adoption of QMSs in the hotel industry is influenced by resources in possession of the organisation.

2 Contingency/Situational Theory

The Contingency/Situational theory takes into consideration the effects of external business environment on the organisation, and it says that the actions or strategies taken by a firm to gain competitive advantage depend on the prevailing situation (Fernández-Robin *et al.*, 2019). The contingency theory is concerned about the aptitude of the organisation to act in response to the business environment (external factors) as the main determinant of an organisation's performance (Bell & Martin, 2012). Therefore, the tractability of the organisation to establish structure is imperative to deal with environmental instability which forces firms to think of new ways and new behaviour for them to survive. A situation which is under control to the business is favourable, a contingency measure can manage but if the situation is out of control the contingency measure does not work. The business size, organisation structure, resources and management all determine the effectiveness of contingency measures (PSUWC, 2020). This theory attest that there is no strategy or structure that can be considered best because a certain structure or strategy may not be equally effective if applied in a different environmental condition. Therefore, it is a matter of fit between the environment, the strategy and structure that determines performance. The capability for a firm to deal with the current business environment requires knowledge of customer management systems in which organisations need to do consumer intelligence. Undertaking consumer intelligence offers information that the firm can transform its plan to overcome numerous environmental turbulences (Wollmann & Steiner, 2017). This theory considers that organisations should assess the business environment to gain knowledge and set a strategy that is appropriate for each environmental turbulence level (Fernández-Robin *et al.*, 2019; Bell & Martin, 2012).

Contingency effect can also be referred to as environmental instability which is then defined as business environment hostility which can go into many stages of uncertainty (Wollmann & Steiner, 2017). Environmental turbulence may take the form of competition, technology, market turbulence and regulatory turbulence. It is therefore important that hotels find ways to deal with customer needs in turbulent environments. However, many hotels fail to anticipate turbulence because of poor environmental scanning leading to business failure. Scanning of the environment provides hotels with relevant and accurate information which helps them to adopt QMS and provide products that meet customer needs, that are technologically advanced and that are competitive in the market. A contingency trained manager will therefore be able to determine the most appropriate QMS to be adopted for the prevailing situation after considering all the variables. Hotels strategic organisation was investigated to determine their approach to QMS adoption.

3 Chaos theory

By hearing the word chaos many people equate it to something that is messed up and confusing. Scientists define chaos as a situation that is complex, unpredictable and full of disorder and the disorder behaviour patterns develop in an irregular but similar form. Raisio and Lundström (2015), state that chaos includes two parameters which

are unpredictability and hidden patterns. In this chaotic environment, even the smallest change can bring about tremendous effects since the system is highly sensitive to changes. Organisations that are used to planning and control operations and strategies face greater challenges in this environment because there is no link between cause and effect (Mbengue *et al.*, 2018). The chaotic situation can also be called the VUCA environment which is associated with volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity. In this environment, it is almost impossible to predict the long-term outcomes of any action or strategy, but only short-term outcomes can be predicted because the environment is changing rapidly to the extent that the business strategy that is working today may not be working tomorrow. In this environment, the future is not even foreseeable, and organisations face a high rate of uncertainty.

In the VUCA environment, organisations both large and small face constant change which borders on chaos and the environment presents opportunities and threats to firms and this requires that they capitalise on the opportunities and minimise the effects of threats. This situation is also known as the 'white water rapids' where industries like those in the technology sector, women's fashion and food industry presents white water rapids situation to organisations, changes are going too fast that managers need to be on their toes always so that they do not lose opportunities or affected by the threats (Raisio & Lundström, 2015). Customer demands are changing, technology advancing and competition intensifying and only first movers will take the advantages.

In the VUCA environment some organisations may quickly enter the decline stage, or a niche deteriorates because the competition intensity makes the environment poorer and hence threatens those organisations with no effective growth strategies. Managers may fail to change business strategies to secure resources leading to the decline stage. This situation requires organisations to be proactive rather than reactive, develop distinctive competencies and adopt QMS to gain sustainable competitive advantages. Hotels should be creative and innovative so that they continue to operate sustainably in this ever-changing business environment and gain competitive advantage over other hotels (Giacomo *et al.*, 2021). It is difficult for hotels to get a handle of what is actually happening, so they are required to act on the incomplete and insufficient information. Unregulated business operating environment and disasters such as drought, disease outbreaks and wars are some of the elements that bring in chaos and uncertainty in the business environment (Raisio & Lundstrom, 2015).

Example 2: **Kanokanga (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe Theories on destination image**
Several theories have been propounded on the concept of destination image. The following are some notable ones.

1. Avraham and Ketter (2016)'s Multi step model
Avraham and Ketter (2016) proposed a 'multi-step model for altering place image'. According to this image repair model, a destination marketer can choose the most appropriate marketing strategies for DI recovery, according to three categories of characteristics related to the crisis, target audience and the place (CAP: Crisis, Audience, Place). The multi-step model is made up of three media strategy categories (SAM: Source, Audience, Message) which are used by marketers for DI recovery. Source strategies are concerned with dealing with or replacing the source which is

understood by marketers to be responsible for the destination's negative image, quite often the international media; for example, arranging familiarization tours for foreign travel agents, tour operators and journalists (Mair, Ritchie & Walters, 2016) or through blocking media access (Avraham, 2016). The weaknesses of this model are that it over emphasises the role of the media in image recovery. The media on its own, cannot not provide facilities required by tourists which include recreational facilities, ICT, the warmth and hospitality which can be provided by the local people, nightlife, the shopping experience like that associated with Dubai, London and other similar places. The theory also tends to be prescriptive, dictating steps to follow to achieve image recovery and enhance tourism performance.

Audience strategies focus on the beliefs, values and insights held by the audience. Thus, destination marketers endeavour to highlight what appears to be common between those values which are important to people from their country and the foreign audience. The final group-message strategies, seeks to counteract any negative stereotypes or perceptions about a tourist destination, such as threats to tourists' personal safety, crime, nightlife, or sanitation. Destination marketers strive to convince the public that these images are incorrect, and that the destination is safe for them to tour, and providing entertainment and other services (Walters, Mair & Lim, 2016). This model-either as it is or components of it-has been used by various studies to assess the marketing campaigns adopted by tourist destinations (Walters *et al.,* 2016; Avraham, 2016, 2013; Walters & Mair, 2012).

The model's strengths are that it acknowledges that some of the images can be generated by advisories such as competing destinations and they may be designed to damage the competitor's image. Therefore, steps are needed to counteract such images. The model, however, makes an erroneous assumption that the destination seeking recovery can manipulate the media to broadcast favourable images and news about the destination. It could not be any further from the truth. These days social media platforms such as WhatApp, Twitter and others are quite dominant and no one organisation or country can control social media. Like Avraham and Ketter (2016) image recovery model, Lubbe's (2004) model also tends to be prescriptive and determined. Life and tourists nowadays can never be predetermined. Much flexibility is required.

2. Lubbe's (2004) Open systems model of public relations in destination image development

Lubbe (2004) perceives a tourist destination as a system, an open system on which the systems theory can be applied. The systems theory provides a framework for harmonizing an organisation's goal with the expectations of the society and its publics. In terms of DI, the reconciliation of the tourist destination's goal-to achieve a favourable and sound tourism relationship-with the expectations of the publics in a tourist-generating country, is what is desired.

The merits of Lubbe's model are that it acknowledges the need to have a stakeholder holder approach in image recovery and enhancement of tourism performance. It also encourages the development of synergistic relations to attain tourism development. The weaknesses associated with Lubbe's model are that that it focuses on the relationship between only two entities namely, the tourist and the destination. It tends to generalise in terms of the key drivers of the model. It does not identify the key stakeholders, those who really matter in terms of tourism development. The model aims to build a sound relationship between the tourist and the locals disregarding the

quality of bilateral relations between the tourist's home country and the destination country. Relations between governments tend to have a stronger impact than relations between tourists and locals. In fact, tourists may not even travel when bilateral relations are poor.

Lubbe (2004) argued that this harmonization requires a continuous exchange of information between the tourist destination and the public so that the destination and the tourist generating country can understand each other. There is also need for both the tourist destination and the publics to adapt to the ever-changing environment and to maintain a balance in the relationship. In doing so, a favourable DI can be developed and maintained.

According to Lubbe's (2004) model, public relations is essentially a communications function concerned with relationships, image and image development. Afrikan *et al.* (2017) view public relations as a management function which contributes towards mutual understanding, the acceptance, communication and continuity of communication between organisations and their target audiences. They further highlighted that public relations are the efforts for private and public entity, that is, an individual, association, or private or public institution to establish relations with groups which are engaged in mutual business and to promote the development of established relations. Public relations also serve purposes such as ensuring positive news about a business and its products in various circles and developing a positive image about the business. In Lubbe's (2004) open systems model of public relations in DI development, tourist destinations stand for organisations and tourist products or destinations stand for company products.

According to Lubbe's (2004) model, the relevant publics refer to all those groups who participate in or influence the formation of a destination's primary (complex) image. These include potential tourists, the media, travel agents and tour operators, that is, all groups that have a relationship with the destination. Also, with regards to boundaries of the system, this could refer to international boundaries, especially in relation to DI development.

3. The Stakeholder Theory

The stakeholder theory was developed by Clarkson (1995). Its tenets are that organisations depend on a wide range of audiences or groups of stakeholders to realize their objectives (Bussy & Ewing, 1997). Unlike the above two theories, the stakeholder theory argues that these specific groups vary from organisation to organisation and from situation to situation. Again, unlike the other two theories cited above, this theory is not rigid, rather it is situational and deals with the contingencies prevailing at the time. Thus, it is not prescriptive. This makes this theory the most appropriate for this study. Modern life and tourism in particular is affected by a wide range of variables which include technology, social dimensions, political developments, environmental factors and others. Unlike the other two, it cites government and investors as a stakeholder, among others. The stakeholder groups cited in this theory include clients, end users (the other theories above do not make this distinction), employees, suppliers, pressure groups, local communities and the media and each stakeholder makes a decisive role in the organisation's future. This theory is currently popularly used in tourism development and in destination image recovery and in the enhancement of tourism performance.

The stakeholder theory, unlike the Avraham and Ketter (2013) model and Lubbe's (2004) theory, acknowledges employees and like the two theories above, it cites local communities but more than that, it acknowledges pressure groups as stakeholders in image recovery. Pressure groups can cause tourist facilities to be built or demolished. They can be vocal about price hikes, the transport situation, the lack of amenities and ancillary services such as marketplaces and electronic accessibility via Internet and so on. However, these factors tend to be marginalized in terms of image recovery and tourism performance.

Performance theories
a)   Sottentag and Frese (2002) Performance Theory
According to Sottentag and Frese (2002 performance theory, organisations require highly performing individuals to meet their goals, to deliver the products and services and to achieve competitive advantage. They view performance as centred on the individual employee who feels good when they accomplish personal and organisational goals. They view performance as a multi-dimensional concept. The strength of this theory is that it attaches many importance on the worker who is the most important asset of the organisation. Also, since the theory focuses on the individual worker, the implication is that there is a prioritization of employee motivation. However, in the tourism and hospitality sector, team performance as opposed to individual performance, is highly regarded. Therefore, the major weakness of this theory appears to be that it ignores the role of teamwork in tourism and hospitality.

b)   The Balanced Destination Theory by Barber & Kaurev (2015)
Kaurav and Baber (2015) presented what they termed a model of a balanced destination which results in destination success. The model is depicted in Figure 2.2. According to Kaurav and Baber's model of what they term a balanced destination which is driven by several factors which include revenue generation, employment creation, recreational facilities, cultural acceptance and others. Unlike the destination image recovery models, this one specifically cites the DMO as a key stakeholder in tourism performance. However, destination success may not be attained relying heavily on the DMO at the exclusion of other stakeholders such as hospitality and tourism enterprises. The same applies with destination image recovery-team work is key. This theory was therefore not the major one in this study because there is another one which relates much better with the concept of destination image recovery.

It resembles the stakeholder theory in that it recognises the role of the investor in enhancing tourism performance. The challenge, however, is that the definition of destination success may not be easy to come up with. Employment creation without environmental conservation may not result in a destination being called successful. Also, the definition of a balanced destination may not be universally shared. The tourism performance model by Baber and Kaurav lacks several key elements which influence tourism performance. For example, it ignores security and safety issues, government policies, and economic conditions in the broad sense, infrastructure and others. The tourism performance model by Assaf and Josiassen (2012) fills this gap.

c)   Assaf and Josiassen (2012) Tourism Performance model
According to Assaf and Josiassen (2012), there are eight drivers of tourism performance which are indicated here in their order of importance: (1) tourism and related infrastructure; (2) economic conditions; (3) security, safety, and health; (4)

tourism price competitiveness; (5) government policies; (6) environmental sustainability; (7) labor skills and training; and (8) natural and cultural resources.

This theory links quite well with destination image recovery in that it focuses on attributes which are central to destination image recovery. The WEF (2017) noted that these destination attributes are important in generating a destination's appeal. However, the limitations of this theory are that it assumes that any factor outside these eight may not be as critical as those included on this list. Hence, there is the risk that some people could end up putting too much emphasis on these eight attributes if they want to improve tourism performance ignoring other equally important or even better tourism performance dimensions.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Keys terms used in writing the thesis are supposed to be defined as they are used. The key terms can be defined according to literature and or if the term has been given a new meaning according to the thesis, the definition is supposed to be given in context of the thesis.

Usually at most five key terms are given in a thesis, mostly the terms can be derived from the title of the thesis although not in all cases.

Examples of definition of terms
Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**
Tourist Destination: Consist of the location where the tourists choose to go thereby competing globally (UNWTO, 2018).

Destination Image: Is the sum of all emotional and aesthetic qualities such as experiences, beliefs, ideas, recollections and impressions that a person has of a destination.
Image Recovery: In this study, the term image recovery refers to the process of strengthening the image of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination resulting in a significant improvement in the performance of the country's tourism sector.

Performance: Performance is difficult to define (Popescu, Popa, and Dobrin, 2015). 'The notion of performance has an abstract character, and its definition is made by reference to other concepts, on which we believe that performance is built' (Popescu *et al*., 2015: 311). In general terms performance can be seen as the result of activities (for example, of an organisation) over a given period (Al-Matari, Al-Swidi, & Fadzil, 2014). Zheng, Zheng, Luo, Chen, and Liu (2018) agreed with Dobrin *et al*. (2012) on that performance is hard to define in totality, and its measurement is a highly dynamic exercise which entails constant change, ambiguity, uncertainty, and negotiation. However, Zheng *et al*. (2018) argued that these difficulties should not be allowed to frustrate efforts to address this important and meaningful aspect in tourist destination management. This study focused on economic performance of Zimbabwe's tourism economy. Economic performance refers to the destination's output in terms of tourist arrivals, tourism receipts and activity as reflected by indices such as tourism direct contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), total tourism contribution to GDP, tourism direct contribution to employment, tourism total

contribution to employment, tourism contribution to capital investment, tourism contribution to exports, among other indices (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2016; Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2016).

Tourism: Juul (2015) defined tourism as the activity of visitors taking a trip to a main destination outside the usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose, including business, leisure or other personal purpose, other than to be employed by a resident entity in the place visited. This definition resonates with the one provided by the UNWTO (2017). However, the one proposed by the UNWTO tends to be richer and more relevant to this study. The UNWTO (2017) views tourism as a distinctive form of recreation. They added that, from a geographical point of view, tourism is one form of temporary or leisure mobility, recognizing that technology and changes in society have given people the capacity to travel quite extensively. They further pointed out that tourism can be thought of as a form of voluntary, temporary mobility in relation to where people live. The tourism phenomenon can be defined from the demand side, that is the tourist's standpoint or from the supply side (the service provider's perspective) (UNWTO, 2017). This study combined the two perspectives. This was done to have a deeper understanding of the research problem and to provide a more comprehensive resolution of the same.

Example 2: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**
Hotel: A hotel is a commercial establishment providing lodgings, meals, and other guest services (Law, 2009). In this study, a hotel is a classified accommodation facility which offers rooms, food and beverages and other services to visitors.

Hospitality industry: Hospitality industry is composed of the companies that provide accommodation, food and drink to people who are away from home with kindness and goodwill (Zaridis *et al.*, 2019).

Quality: Quality is an evaluation of how well a provided service fits into the customer's expectations (Law, 2009). Goetsch and Davis (2021) defined quality as a dynamic state related with product, services, processes, people and environment that matches or surpasses expectations and helps produce exceptional value. In this study, quality means how well a delivery of services in hotels meets customer's expectations and adds service value.

Quality Management Systems: Quality management systems (QMS) is a formalised system that documents procedures, processes and responsibilities for attaining quality objectives and policies. A QMS helps direct and coordinate an organisation's activities to meet customer requirements, regulatory requirements and better its operational effectiveness and efficiency on a continuous basis (ASQ, 2019).

Factors: In this study, factors mean determinants of quality in the hotel. The determinants can be found internally within the hotel and or externally in the hospitality industry. The factors can have a positive or a negative effect to quality.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The term 'literature' refers to the analysis of textbooks or manuscripts. Although many people rightly associate literature with novels and poetry, in research the term is more specific. In terms of a literature review, 'the literature' means the works the researcher consulted to understand and investigate the research problem. A literature review therefore is all account of what has been published on a topic by accredited scholars and researchers. It is a critical look at the existing research that is significant to the work that the researcher will be carrying out. It involves examining documents such as books, magazines, journals, dissertations and or thesis that have a bearing on the study being conducted. This chapter analyses the importance of literature review in research. It also expounds on the qualities of an effective literature review and guidelines in writing the literature review.

Importance of literature review in research

Literature review is essential in research. This is due to the following:

- It sharpens and deepens the theoretical foundation of the research. Literature review enables the researcher to study different theories related to the identified topic. By studying these theories, a researcher gains clarity and better understanding of the theoretical foundations related to the current research.
- It gives the researcher insight into what has already been done in the selected field, pinpointing its strengths and weaknesses. This information guides the researcher in the formulation of a theory that aims at addressing the identified gaps.
- It enables the researcher to know the kind of additional data needed in the study. This helps avoid duplication of work.
- An understanding of previous works helps the researcher develop a significant problem which will provide further knowledge in the field of study. It also helps in delimiting the research problem. This is

through portraying what has already been done and what would be useful to focus on in the current study

- Wide reading exposes the researcher to a variety of approaches of dealing with the research issue. This contributes to a well-designed methodology. The researcher can avoid methods indicated in the literature to have failed and adopt new approaches. This will result in a significant study.
- It helps in developing an analytic framework or a basis for analysing and interpreting data.
- It exposes the researcher to contemporary knowledge in the area of study

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE LITERATURE REVIEW

The following are qualities expected from all effective literature review.

- **It is critical, organised and analytical in orientation.** In an effective study, the literature review is used to analyse issues such as: whether the hypotheses in the studies reviewed were logically formulated. The methodology used in the studies and the quality of interpretation of the findings are also analysed. Other issues addressed by the researcher while reviewing literature relate to the sampling procedures adopted, and their appropriateness for the study. The interpretation of data particularly on whether it is based on logical deduction of findings is also examined. An investigation is also made on research findings and their statistical significance. The applicability of the research findings to a wide population is discussed.

- **It justifies the need for the study.** An effective literature review identifies the gaps in the studies quoted. By identifying these gaps and highlighting the identified controversies, it helps to indicate that further research needs to be carried out on the identified topic. It also points out how the current study will contribute positively towards filling the identified gaps.

- **It highlights the relationship between the past and the current study**. An effective literature review links the current study with past studies. It evaluates and shows the relationships between the

work already done by other scholars and the researcher's work. This link brings consistency and continuity in relation to the identified topic.

☐ **It puts the research problem into perspective.** By quoting and analysing various studies related to the selected topic, the literature review helps define the research problem. It also acts as a guideline in assessment of the research questions.

GUIDELINES IN FORMULATING AN EFFECTIVE LITERATURE REVIEW

The following techniques are essential in reviewing literature:

a) Identify key issues to be addressed by the literature review. Before the researcher begins to search for articles and materials relevant to the research topic, he/ she should identify the key issues that will guide the literature search. These key issues can be formulated by the researcher clearly identifying the research topic, title and the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The objectives of the study should also be identified. The researcher should also be certain of the specific problem the literature review will help address. The researcher should know what type of literature review he/she is conducting. That is, does it deal with issues of theory, methodology, policy or social issues?

b) Formulate a preliminary statement of the research problem. The researcher should formulate a preliminary statement. This will assist the researcher to be focused in material selection. For example, what are the causes and effects of abortion on the education of female students in secondary schools and colleges? What has been done and can be done to assist these students? After the preliminary statement, the researcher can now begin to identify sources of information relevant to the research topic.

c) Identify sources of information. The researcher needs to identify books, articles, professional papers and other relevant publications that relate to the research title and the research problem. There are a wide variety of sources available for locating articles for the review of literature. Many of these sources are available in the libraries. The internet can also be used to locate articles. Some of the sources of information include journal articles. These are good especially for up-to-date information. They are frequently used in literature reviews because they offer a relatively concise, up to date format for research and because all reputable journals are peer reviewed and refereed

(that is, editors publish only the most relevant and reliable research). Books offer a good starting point from which to find more detailed sources. Conference proceedings are useful in providing current research findings or research that has not been published. Information can also be gathered from government/corporate reports. Many government departments and corporations or commissions carry out research. Their published findings can provide a useful source of information, depending on the researcher's field of study. Newspapers can also offer useful information about recent trends, discoveries or changes, e.g., announcing changes in government policy: Specialized magazines are very useful (for example business magazines for management students) in providing general information about new discoveries and policies. Theses and dissertations can be useful sources of information. The researcher should identify the source of the literature review. He/ she should be clear on what types of publications will be used (for example, journals, books, government document). The researcher should also identify the discipline he/she is working in (Tourism, Hospitality, Travel, Recreation, Marketing, and Accounting) this will hasten the search for materials.

d) Critically analyse the article identified. After identifying the articles to be used, the researcher should critically analyse each book or article selected by reflecting on the following:

- ☐ Has the author formulated a problem/issue? Is it clearly defined? Is its significance clearly established?
- ☐ Has the author evaluated the literature relevant to the problem/issue?
- ☐ Is there an objective basis to the reasoning or is the author merely 'proving' what he or she already believes?
- ☐ How does the author structure the argument, for example does it establish cause effect relationships?
- ☐ How does the book or article relate to the specific objectives or questions the researcher is attempting to study?

To answer these questions, the researcher should read the article's abstract or summary. This will enable the researcher to deduce how applicable the article is to the current study. In the selection of articles, the most recent works on a subject a must be identified. This shows or

demonstrates how the researcher is conversant with current trends in knowledge in the subject area.

e) Classify and code the article. The researcher should abstract and code each relevant article based on a system of his /her devising. This includes taking notes and paraphrasing any relevant literature that the researcher would want to include in the literature review. The researcher should mark these notes with some codes for easy retrieval. This involves putting the code on an index card or on the photocopied article (if you photocopied it). The researcher should add on the coded article any thoughts that come to his/her mind about the article. The author should indicate any statements that are direct quotations (use quotation marks and also jot down the page number). The researcher should keep personal reactions separated from direct quotations. The details of the source e.g., author, title, date of publication and the publisher should be indicated.

f) Create an outline for the review. To create an outline of the literature review, the researcher should identify the main points in the order they should be presented. The article codes will assist in all this. The researcher should also differentiate each main heading into logical sub-headings. Points that are similar should be grouped together.

g) Synthesise the information gathered. The researcher should synthesise the information gathered before writing the literature. This involves analysing each reference in terms of the research variables. The researcher should also analyse all references identified for the relationships or differences between them.

h) Write the review of related literature. Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2007) indicate that in reviewing literature, the author should do the following:

- ☐ Select studies that relate most directly to the problem at hand.
- ☐ Tie together the results of the studies so that their relevance is clear
- ☐ Indicate that the research area reviewed is incomplete or requires extension.
- ☐ Organise the review along major points relevant to the problem.
- ☐ Give the reader some indication of the relative importance of the results from the studies reviewed.

One way of reviewing literature in an organised manner is by reviewing it according to the objectives. The researcher selects an objective and reviews information related to the achievement of that particular objective under the subheadings of the objective itself. The objectives provide guidelines of what should be put under them and how it should be.

EVALUATION

After carrying out the review and writing, the researcher should reflect on the following:

a) How effective was the information search? To answer this, the researcher should reflect on whether the search was wide enough to ensure he/ she had found all the relevant material. The researcher should also reflect on whether the search was narrow enough to exclude irrelevant material. The researcher should also reflect on whether the number of sources used was appropriate in tackling the issue under discussion.

b) Has the literature been critically analysed? The researcher should find out whether he/she has followed through a set of concepts and questions, comparing items to each other. The researcher should find out whether instead of just listing and summarising items, he/she has assessed them, discussing their strengths and weaknesses.

c) Will the reader find literature review relevant, appropriate, and useful? The researcher should also reflect on the relevance of the information given to the readers.

d) Does the literature help clarify the research problem? The literature should help put the research problem into perspective.

ORGANISATION OF LITERATURE REVIEW

There are different ways of organising literature which include the following:

☐ **Chronological (by date):** This is one of the most common ways, especially for topics that have been talked about for a long time and have changed over their history. Organise it in stages of how the topic has changed: the first definitions of it, then major time

periods of change as researchers talked about it, then how it is thought about today.

- **Broad-to-specific**: Another approach is to start with a section on the general type of issue you are reviewing, then narrow down to increasingly specific issues in the literature until you reach the articles that are most specifically similar to your research question, thesis statement, hypothesis, or proposal. This can be a good way to introduce many background and related facets of your topic when there is not much directly on your topic but you are tying together many related, broader articles.

- **Major models or major theories**: When there are multiple models or prominent theories, it is a good idea to outline the theories or models that are applied the most in your articles. That way you can group the articles you read by the theoretical framework that each prefers, to get a good overview of the prominent approaches to your concept.

- **Prominent authors**: If a certain researcher started a field, and there are several famous people who developed it more, a good approach can be grouping the famous author/researchers and what each is known to have said about the topic. You can then organise other authors into groups by which famous authors' ideas they are following. With this organisation it can help to look at the citations your articles list in them, to see if there is one author that appears over and over.

- **Contrasting schools of thought**: If you find a dominant argument comes up in your research, with researchers taking two sides and talking about how the other is wrong, you may want to group your literature review by those schools of thought and contrast the differences in their approaches and ideas.

CHALLENGES FACED IN THE FORMULATION OF A LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many challenges researchers encounter while writing the literature review. These include the following:

- Failure to connect the reviewed studies with the current study. Some literature reviews are simply listings of all pieces of literature after the other without any discussion and analysis. The researcher

hardly relates the studies to his/her study. These make the studies unrelated to the current study. The researcher should show the relationship between the works of different researchers, showing similar ties/ differences and how each set of studies, theories or methodologies in the previous research impacts on his/her study.

☐ Poor presentation. Some researchers create too many paragraphs in their work by treating each article in a separate paragraph. This makes the work disjointed particularly if separate paragraphs are addressing a similar point. The researcher should ensure that similar points are grouped together or combined. Some researchers start each article with the name of the researcher. This repetition can become tiresome for readers. This can be varied by quoting the author after writing about the article. Some researchers devote the same amount of space to each study without regard to importance or relevance. The review should be organised according to major points relevant to the research problem. Some results have more bearing on the problem than others and should be expounded on adequately.

☐ Large quantities of studies to review. Some researchers attempt to read and review all the materials related to their topic. This is impossible. The idea of the literature review is not to provide a summary of all the published work that relates to one's research, but a survey of the most relevant and significant works. The researcher should therefore read abstracts of the selected articles, and select materials that are most relevant to his/her study.

☐ Lack of documentation. Some researchers read articles without writing until they have 'finished' reading. This at times results in forgetting things or omitting important points. A researcher should note down important points in the course of reading.

☐ Lack of referencing. Some researchers rarely note down the references in their work while reading. Some are therefore forced while compiling the literature review, to spend many time in the library tracking down the references to all the sources that they quoted. They may also must go through their writing to find which information came from which source. To avoid this, researchers should always put references into their writing.

☐ Lack of critique. Some researchers blindly accept research findings and interpretation without critically examining all aspects of the research design and analysis. The researcher should critically

analyse the work, pointing out contrary findings and alternative interpretations.

☐ Failure to review current studies. Some researchers base their reviews on works that were carried out over twenty years ago. Though these studies may have valid information and cannot be ignored, the researcher should attempt to base most of the review on current studies. The researcher should make attempts to analyse studies carried out less than five years ago in relation to his/her study.

After reviewing literature, the researcher should discuss the identified gaps.

EXAMPLES OF LITERATURE REVIEW STRUCTURE

Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**

2.1 Introduction
The chapter aimed at reviewing existing literature on the topic. It described, compared, contrasted and evaluated the major theories, arguments, themes, approaches and controversies in the scholarly literature on destination image (DI) and performance of the tourism sector. Literature review was also conducted to identify gaps in literature with regards to DI and performance of the tourism sector. This was done to fill such gap or gaps with new knowledge thereby contributing towards extending the frontiers of knowledge in terms of DI recovery and tourism performance.

2.2 Theoretical framework
2.2.1. Theories on destination image
2.2.1.1 Avraham and Ketter (2016) Multi-step model
2.2.1.2 Lubbe's (2004) Open systems model of public relations in destination image development
2.2.1.3 The stakeholder theory
2.2.2 Performance theories
2.2.2.1 Sottentag and Frese (2002) performance theory
2.2.2.2 The balanced destination theory by Barber & Kaurev (2015)
2.2.2.3 Assaf and Josiassen (2012) tourism performance model
2.2.3 Perceptual images of a tourist destination

2.3 Cognitive component
2.3.1 Affective component

2.3.2 Components of destination image
2.3.3 The hierarchical relationship between cognitive and affective components
2.3.4 Conative component
2.3.5 Secondary image
2.3.6 Primary image
2.3.7 Organic Image
2.3.8 Induced Image

2.4.1 Destination image and Performance of the Tourism Sector Globally
2.4.1.1 Europe
2.4.1.2 America
2.4.1.3 Asia
2.4.1.4 Africa

2.5 Determinants of Destination Image and Performance of the Tourism sector
2.5.1 Demand (Tourist) Factors as Determinants of DI and Performance
2.5.2 Supply Factors as Determinants of Destination image and Performance

2.6 Effect of Destination Image on Performance of the Tourism Sector
2.6.1 Self-Congruence and Destination Choice
2.6.2 Tourist satisfaction

Example 2: **Basera (2019): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

CHAPTER 2: QUALITY AWARENESS

2.1 Introduction
This chapter provides hotel and hospitality industry attributes. It also tackles the theoretical foundations underpinning the study and explains theories of quality management systems adoption. An analysis of empirical evidence highlighting research gaps is also outlined. Different types of quality management systems (QMS) and benefits of adopting QMS are explained. The conceptual framework of quality awareness in the hotel industry is then presented at the end of the chapter.
2.2 The Hotel industry
2.3 Theoretical foundations and research gaps
2.4 Theoretical framework
2.4.1 Resource-Based View theory (RBV)
2.4.2 Contingency/Situational Theory
2.4.3 Chaos theory

2.5 Level of awareness of quality amongst stakeholder2.5.1 Definition of quality
2.5.2 Dimensions of product quality
2.5.2.1. Performance dimension
2.5.2.2. Features of a product

2.6. Conceptual framework
2.6.1. Conceptual framework of quality awareness

2.7 Chapter Summary

CHAPTER 3: FACTORS AFFECTING THE ADOPTION OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

3.1 Introduction

The adoption of quality management systems (QM in the hospitality industry is affected by internal and external factors. This chapter reviews literature on factors affecting the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry. The internal factors are reviewed first, and then external factors and literature on impact of stakeholders on the adoption of QMS in the hospitality industry is also explored. At the end of the chapter a conceptual framework is presented linking variables from the literature.

3.2 Internal factors affecting the adoption of QMS
3.2.1 Employees
3.2.2 Management
3.2.3 Inadequate finance
3.2.4. Failure to embrace trend technology
3.2.5. Uncoordinated quality communication
3.2.6 Failure to embrace change
3.2.7. Departmentalisation of functions
3.2.8 Organisational size

3.3 External factors affecting the adoption of QMS
3.3.1. Political interference
3.3.2. Dynamic competition
3.3.3. Technology
3.3.4. Globalisation
3.3.5. Regulatory factors
3.3.6. High exchange rate
3.3.7. Infrastructure
3.3.8. Crime and corruption
3.3.9. Customers
3.3.10. Best practices

3.4 External stakeholders that influence the implementation of QMS
3.4.1 Government
3.4.2 Financial institutions
3.4.3. Customers
3.4.4. Authorities and association

3.5 Conceptual framework of internal factors, external factors and stakeholders

3.6 Chapter Summary

CHAPTER 4: BUSINESS EXCELLENCE

4.1 Introduction
Awards of quality were introduced across the world by several forums to honour the quality management efforts undertaken by different companies to promote quality in the production of goods and services. The notion of Business Excellence (BE) is at the core of quality awards and this chapter illustrates the main quality awards available in the literature. The Deming prize, Malcom Baldridge National Quality Award (MBNQA) and European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) are explained among many other quality awards. BE is defined from literature highlighting the different authors' perspectives and the impact of it as a quality management tool. Literature on BE in the hospitality is still scant and a review from a wide spectrum of industries was adopted. A comparative analysis of the BE models will be illustrated from the literature.

4.2 An overview of business excellence
4.2.1 Deming Prize Model
4.2.2 Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
4.2.3 The European Foundation for Quality Management

4.3 The Deming Prize, Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award, European Foundation for Quality Management Evaluation Criteria
4.3.1 Business results
4.3.2 Leadership and management
4.3.3 Customer focus
4.3.4 Employee involvement
4.3.5 Continuous improvement
4.3.6 Planning
4.3.7 Training of employees
4.3.8 Effective communication

4.4 Zimbabwe Quality Awards

4.5 Business Excellence conceptual framework

4.6 Chapter Summary.

CONCLUSION
The review of literature is critical in any research work. This is because it enables the researcher to study different theories related to the identified topic and gain clarity of the research topic. It also enables the researcher to know the kind of additional data needed in the study.

However, a good literature review is critical, organised and analytical in orientation. It also justifies the need for the study and highlights the relationship between the past and the current studies. There are varied challenges faced by researchers in reviewing literature. These include failure to connect the reviewed studies with the current study, poor presentation, lack of documentation, lack of critique, and failure to review current studies. The researcher should make attempts to avoid these mistakes. This is by taking sufficient time to keenly work on this section.

CHAPTER 4: DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

After completing the introduction and literature review, the next task in the proposal is the methodology. This chapter of the research deals with the description of the methods applied in carrying out the research study. It is organised under the following sections: research philosophy and paradigm, research design, research site, population, sampling techniques, research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND PARADIGM

Research philosophy deals with the source, nature and development of knowledge (Bajpai, 2011). In simple terms, a research philosophy is a belief about the ways in which data about a phenomenon should be collected, analysed and used. Although the idea of knowledge creation may appear to be profound, you are engaged in knowledge creation as part of completing your thesis. You will collect secondary and primary data and engage in data analysis to answer the research question and this answer marks the creation of new knowledge.

In essence, addressing research philosophy in your thesis involves being aware and formulating your beliefs and assumptions. As it is illustrated in figure 4.1: Research philosophy in the 'modified research onion', the identification of the research philosophy is positioned at the outer layer of the 'research onion guided by the nature of the study, accordingly it is the first section to be clarified in research methodology chapter of your thesis.
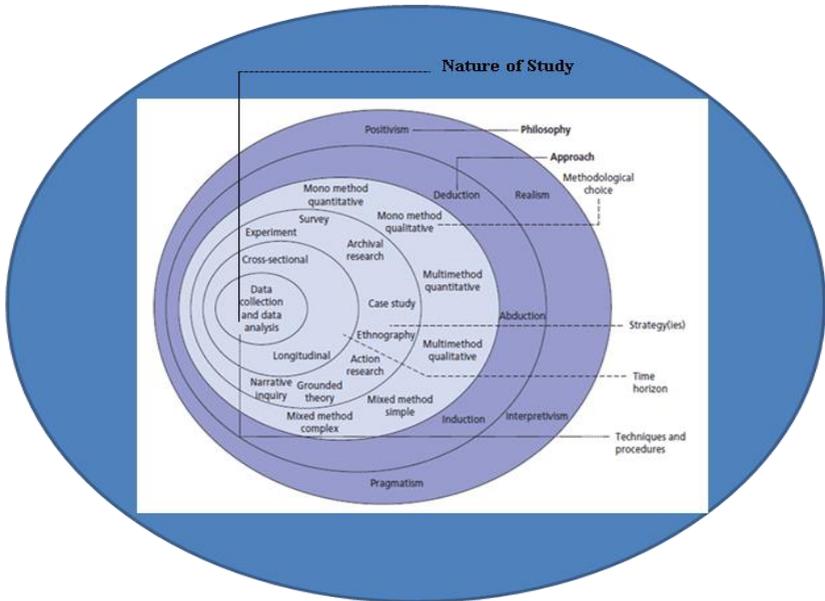
Figure 4.1: *Research philosophy in the 'research onion'* (Modified from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012)

Each stage of the research process is based on assumptions about the sources and the nature of knowledge. The research philosophy will reflect the author's important assumptions and these assumptions serve as base for the research strategy. Generally, research philosophy has many branches related to a wide range of disciplines. Within the scope of business studies in particular there are four main research philosophies:

☐ **Pragmatism**

Pragmatism research philosophy accepts concepts to be relevant only if they support action. Pragmatics recognise that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture and that there may be multiple realities.

☐ **Positivism**

In its essence, positivism is based on the idea that science is the only way to learn about the truth. As a philosophy, positivism adheres to the

view that only 'factual' knowledge gained through observation (the senses), including measurement, is trustworthy. In positivism studies the role of the researcher is limited to data collection and interpretation in an objective way. In these types of studies research findings are usually observable and quantifiable.

☐ **Realism**

Realism research philosophy relies on the idea of independence of reality from the human mind. This philosophy assumes of a scientific approach to the development of knowledge. Realism can be divided into two groups: direct and critical. Direct realism, also known as naive realism, can be described as 'what you see is what you get'. In other words, direct realism portrays the world through personal human senses. Critical realism, on the other hand, argues that humans do experience the sensations and images of the real world. According to critical realism, sensations and images of the real world can be deceptive and they usually do not portray the real world.

☐ **Interpretivism (Interpretivist)**

Interpretivism also known as interpretivist involves researchers to interpret elements of the study, thus interpretivism integrates human interest into a study. Accordingly, interpretive researchers assume that access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments. Development of interpretivist philosophy is based on the critique of positivism in social sciences. Accordingly, this philosophy emphasises qualitative analysis over quantitative analysis.

The four research philosophies are premised on three research paradigms which are epistemology, ontology and axiology. Epistemology seeks to understand what is deemed as acceptable knowledge in a particular field. Ontology is explained by Saunders *et al.*, (2019, p, 135) through the question 'What assumptions do we make about the way in which the world works?' and states that ontology relate to the description of reality. Ontology has two aspects namely subjectivism and objectivism. Objectivism depicts that social object exist in a

reality that is not affected by the social actors around them while subjectivism argues the opposite where social objects are produced from the actions and perceptions of individual social actors related to their existence. This research philosophy aims at understanding the role played by values in research choices. As values are a part of human nature, it is imperative to appreciate the part they work on all stages of a research to come up with credible results. A summary of the research philosophies and their paradigms in relation to the four philosophical assumptions found in business research is shown in Figure 4.2.
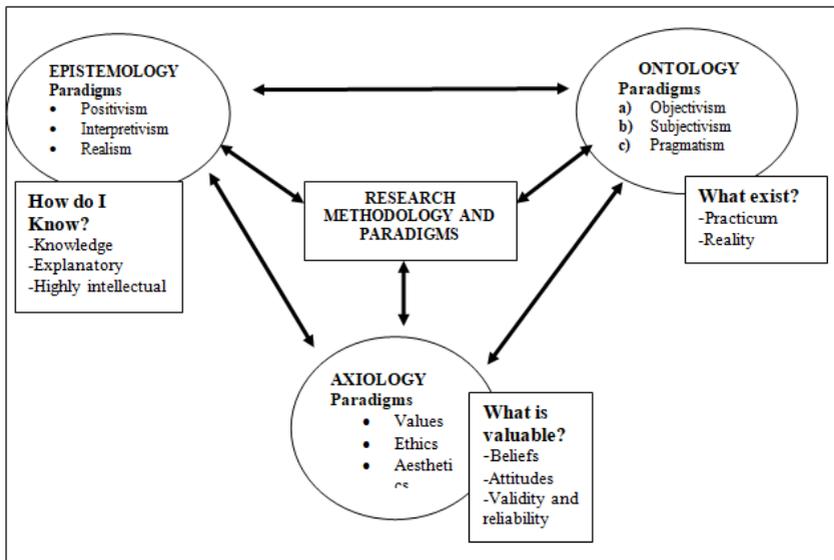
Figure 4.2: *Research philosophies and paradigms* (Ruturi, 2016)

THE CHOICE OF RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The choice of a specific research philosophy is impacted by the nature of the research problem and the practical implications. There are important philosophical differences between studies that focus on facts and numbers such as an analysis of the impact of foreign direct investment on the level of GDP growth and qualitative studies such as

an analysis of leadership style on employee motivation in organisations.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design can be thought of as the structure of research. It is the 'glue' that holds all of the elements in a research project together. A design is used to structure the research, to show how all of the major parts of the research project work together to try to address the central research questions. Research design was defined as being concerned with the plan of the research (Saunders et al., 2012). Cooper (2003) describes a research design as a roadmap, a blueprint for visualising and obtaining answers to research questions. A research design can be regarded as an arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance with the research purpose. It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Aletaiby, 2018). Figure 4.3a and 4.3b shows examples of research designs.
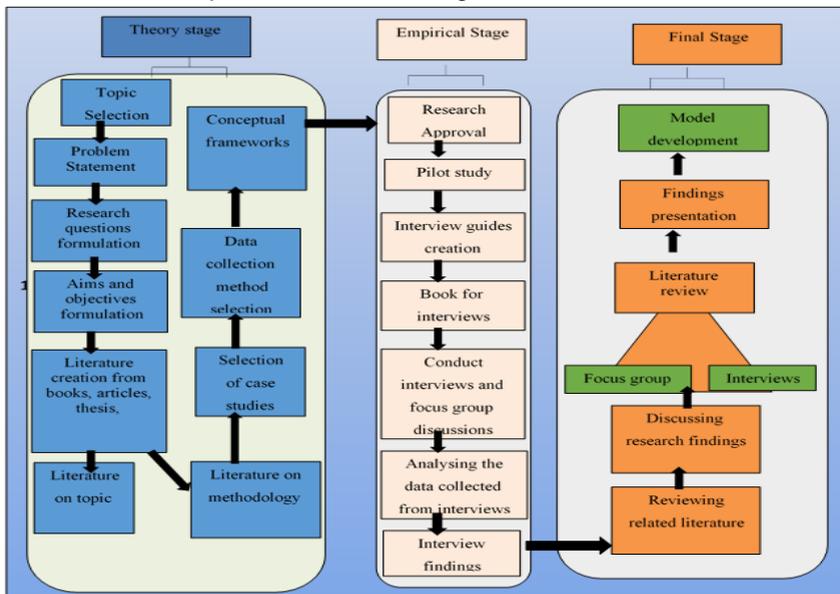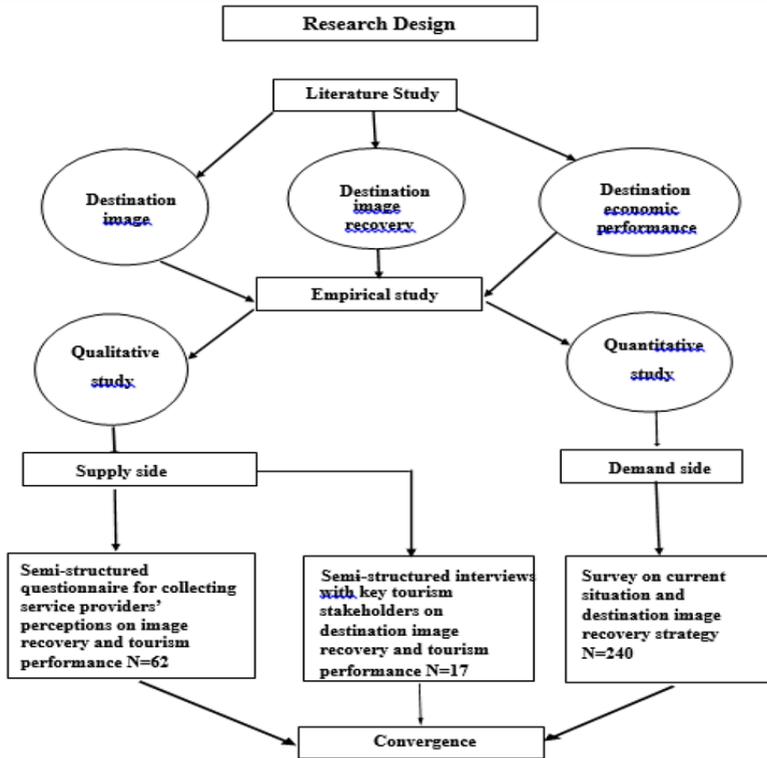

Figure 4.3a: *Research design* (Basera, 2021)

Figure 4.3b: *Research design* (Kanokanga, 2019)

TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGNS

It is important to understand the relationship among various designs. This will assist the researcher in making research design choices and thinking about the strength and weaknesses of different designs. The designs are as follows:

DESCRIPTIVE DESIGN

The major purpose of descriptive research is description of the situation as it exists. The researcher reports the findings. Saunders *et al.*, (2007) point out that descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact findings but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems. They are

more than just a collection of data. They involve measurement, classification, analysis, comparison and interpretation of data.

Descriptive survey is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2014). It can be used when collecting information about people's attitudes, opinions, habits or any of the variety of education or social issues (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). For example, teachers in schools can carry out a survey to find out students' attitudes towards their teaching styles or discipline. When using this design, the researcher should ensure the following:
  a. Construct questions that will solicit the desired information.
  b. Identify the individuals that will be surveyed.
  c. Identify how the survey will be conducted
  d. Summarise the data in a way that provides the designed descriptive information.

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN
In this design, subjects are randomly assigned to an experimental group which receives the treatment or to a control group which does not receive treatment. Assuming the two groups were initially equivalent the researcher can compare their performance. In this design cause and effect can be easily determined. If you decide to use this design, you must be certain of the independent and dependent variables and must guard against the influence of extraneous variables.

The design enables the researcher to assess the degree of relationship that exists between two or more variables. It analyses the correlation between two or more variables (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2014). For example, if you compare the examination performance of a group of university students who prepare their own meals every day and those who eat at the cafeteria, you will use a correlation design. Suppose the academic performance of students who prepare their own meals is lower than those who eat at the cafeteria, then you may deduce that preparation of meals by students has an impact on their academic performance. However, you might not be able to prove conclusively that the poor performance was caused by time used for cooking. Nevertheless, if you have carefully controlled other possible variables that might produce the difference, then a causal relationship exists. The use of correlational research designs

will enable you to map out the relationship between two or more educational variables.

CASE STUDY DESIGN

A case study seeks to describe a unit in detail, in context and holistically. It is a way of organising educational data and looking at the object to be studied. In a case study, a great deal can be learned from a few examples of the phenomena under study. For example, factors affecting quality management systems adoption in Zimbabwe hotel industry. A study of hotels in Harare as a case study can allow an in-depth investigation of the problem at hand. It will bring about deeper insights and better understanding of the problems faced by hotels in adopting quality management systems.

You should use case study design if you intend to analyse an issue in detail. Ensure that you have justified why you selected a case study.

CROSS CULTURAL RESEARCH DESIGN

This is used to compare the behaviour patterns of different cultures. Using this design, you can perceive how various cultures perceive certain educational and social outcomes. For example, you can compare holiday travel motives of people in rural areas and people in urban areas and find out to what extent cultural variations influence holiday travel.

STEPS TO FOLLOW IN SELECTING A RESEARCH DESIGN

Below are some of the steps a researcher should follow while selecting a research design:

- Identify the kind of research you intend to carry out. Being aware of the purpose and objectives of your study and your theoretical foundations will considerably influence how you design your research: where you go, for how long, with whom you talk, and the kind of questions you ask. Deciding if you intend to test or elaborate existing theory or are trying to build a new, grand theory, or are using existing theory in a new way, has implications in the kind of information you need to collect.
- Use the library to analyse samples of research designs from books and periodicals. The Internet is another option.

☐ Discuss with colleagues on the validity and reliability of your research and decide on what design will assist in answering your research questions appropriately.

QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

a) They are systematic and logical. They effectively address the questions raised in the study. Based on this design the researcher can construct questions that will solicit the desired information.
b) They contribute to accurate and fair interpretation of results.
c) They clarify to the researcher the respondents and how the study will be conducted.
d) They contribute to deeper insights and better understanding of the research topic.

GUIDELINES IN SELECTING A RESEARCH DESIGN

The following are essential points that researchers should adhere to while selecting a research design:

☐ Identify the research questions to be addressed by the study: The researcher should identify and reflect on the research questions raised in the study. Reflection should include brainstorming on issues such as:

a) Do the questions raised in the study require collecting information by interviewing or questionnaires? If the response is positive, then the researcher will use a survey design.
b) Do the questions raised in the study require systematic manipulation of independent and dependent variables? If the answer is yes, then the researcher will use an experimental design.
c) Does the study require the researcher to assess relationship between two or more variables? If the answer is positive, then a correlation design will be used.
d) Does the study seek to describe a unit in detail? If so, then a case study design will be used.
e) Does the study seek to compare the behaviour patterns of different cultures? If the answer is positive, then a cross-cultural research design will be applicable.

□   After identifying the research design to be used read materials related to that design to understand its advantages and disadvantages.

Indicate the research design pointing out its validity and reliability to the current research.

PITFALLS IN THE SELECTION OF RESEARCH DESIGNS

While selecting a research design, researchers should lookout for the following pitfalls and avoid them:

a) Choosing a design that cannot assist in meeting the research objectives.

b) Choosing a design that is too complex for research at the level at which the student is studying.

c) Choosing a design that requires extensive study and much time while the time assigned to the research is limited.

d) Lack of clarity about the design.

e) A research design that lacks flexibility.

From the above, in selecting a research design, the researcher should ensure that it links concepts and questions with the study, and it is flexible and expansive enough to adapt to various complexities.

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH DESIGN

***Example 1:* Ndhlovu (2015) An assessment of the innovative measures employed by small to medium size hotels in Harare, Zimbabwe**
The study adopted the multiple-case study design. Case studies are widely used in tourism studies due to the uniqueness of each tourist destination studied. The differences between culture, location, history and degree of tourism development of destinations necessitated the intensive examination of each one.

***Example 2:* Maphosa (2014) An investigation of the causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe: A case study of operators in Harare**

In this study, the researcher employed the descriptive survey design. Descriptive survey design is a type of research method that is used when one wants to get information on in the current status of a person, object or situation. It is used to describe what is in existence in respect to conditions or variables that are found in a given situation (www.ask.com/descriptive_survey: 02.11.2014). The research study wanted to find out causes of non-adherence to set quality standards in lodges in Zimbabwe of particular focus Harare operators. The study at this stage assumed that quality standards in lodges are deteriorating hence an investigation is sought. Descriptive survey involves gathering data that describe events and then organises, tabulates, depicts, and describes the data collection (Glass and Hopkins, 1984). It often

uses visual aids such as graphs and charts to aid the researcher in understanding the data distribution (www.learngen.org/.../41-01.html: 6.11.2014). An example of what would be, for instance the use of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

(SPSS). SPSS opens up for descriptive statistics used to describe and summarise sets of data. It uses tables, graphs and charts (Foster 2001:6).

A sample of respondents is selected from the population. Leedy (1974:74) notes that the word survey has the basic connotation of 'the act of looking over and beyond'. Survey research enabled the researcher to collect original data for purposes of describing a population large enough to observe directly. Survey research enabled the researcher to choose a large and representative sample. For instance, the study surveyed 99 lodges and 2 Tourism and Hospitality stakeholders that are Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe (HAZ) all in the Harare province. At least the survey would take note of different opinions, from the different principles found in the lodges industry a replica of 'Quality Circles' and 'Six Sigma' theory. Different opinions helped to arrive at conclusions, and more opinions that would help improve the Zimbabwe lodges industry. Survey also provides decision makers with information on which to base sound decisions. The findings should be useful to the Tourism and Hospitality administrators or decision makers.

Descriptive survey can be either quantitative or qualitative or both (Glass and Hopkins 1984). The design for this study was both quantitative and qualitative. It was quantitative in the sense that the questionnaires used provided quantifiable data. Statistical analysis used show the quantities involved. For instance, in this study SPSS was be employed for statistical analysis. SPSS aids in descriptive statistics for any quantitative variable or numeric variables with ordered values. It can be used to describe any quantitative variable whether or not its distribution is normal, and they may be useful descriptions for values that are code ordered categories such as 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly agree (SPSS Applications guide (1999:7). This would form conclusive research that enables the researcher to investigate specific relationships and to test hypothesis of the study hence, it was the most suitable research design.

The researcher's instrument for conducting the survey was mainly personal interviews. To complement, data collected through the questionnaire, the qualitative approach was used. The qualitative approach was in the form of a questionnaire guide which content open-ended questions. The qualitative approach focused on the process of social interaction and is holistic in that it attempts to provide conceptual basis for understanding complex issues (Cohen and Manion, 1994). In this case the focus is on acquiring information from relevant stakeholders (ZTA and HAZ) on causes that make lodges not adhere to set quality standards. This approach seeks insights rather than statistical analysis (Chisaka, 2001). Hence interviews were carried out with relevant stakeholders as follow-up to questionnaires.

RESEARCH SITE

The selection of a research site is essential. It influences the usefulness of the information produced. The idea is to start with a larger population and through progressive elimination, end up with the

actual site where data are collected (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). It is important to do the following:

- Identify the largest areas which are relevant to your research questions and objectives.
- Consider the heterogeneity of the potential study population and choose areas or communities which represent the range of variations on the most important characteristics.
- Identify and select actual communities which fulfil these criteria by making site visits, discussing with community leaders.
- Issues of accessibility should also be considered.

EXAMPLE OF STUDY LOCATION

Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe

To holistically explore DI and performance as drivers of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe, samples were drawn from several tourism and hospitality stakeholders from both the demand and supply sides in the country. Geographically, the study covered Harare, Victoria Falls, Kariba, Gweru, Zvishavane, Bulawayo, Masvingo and Kwekwe. Theoretically, the research was based on image repair, tourism performance and stakeholder theories. From the demand side, international tourists were part of the study population while the supply side included several service providers which comprised the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe (CAAZ), ZTA, Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe (HAZ), the Tourism Business Council of Zimbabwe (TBCZ), Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority, Ministry of Environment, Tourism and Hospitality Industry, Travel agents and the Association of Zimbabwe Travel Agents (AZTA), Air Zimbabwe and Zimbabwe Board of Airline Representatives, hotel operators and managers and the Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe (HAZ). The study was conducted from 2014 to 2018.

POPULATION

A population is a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement (for example a population of students). Population refers to an entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common, for instance, students at Manicaland State University of Applied Sciences. Population also refers to the larger group from which the sample is taken. It is important for the researcher to find out as much as possible about the

study population. This includes some of the overall demographics such as age, gender and class of the population. The greater the diversity and differences that exist in the population, the larger the researchers sample size should be. Capturing the variability in population allows for more reliability of the study.

For example, if a study is on the effect of the slum environment of basic education, it is important that the majority of the population of the respondents is from the slum environment.

EXAMPLE OF STUDY POPULATION

Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe

International tourists, tourism and hospitality service providers and key informants comprised the study population. The accessible population was from Victoria Falls, Bulawayo, Zvishavane, Kwekwe, Gweru, Masvingo, Kariba, Chinhoyi and Harare. Table shows the study population.

The study population

POPULATION	UNITS	
Total number of tourists received in 2018	2 579 974	
% of foreign tourists (16%)	412 796	
Number of foreign tourists in the country per month 412 796/12	3 440	
Number of foreign tourists in Harare and Victoria Falls .65 x 3440		2 236
1000 registered service providers x .60 (6 provinces)		600
10 tourism-related organisations in key/regulatory positions (key informants)		10
TOTAL		2 846

The following are the qualities of an effective population sample:
 a) Diversity: All effective population sample attempts to be as diverse as possible. The greater the diversity and differences that exist in the

population sample, the higher the applicability of the research findings to the whole population.

b) Representative: It is important for the researcher to identify and s elect respondents that fulfil the questions the research is addressing

c) Accessibility: All effective population sample is one that is accessible to the researcher.

d) Knowledge: An effective population sample should have some idea of the topic being investigated.

In population sampling, the researcher should carry out the following:

a) Reflect on the research title particularly the independent and dependent variables and the study objectives. This enables the researcher to identify the type of population that will be most suitable for the study.

b) Identify the largest population which can relevantly be used as respondents in addressing the research questions and meeting the specific objectives.

c) Consider the heterogeneity of a potential study population and choose areas or communities which represent the range of variations with the most important characteristics.

d) Evaluate the effectiveness of the selected population in meeting the objectives of the study. Issues of accessibility to the respondents should also be considered during evaluation.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study. It is a process of selecting several individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Bryman & Bell, 2017). A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain inform the whole (Bryman & Bell, 2017). When dealing with people. It can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey. Research conclusions and generalizations are only as good as the sample they are based on. Samples are always

subsets or small parts of the total number that could be studied. Sampling is the act, process or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristic of the whole population. The way in which a researcher selects subjects for a study will determine how one can generalise the results of the study.

SAMPLING DESIGN

The term 'sampling design' refers to that part of the research plan that indicates how cases are to be selected for observation. Sampling designs are divided into two broad areas of probability designs and non-probability designs.

PROBABILITY SAMPLING

The key component behind all probability sampling approaches is randomisation, or random selection. In probability sampling people, places or things are randomly selected. Each unit in the population has an equal chance of being selected. This sampling gives every member of the population equal chances of being included in the study. Probability sampling enables the researcher to generalise to the larger population and make inferences. If the purpose of your research is to draw conclusions or make predictions affecting the population, then probability sampling is appropriate. Various methods have been established to accomplish probability sampling. These include the following:

a) Simple random sampling

This method is referred to as simple random sampling as no complexities are involved. All you need is a relatively small, clearly defined population to use this method. For example, in a town of 10,000 residents, the researcher may simply obtain a list of all residents, and then using a sequence of numbers from a random numbers table (or draws of a hat, flips of a coin), selects say 10% or 20%, or some portion of names on that list, making sure that he/she is not drawing from any letter of the alphabet more heavily than others. Advantages of simple random sampling are that the samples yield research data that can be generalised to a larger population. This method also permits the researcher to apply inferential statistics to the data and provides equal opportunity of selection for each element of the population. It is a procedure in which all the individuals in the

defined population have all equal and independent chance of being selected as a member of the sample.

This includes the following:

- It is not the most statistically efficient method of sampling, The researcher may, just because of luck of draw, not get good representation of subgroups in a population,
- Bias in selection is common.
- Some samples may be over or underrepresented.
- Nonresponse error is high. Some of the members selected may have moved to other areas.

b) Stratified random sampling

Stratified random sampling involves dividing your population into homogeneous subgroups and then taking a simple random sample in each subgroup. The sample is selected in such a way as to ensure that certain subgroups in the population are represented in the sample in proportion to their number in the population. This method is appropriate when the researcher is interested in issues related to gender, race or age disparities in the population.

For example, if one is planning to study factors influencing female enrolment in tourism and hospitality, and knows that gender is going to be an important factor because female students are most taking this course, the researcher therefore needs to stratify the sample by the gender strata, making sure that the female students are over sampled (draw more of random number of female students) as opposed to male students (which the researcher would under sample). For example, the department has 500 students consisting of 400 female and 100 male students, and the researcher's intent on sampling 10% of the total, and that the researcher proceeds as usual drawing 9% females at random and 1% male at random. If he/she had used the student list of names, regardless of gender, chances are that the researcher may not obtain 1% female students at random because they are fewer in total number. The advantages of this method are that you will be able to represent

not only the overall population, but also key subgroups of the population. Especially small minority groups. Stratified random sampling will generally have more statistical precision than simple random sampling. Disadvantages of stratified simple random sampling is that if not carefully stratified, bias can occur resulting in some groups of the population being unrepresented.

c) Systematic random sampling
Suppose a researcher had a large list of people, places or things to select from, such as 100,000 people or more. The appropriate method to use is to select every 10th, 20th, or 30th person from such a list. This decision to use every 10th, 20th or 30th person is called the sampling interval, and as it is done systematically, and the entire list is used. The researcher is said to be systematically random sampling.

ADVANTAGES
•Large populations can be analysed.
•Every member of the populations has all equal chance of inclusion.
•Bias is minimised.

DISADVANTAGES
- The response may be low since the respondents 'availability is unpredictable
- The selection of the first sample member may result in a bias in the entire sample.
- The list used may not be in a systematic order.

d) Cluster random sampling
If a population is dispersed across a wide geographic region one may must use cluster random sampling. This method allows for the division of the study population into clusters (usually counties, regions, provinces or other boundaries) and random sampling of everyone in those clusters. The units within the sampled clusters should be measured.

For instance, a survey of all secondary schools in Kenya will require the researcher to visit all the provinces. If one uses the simple random sampling method, he/she will must cover the entire country geographically. Instead, one could simply do a cluster sampling of two districts per province that would then be visited for the survey. The advantage of this method is that it needs a detailed sampling frame for selected clusters only rather than for the entire target area. There are savings in travel costs and time as well. However, there is a risk of missing important subgroups and not having a complete representation of the target population.

Probability sampling is any method of sampling that utilizes some form of random selection. To have a random selection method, a researcher must set up some process or procedure that assures that the different units in the selected population have equal probabilities of being chosen. Some forms of random selection include picking a name out of a hat. These days, you can use a computer and generate random numbers as the basis for random selection. Random sampling is still regarded as one of the best statistical methods as it is free from bias.

DISADVANTAGES
1. There is a risk of missing on important subgroups.
2. Lack of complete representation of the target population.

NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING
In this method, the researcher is interested in the representativeness of the concepts in their varying forms. This method of sampling aims to be theoretically representative of the study population by maximizing the scope or range of variation of the study. This method is mainly applied to find out how a small group, or a representative group, is doing for purposes of illustration or explanation. Various methods have also been established to accomplish no probabilistic sampling.

a) Quota sampling
This sampling technique begins by dividing the population into relevant strata such as age, gender or geographical region. The total sample is

allocated among the strata in direct proponent to their estimated or actual size in the population. Once the researcher identifies the people to be studied, they must resort to haphazard or accident effort is usually made to contact people who are difficult to reach within the quota. The problem with this method is that bias intrudes on the sampling frame. This is because researchers allowed to self-select respondents are subject to bias such as interviewing their friends in excessive proportions or concentrating all areas where there are large numbers of potential respondents.

b) Convenience sampling

This method is based all using people who are a captive audience, people the researcher meets haphazardly or accidentally. Respondents are people who just happen to be walking by, or show a special interest in your research. The use of volunteers is an example of convenience sampling.

c) Purposive sampling

In this sample method, the researcher purposely targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the sturdy. For example, to study the effects of abortion on learning, the researcher may make efforts to contact students who previously had terminated their pregnancies. The researcher never knows if the sample is representative of the population. The power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for in-depth analysis related to the central issues being studied. Purposive sampling can be used with both quantitative and qualitative studies. Purposive sampling can be carried out in addition to probability sampling. For example, after completing your baseline study based on a random sample, you may. Recognise that certain sections of the project area are quite different from other areas due to variations in landscape, geography, culture etc. You may then purposively select those areas to get representative information about how the variations have influenced the behaviour of the people. Purposive sampling is particularly relevant when you are concerned with exploring the universe and understanding the audience. This means, using your common sense and the best judgment in choosing

the right habitations and meeting the right number of the correct people for the purpose of your study. Types of purposive sampling include the following:

• **Extreme case sampling:** It focuses on cases that are rich in information because they are unusual or special in some way, for instance, the only community in a region that prohibits wife inheritance.

• **Maximum variation sampling**: Aims at capturing the central themes that cut across participant variations, for instance, persons of different age, gender, religion and marital status in an area pro testing against child marriage.

• **Homogeneous sampling:** Picks up a small sample with similar characteristics to describe some particular subgroup in depth, for example, charcoal burners, touts, bar maids, and so on.

• **Typical case sampling:** Uses one or more typical cases (individuals, families, and households) to provide a local profile. The typical cases are carefully selected with the cooperation of the local people/ extension workers,

• **Critical case sampling:** Looks for critical cases that can make a point quite dramatically, for instance, farmers who have set up an unusually high yield record of a crop in arid lands.

• **Snowball or chain sampling:** Begins by asking people, 'who knows a lot about the subject.' By asking several people, you can identify specific kinds of cases, for example critical, typical, and extreme and so on. Snowball sampling begins with a few people or cases and then gradually increases the sample size as new contacts are mentioned by the people you started out with.

Purposive sampling is adequate under the following situations:

• When studying past events and only a fraction of relevant material is available or accessible.

• While studying sensitive issues such as abortion, prostitution or crime, certain individuals or groups of individuals may refuse to cooperate. The researcher may use a nonprobability method.

• If the population contains few relevant cases.

• If the population is unknown or not readily identifiable.

TARGET POPULATION (SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS)

The people a researcher selects as respondents in the study are vital in achieving the set objectives. Selection of respondents will largely depend on the following:

• Information needed.
• Data techniques to be used.
• The available funding may prespecify the sample size.

For reliable conclusions to be drawn from the research, samples for quantitative research must be representative of the target group. Other things being equal, a larger sample of respondents is better than a smaller one. In general, the larger the sample, the more representative it is likely to be, and the more generalizable the results of the study are likely to be. Minimum acceptable sizes depend on the type of research.

Generally, a researcher would need 30 subjects in each group for correlational and descriptive research but may be able to get by with 15 subjects per group in experimental or quasi experimental designs. In general, selection of respondents will depend on the nature of the analysis to be performed, the desired precision of the estimates one wishes to achieve, the kind and number of comparisons that will be made, the number of variables that must be examined simultaneously and how heterogeneously a universe is sampled. Population is a set of all the elements of interest in a study. Efforts should be made by a researcher to ensure that informants, particularly key informants, possess special knowledge related to the study. Efforts should be made to ensure the participants are active participants in the culture or organisation under study, that they are involved in the events under study and have adequate time. They should be willing to talk to the researcher.

BIAS AND ERROR IN SAMPLING

There are various challenges faced by researchers during sampling. Some of these challenges include the following:

SAMPLING ERROR - Sampling error comprises of the differences between the sample and the population that are due solely to the

particular units that happen to have been selected. For example, suppose that a sample of 100 university students is measured and all are found to be taller than 1.8 meters. It is very clear even without any statistical proof this would be a highly unrepresentative sample leading to invalid conclusions. This is a very unlikely occurrence because naturally such rare cases are widely distributed among the population. Though it can occur. Luckily, this is an obvious error and can be detected very easily. The more dangerous error is the less obvious sampling error against which nature offers very little protection. An example would be a sample in which the average height is overstated by only one inch or two rather than one foot which is more obvious. It is the unobvious error that is of much concern.

There are two basic causes for sampling error: chance and sampling bias.

a) Chance- This is the error that occurs due to bad luck. This may result in untypical choices. Unusual units in a population do exist and there is always a possibility that an abnormally large number of them will be chosen. The main protection against this kind of error is to use a large enough sample.

b) Sampling bias- Sampling bias is a tendency to favour the selection of units that have particular characteristics. Sampling bias is usually the result of a poor sampling plan. The most notable is the bias of non-response when for some reason some units have no chance of appearing in the sample. Take a hypothetical case where a survey is conducted to find out the level of stress that graduate students are going through. A mail questionnaire is sent to 100 randomly selected graduate students. Only 52 students respond. The results show that students are not under stress, yet the actual case is that stress levels may be high except among those who are answering the questionnaire. Bias can be very costly and must be guarded against as much as possible. A means of selecting the units of analysis must be to avoid the more obvious forms of bias.

NON-SAMPLING *ERROR (MEASUREMENT ERROR)* - The other main cause of unrepresentative samples is non-sampling error. Non sampling error may either be produced by participants in the statistical study or may be an innocent by product of the sampling plans and procedures. Non sampling error is an error that results solely from the way the observations are made. The simplest example of non-sampling error is inaccurate measurements due to malfunctioning instruments or poor procedures. For example, consider the observation of human weights. If persons are asked to state their own weights themselves, no two answers will be of equal reliability. The people will have weighed themselves on different scales. An individual's weight fluctuates, so that the time of weighing will affect the answer. The scale reading will also vary with the person's state of undress. Responses therefore will not be of comparable validity unless all persons are weighed under the same circumstances. Biased observations due to inaccurate measurement can be innocent but very devastating.

In surveys of personal characteristics, unintended errors may result from the way the response is elicited, the social desirability of the persons surveyed, the purpose of the study and the personal biases of the interviewer or survey writer. In all the sampling procedures the major weaknesses include failure to identify the accessible and target population and using a sample that is too small to permit statistical analysis.

CHALLENGES FACED IN POPULATION SAMPLING
In population identification, researchers are sometimes faced with various challenges. These include the following:
• Scope: A very wide scope, for example a study of the whole country may hinder effective sampling of the population. A narrow scope, for example a study on one school affects the validity and reliability of the findings.
• Lack of representation.
• Bias in sampling: some researchers select a population that is convenient for them in terms of accessibility.

• Poor accessibility to the population: Some population samples are difficult to access.

RESPONDENTS

In research, the term 'respondents' refer to those who will reply to or respond to the research instruments. The term respondent can be interchangeably used with participants but for clarity respondents are for quantitative studies and participants are for qualitative studies. The selection of respondents is crucial to the overall usefulness of the information produced. This is because respondents help in the clarification of issues under the study. This contributes to the achievement of set objectives. The selection of respondents will largely depend on the information needed and the date techniques to be used. The researcher should ensure that informants, particularly key informants, possess special knowledge related to the study area.

QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE RESPONDENT SELECTION

The following should be adhered to by researchers in the selection of respondents:

• Respondents should be individuals who possess some knowledge about the topic being studied.

• They should be willing to share the information they have in relation to the topic with the researcher.

• They should be active participants in the culture or organisation under study.

• They must be willing to give their time to the study.

• A large sample of respondents is better than a small one. In general, the larger the sample, the more representative it is likely to be, and the more generalizable the results of the study are likely to be.

CHALLENGES FACED IN RESPONDENT SELECTION

The selection of reliable informants has various challenges. These include the following:

• Unwillingness of respondents to share all they know on the issue with the researcher.

• Language barrier: the interview or questionnaire may have been written in English yet the respondent can effectively express him/herself in Shona or, say, Ndebele.

• Hostility towards the researcher: some respondents may personalise the questions asked particularly during interviews and become hostile towards the researcher.

• Time limitations.

In general, selection of respondents will depend on the nature of the analysis to be performed, the desired precision of the estimates one wishes to achieve, the kind and number of comparisons that will be made, the number of variables that must be examined simultaneously and how heterogeneously a universe is sampled.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Research instruments include the following: questionnaires, interview schedules, observation guide and focus group discussions guide.

In formulating research instruments, the researcher should ensure the following:

a) The objectives of the study are clear. This will assist the researcher to anticipate the type of information needed.

b) The population sample. The researcher should be aware that some types of instruments are unsuitable to some groups of people due to factors such as the literacy level, profession and culture. A researcher should determine the literacy level of the study population in advance. For the illiterate, interview and focus group discussions should be used. The type of language that will be used (either English or Kiswahili) will depend on the literacy level of respondents.

c) Geographical distribution. The span of the study dictates the type of instrument to be used. A countrywide study may require the use of postal questionnaires and telephone interviews.

d) A researcher should be careful about the questions he/she asks. According to Orodho and Kombo (2002), a researcher should do the following:

3. Begin with a few interesting but nonthreatening questions.
4. Avoid vague questions, for instance, 'What do you like?'
5. Keep the language simple.

6. Limit each question to a single idea. Ensure each item included has a specific purpose.
7. Only include questions that are directly relevant to the study.
8. Have a logical sequence.
9. Do not put the key questions at the end of the questionnaire. It is best to have them in the middle.
10. Avoid emotionally charged words.
11. Avoid leading questions, for example, 'Do you think students riot because they are unfairly treated?'
12. Avoid acronyms and abbreviations.
13. Consider the order of questions related to each topic.
14. A researcher should vary closed and open-ended questions. Closed questions give the respondent a set of choices or options. Open-ended questions are free response type questions. They allow the respondent to answer in their own words.

e) Check the consistency of answers. It may be beneficial to ask the same question again using different wording. This ensures validity.

QUESTIONNAIRES

This is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample. Questionnaires have various advantages including the following:

- Information can be collected from a large sample and diverse regions.
- Confidentiality is upheld.
- Saves on time.
- Since they are presented in paper format there is no opportunity for interviewer bias.

However, they have their disadvantages in that:

- Response rates can be quite low.
- There is no direct contact so the researcher cannot deal with any misunderstanding.
- There is no opportunity to ask for further information related to answers given (probing).
- No clear reason can be given for incomplete responses.

To ensure the effectiveness of questionnaires a pretest should be carried out. Pilot the questionnaire with a small representative sample. This will enable the researcher to find out if:

- The questions are measuring what they are supposed to measure.
- The wording is clear.
- If all questions are interpreted in the same way by respondents.
- What response is provoked.
- If there is any research bias.

STEPS IN FORMULATING A QUESTIONNAIRE
The following are essential in the formulation of a questionnaire:
a) Reflection- Before formulating a questionnaire it is important for the researcher to reflect on the aim and objectives of the study. The researcher should reflect on the type of response expected.
b) Formulation of questions- The researcher should write down questions related to each stated objective. While constructing the questions the researcher should begin with a few interesting but non-threatening questions. The researcher should only include questions that are relevant to his/her study. The researcher should keep the key questions in the middle.
c) Pilot - After constructing the questionnaire, the researcher should try it out on a small sample of the population. While piloting the researcher should address the following questions:

- Are the questions measuring what they are supposed to measure? The researcher should analyse each answer and see if it is supplying the appropriate information.
- Is the wording clear? The researcher should analyse the responses to find out if there was any confusion in the way questions were interpreted by all the respondents.
- Do the questions provoke a response? If some questions have been omitted, the researcher should find out why.
- Is there researcher bias? The researcher will analyse whether the questions asked were skewed towards certain issues more than others.

d) Evaluation- After piloting and making the necessary amendments, the researcher should carry out an evaluation of the revised questions. This includes finding out if the questions are clear and specific, where the key questions are placed and if the balance of questions is correct.

QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

An effective questionnaire has the following qualities:

- Instructions are clearly given. There are a few words of explanation in each new section.
- The questions are focused and are limited to a single idea. Sentences are short and precise.
- Each item included has a specific purpose, and contributes to the study.
- There are no leading questions.
- There is a balance of questions per topic.

ADVANTAGES

Questionnaires have the following advantages

- Can cover a wide area.
- No bias on the side of the researcher and the respondents.

DISADVANTAGES

Questionnaires have the following disadvantage:

- The response rate can be quite low. Since the researcher is not in direct contact with the respondents, they may not feel the obligation to complete the questionnaire as soon as possible. This postponement in completion can result in the questionnaire not being answered at all.
- There are no direct contacts between the researcher and respondent. The researcher cannot therefore deal with or clarify any misunderstanding.
- There is no opportunity for the researcher to ask for further information, or probe deeper into answers given by the respondent.

- In case some questions are not answered, the researcher cannot get an explanation from the respondent as to why some questions are incomplete.
- The researcher is not able to predict if respondents have answered all the questions until after the collection of the instrument.
- The researcher has no control over the order in which questions.
- By using both the open and closed ended approach, the researcher gets a complete and detailed understanding of the issue under research.

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

These involve subjecting every informant in a sample to the same stimuli, for instance, asking each informant similar questions, as in the case of a survey.

ADVANTAGES

Structured interviews have the following advantages:
- The reliability of the information gathered is high. This is because each informant is subjected to similar questions with the others.
- It gives in-depth information about particular cases of interest to the researcher. This is because the researcher seeks information on specific issues.
- It is systematic. Researchers intensively investigate a particular issue before moving to the next.
- It is time saving since the respondents simply answer what has been asked by the researcher.
- The researcher gets a complete and detailed understanding of the issue from the respondent.
- It is comprehensive and systematic since questions are formulated before the interview.
- The data collected is quantifiable.

DISADVANTAGES

Structured interviews portray the following disadvantages:

a) The rigidity displayed by the researcher can affect the responses given. The respondent may feel as if he/ she is under investigation and is being probed. This may affect the response. Some of the respondents may become hostile.

b) It is too formal. Since the researcher does the questioning and the respondent simply answers, the respondent may be too cautious in the answer given. The respondent may give answers he/she thinks are acceptable or will impress the researcher.

c) The researcher may miss out on some important points that are not included in the questions formulated.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

This is a special type of group in terms of its purpose, size, composition and procedures. A focus group is usually composed of 6-8 individuals who share certain characteristics that are relevant for the study. The discussion is carefully planned and designed to obtain information on the participants' beliefs and perceptions on a defined area of interest. Special predetermined criteria are used in selecting focus group participants. This includes the following:

a) The topics to be discussed are decided beforehand.

b) There is a predetermined list of open-ended questions.

c) Focus relies on discussion among participants about the topics presented.

This method requires thorough planning and training of group moderators. Focus groups should usually be composed of homogeneous members of the target population, for instance, similar in age, education level, gender, profession. Focus group discussions can produce much information quickly and are good for identifying and exploring beliefs, ideas or opinions in a community. However, the researcher has less control over the flow of the discussion and results are hard to analyse. Focus group discussions are used to assess needs, develop intervention, test new ideas or programmes or improve existing programmes.

OBSERVATION GUIDE

This is a tool that provides information about actual behaviour. Direct observation is useful because some behaviour involves habitual routines of which people are hardly aware. Direct observation allows the researcher to put behaviour in context and thereby understand it better. Observation can be made of actual behaviour patterns. Forms of observation include the following:

a) Participant observation

The investigator becomes an active functioning member of the culture under study. An investigator participates in any activity appropriate to the status which is assumed. This participation helps reduce reactivity. Respondents become more comfortable with the researcher. It gives a researcher an intuitive understanding of what is happening in a culture. However, it can be time consuming.

b) Unstructured observation

The observer takes the position of an onlooker. Data are collected in the form of descriptive accounts. Unstructured observations are helpful in understanding behaviour patterns in their physical and social con text.

c) Structured observation

The observer is an onlooker. The focus is on a small number of specific behaviour patterns, and only those appearing on a predefined observation list are recorded. This requires the researcher to be clear on the behaviour being observed.

STANDARDISED TESTS

Standardised tests of one sort or another are used in most educational research studies. A researcher will frequently use standardised tests to measure one or more of the variables in a study. It is important that one gets as much information as possible about the tests to be used in the study. In some cases, no suitable instrument exists to measure the variables of the study. In that case, the researcher will must design their own instrument. One can look at the instruments (such as questionnaire forms) that have been used in similar studies and modify these for use in his/her own study. There are many different types of

tests that one might consider for use in their study. Some of the most used types of tests for educational research are:

- Achievement tests.
- Personality tests.
- Aptitude tests, including tests of academic aptitude (intelligence tests).

CHARACTERISTICS OF STANDARDISED TESTS

Validity - The validity of a test is a measure of how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The examiner's manual or technical manual for most tests will have information on the validity of the test.

Reliability - Reliability is a measure of how consistent the results from a test are. If you administer a test to a subject twice, do you get the same score on the second administration as you did on the first? The reliability of the test is the answer to this question.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

No two interviewers are alike, and the same person may provide different answers to different interviewers. The way a question is formulated can also result in inaccurate responses. Individuals tend to provide false answers to questions. For example, some people want to feel younger or older for reasons known to them. If a researcher asks such a person their age in years, it is easier for the individual just to lie by overstating their age by one or more years than it is if the researcher asked which year they were born since it will require a bit of quick arithmetic to give a false date. A date of birth will definitely be more accurate.

The respondent effect. Respondents might also give incorrect answers to impress the interviewer. This type of error is the most difficult to prevent because it results from outright deceit on the part of the respondent. For example, in asking farmers how much maize they harvested, the farmers may lie by saying a figure which is the recommended expected yield that is say 100 bags per hectare. The responses may therefore appear uniform. The researcher should be

suspicious and can compare this with the responses of the farmers' spouses. To decide which answer is most accurate, whenever possible the researcher should in a tactful way verify with an older son or daughter. It is important to acknowledge that certain psychological factors induce incorrect responses and great care must be taken to design a study that minimises this effect.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

A researcher will require a research permit (permission) before embarking on the study. The researcher will then administer research instruments to the respondents.

Data collection must be accurate. Where tests are used, they must be scored correctly, and observations must be made systematically. In some cases, data may be coded, for example males coded as 1 and females coded as 2. An electronic spread sheet i.e., MS Excel is an excellent place for the researcher to keep the data for the study. This includes both raw data and coded data. In most cases you will also be able to perform the desired statistical calculations from within the spread sheet. The MS Excel spread sheet programme or, for example, has an Analysis Tool Pack that will allow one to calculate such statistics as chi-square, correlation coefficient, t-test, z-test, and analysis of variance. The major ways of collecting data include administering a standardised instrument, administering a self-developed instrument and recording of naturally available data.

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY STRUCTURE

Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**

4.1 Introduction

This chapter described the research methodology-a systematic way of solving the research problem. Methodology refers to the theory of how research is conducted, including the theoretical and philosophical assumptions upon which the research is based and the implications these have for the method or methods adopted (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). It is the science of studying how research is to be conducted (Bryman, 2015). It is crucial that the researcher chooses and justifies the most suitable methodology for the study (Zikmund & Babin, 2016). Some methodologies are applicable to certain types of research while others are not. In view of this, it is important for the researcher to always carefully select a methodology that best resolves the problem at hand. In this chapter, the research philosophy, research approach, research design, the target population, sample size, sampling techniques, research instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures were presented together with the justification for their adoption.

4.2 Research Philosophy

4.3 Research Approach

4.4 Research Design

4.5 Population

4.6 Sampling Procedure

4.7 Sample Size

4.8 Data collection instruments

Questionnaires

Interview guide

4.9 Validity and Reliability

4.10 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

4.11 Selection and training of research assistants

4.12 Credibility of the interviews

4.13 Data analysis and presentation

Analysis of Quantitative Data

Analysis of Qualitative data

4.14 Ethical Considerations

4.15 Chapter Summary

Example 2: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter explored relevant literature on business excellence. The business excellence models evaluation criteria and key commonalities were

highlighted in relation to enhancing QMS adoption. This chapter focuses on describing the research methodology, justification of the methods that were employed to gather and analyse data for the study. The chapter begins by explaining the research; philosophy, design, strategies, population, sampling, data collection techniques and procedures that were followed. The chapter then explains how the data was presented and analysed. Finally, the chapter explains in detail how the study upheld the aspect of trustworthiness, while adhering to ethical considerations.

5.2. Research philosophies and paradigms
5.2.1. Epistemology
5.2.2. Ontology
5.2.3. Axiology
5.3. Research Design
5.4. Research approaches
5.5. Research strategies
5.5.1 Multiple Case study design
5.6. Time horizon and scope of the study
5.7. Population and sampling technique
5.7.1. Population
5.7.2. Sampling technique
5.8. Data collection techniques and procedures
5.8.1. In-depth qualitative interviews
5.8.2. Focus group discussions
5.9. The researcher as a research instrument
5.11. Trustworthiness
5.11.1. Credibility
5.11.2. Transferability
5.11.3 Dependability
5.11.4. Conformability
5.11.5. Triangulation
5.12. Ethical considerations
5.12.1. Anonymity and confidentiality
5.12.2. Voluntary participation
5.12.3. Informed consent
5.12.4. Deception
3.12.5. Human rights
5.12.6. Accuracy
5.13. Chapter summary

CHAPTER 5: DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

PART A - DATA COLLECTION

INTRODUCTION

Data collection refers to the gathering of information to serve or prove some facts. Data collection is vital in every-day living. For example, without up-to-date and comprehensive data about the characteristics of the population, no government can plan and build the facilities and resources that effectively serve the citizens. Tourism organisations collect data to improve their economic prospects. By collecting views on people's attitudes about their products, they can offer goods or services that potential customers seem to want. In research, data are collected to further a researcher's understanding of a puzzling issue. Data collection helps to clarify the facts. This chapter identifies what data collection is, purposes of collecting data, effective data collection techniques, sources of data, steps in data collection, characteristics of different data collection methodologies, challenges faced by researchers in data collection and ethical issues related to data collection.

MEANING OF DATA COLLECTION

In research, the term 'data collection' refers to gathering specific information aimed at proving or refuting some facts. In data collection the researcher must have a clear understanding of what they hope to obtain and how they hope to obtain it. In data collection, the researcher must have a clear vision of the instruments to be used, the respondents and the selected area. Data collection is important in research as it allows for dissemination of accurate information and development of meaningful programmes.

PURPOSE OF COLLECTING DATA

In research, data are collected for various purposes. This includes the following:

- To stimulate new ideas. This is because data collection helps in identifying areas related to the research topic that need improvement or further evaluation.
- To highlight a situation and therefore create awareness and improvement.
- To influence legislative policies and regulations.
- To provide justification for an existing programme or illustrate a need for a new programme.
- It is the only reliable way to evaluate the responsiveness and effectiveness of the study.
- It promotes decision making and resource allocation that are based on solid evidence rather than on isolated occurrences, assumption/ emotion/ politics, and so on.

SOURCES OF DATA
There are two major sources of data used by researchers. These are the primary and secondary sources.

PRIMARY SOURCES
Primary data are information gathered directly from respondents. This is through questionnaires, interviews, focused group discussions, observation and experimental studies. It involves creating 'new' data. Data are collected from existing sources. In an experimental study, the variable of interest is identified.

ADVANTAGES
- **Specific Relevance:** Primary data can be designed to provide precisely the information needed for a specific research question or objective. This allows for targeted data collection.
- **Timeliness:** Primary data are typically more up to date than secondary data since it can be collected in real-time. This is especially important in fast-paced markets or industries.
- **Control:** During primary data collection, researchers have full control over the data collection process, including sample

selection, question types, and data collection methods. This enables better quality control and data validity.

- **Adaptability:** Researchers can tailor data collection methods to suit their specific needs, whether through surveys, interviews, observations, or experiments. This allows flexibility in capturing different types of information.
- **Uniqueness:** Since primary data are collected exclusively for the specific research project, it is typically unique and not available to competitors. This can provide a competitive advantage.
- **In-Depth Insights:** Primary data often allows for deeper insights into the behaviour, attitudes, and preferences of the target audience. This can help make more informed decisions.
- **Context Understanding:** Primary data collection allows researchers to better understand the context and circumstances under which the data was gathered. This is important for interpreting the results correctly.
- **Research Continuity:** In some cases, primary data collection can serve as a foundation for future research and enable continuous data collection to track trends over time.

DISADVANTAGES

There are a few disadvantages to primary data collection. One disadvantage is that it can be time-consuming and difficult to collect accurate information. Another disadvantage is that it can be invasive and disruptive, often requiring people to take time away from their normal activities. And finally, it may not be representative of your entire audience, and you may not have access to all the relevant information.

SECONDARY SOURCES

Secondary information sources are data neither collected directly by the user nor specifically for the user. It involves gathering data that already has been collected by someone else. This involves the collection and analysis of published material, and information from internal sources. Secondary data collection may be conducted by collecting information from a diverse source of documents or electronically stored information. This is often referred to as desk research.

ADVANTAGES

The main advantages of using secondary data are as follows:

a) It is usually available more cheaply. The collection of secondary data are generally significantly quicker and easier (and hence less costly) than collecting the same data 'from scratch.'

b) Existing data are likely to be available in a more convenient form; using secondary data can give the researcher access to otherwise unavailable organisations, individuals or locations.

c) Secondary data allows the researcher to extend the 'time base' of their study by providing data about the earlier state of the system being studied.

d) The fact that secondary data are likely to be pre-processed eliminates the time-consuming (and hence costly) analysis stage.

DISADVANTAGES

The main disadvantages of using secondary data are as follows:

a) The method by which secondary data was collected is often unknown to the user of the data (apart from major sources like the Census). This means that the researcher is forced to rely on the skills and propriety of the collectors usually, but not always, a safe proposition.

b) With secondary data the researcher may have little or no direct knowledge of the processing methods employed, and the researcher may rarely have access to the original raw data to check the validity of the findings. c) The researcher is forced to rely on the skills and integrity of the people who collected and analysed the data.

STEPS IN DATA COLLECTION

The following are essential steps that a researcher should use in data collection:

a) Define the sample: Before gathering data, the researcher should define the target population. This involves identifying the respondents and their accessibility.

b) Reflect on the research design: The researcher should be clear of the research design to be used. This is whether it is a survey, a case study or an experiment. This is critical as it enables the researcher to

be sure of the format in which data will be collected. The researcher needs to design and select the sample in such a way that he/ she obtains results that have acceptable precision and accuracy.

c) Ensure research instruments are ready: The key data collection instruments to be used in the study for example questionnaires, interviews, observations, focus group discussions and experimental treatments should be in order. This includes finding out if they are ready and available. All research instruments should be in order. For example, if the researcher is using questionnaires, the correct number of questionnaires should be available. If using tape recorders, they should be in working condition. If any computer software is to be used, the researcher should consider his /her and assistant researcher's expertise, the skills that exist and the) cost of operating the system.

d) Define the data to be collected: The researcher should make sure that he/ she and the assistant researchers are clear on the information that is being sought. Researchers should be clear of the sample, for instance, the male / female ratio.

e) Request permission to collect data from the relevant authorities: Before collecting any information, the researcher should ensure he/she has been granted permission to carry out the study. The researcher should also send an advance letter to the sample respondents, explaining the purpose of the study. Information must be given to the respondents regarding the voluntary or mandatory nature of the study and how the answers are to be used. After reflecting on all these components, the researcher should carry out a pretest.

f) Pre-testing: Before collecting data, the researcher should pretest the research instruments. A pretest is a pilot study. The researcher should pilot the questionnaire with a small representative sample. A pretest of the questionnaire and field procedures is the only way the researcher can find out if everything 'works' particularly the research instruments. This is because it is rarely possible for the researcher to foresee all the potential misunderstandings or biasing effects of different questions and procedures. A pilot study helps test the feasibility of the study techniques and to perfect the questionnaire concepts and wording. The importance of pretesting before data collection includes the following:

- It enables the researcher to find out if the selected questions are measuring what they are supposed to measure.
- It enables the researcher to find out if the wording is clear and all questions will be interpreted in the same way by respondents.
- It helps the researcher to detect what response is provoked and find out if there is any research bias.
- It enables the researcher to monitor the context in which the data will be collected and the topic areas addressed. The researcher should not use the pretest sample in the actual study.

COLLECTION OF DATA

The procedure used to collect data will be influenced by the research instruments used. For example, if questionnaires or interviews are used, the researcher should carry out the following:

USE OF QUESTIONNAIRES

In questionnaires respondents fill in answers in written form and the researcher collects the forms with the completed information. There are various methods used to collect the questionnaires, such as the following:

1   The instruments are distributed to the respondents by the researcher and research assistants. Respondents are given time to complete answering questionnaires. All the questionnaires are gathered after the given response time is over.

2   Questionnaires may be distributed to respondents by the researcher and research assistants. They are later collected on an agreed upon date.

3   Questionnaires are mailed to the respondents. After they have answered them, they are mailed back. If questionnaires are administered, respondents should be given sufficient time to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires should then be collected by the researcher or research assistants or mailed to the researcher. Today, the way data are collected from questionnaires has begun to move from the traditional distribution

and mail out/mail back approach. The use of Internet is on the rise.

USE OF INTERVIEWS

Collecting data using the interview method requires the researcher to identify respondents and request them to answer certain questions. The researcher and research assistants note down the answers given. In some interviews the response is recorded. Some interviews are carried out through the telephone and the information received is recorded by the researcher. The main requirement for good interviewers during data collection is the ability to approach identified respondents in person or by telephone and persuade them to participate in the study. Once a respondent's cooperation is obtained, the interviewers must maintain it, while collecting the needed data. This data must be obtained in exact accordance with instructions.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In focus group discussions, the researcher should have specific topics to be discussed. A recording list should be made of the discussion. An audio recorder should also be used to keep the records.

OBSERVATION

In observations, the researcher should have a checklist to provide information about actual behaviour to be observed. The researcher should note down the observation. In experiments, the observer should also note down what has been observed. In experimental studies, where the researcher wants to obtain information under controlled conditions, subjects may be randomly assigned to various tests and experiences then assessed via observation or standardised scales.

Each data collection method has its strengths and weaknesses. When designing a research study, it is important for the researcher to decide what outcome (data) the study will produce then select the best methodology to produce that desired information.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER DURING DATA COLLECTION

During data collections, researchers should adhere to the following:

1. Collect only the data needed for the purpose of the study: researchers should avoid digressing and getting involved in issues that are not relevant to the study.
2. Inform each potential respondent about the general nature on the study and the intended uses of the data.
3. Protect the confidentiality of information collected from respondents and ensure that the means used in data collection are adequate to protect confidentiality to the extent pledged or intended.
4. Ensure that processing and use of data conforms with the pledges made and that appropriate care is taken with directly identifying information (using such steps as destroying a certain type of information or removing it from the file when it is no longer needed for the inquiry).
5. Apply appropriate techniques to control statistical disclosure. The researcher should ensure that, whenever data are transferred to other persons or organisations, this transfer conforms to the established confidentiality pledges, and require written assurance from the recipients of the data that the measures employed to protect confidentiality will be at least equal to those originally pledged.

While in the field the researcher should ensure the following:

1 Punctuality in appointments.
2 Friendliness.
3 Use of clear and simple language.
4 Be careful about question construction: The way a question is formulated can also result in inaccurate responses.
5 Have various ways of probing: It is important for the researcher and research assistants to be aware that some individuals tend to provide false answers to particular questions. If this is noted, the researcher should devise other ways of probing.
6 It is important for the researcher to acknowledge that certain psychological factors, such as fear, or low self-esteem can induce

incorrect responses. Great care must be taken to design a study that minimises this effect.

IMPORTANCE OF DATA ANALYSIS

Importance of data analysis includes the following:

- Findings are clearly shown.
- Areas/ gaps for further research are pointed out.
- Researchers can be able to know the results without wasting time on primary and secondary data.
- One can be able to know the statistical methods used for analysing data.

PITFALLS IN DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

There are three pitfalls in data analysis and interpretation that are shown below:

a) The first involves sources of bias. These are conditions or circumstances which affect the external validity of statistical results.
b) The second is errors in methodology that can lead to the third point.
c) The third class of problems concerns interpretation of results, or how statistical results are applied (or misapplied) to real world

ETHICAL ISSUES IN DATA COLLECTION

Researchers whose subjects are people or animals must consider the conduct of their research, and give attention to the ethical issues associated with carrying out their research. Sometimes a research project may involve changing the subjects' behaviour or in some cases, causing the subjects pain or distress, for example in experiments where the researcher analyses blood samples. Most research organisations have complex rules on human and animal experimentation. Some of the rules applicable to data collection are as follows:

a) The researcher must justify the research via an analysis of the balance of costs. The researcher's interest alone is not sufficient justification to carry out research and collect data. To carry out a

survey or experiment, there must be benefits from the study that outweigh the costs. Researchers are expected to justify beyond any reasonable doubt, the need for data collection.

b) The researcher must always maintain confidentiality. Only certain people conducting the survey/experiment should know the identity of the participants. Any subject should generally not know the identity of other subjects.

c) Researchers are responsible for their own work and for their contribution to the whole study. Researchers must accept individual responsibility for the conduct of the research and, as far as foresee-able, the consequences of that research.

d) The researcher must obtain informed consent from any subjects used in the study and must ensure that all subjects participate voluntarily.

e) The researcher must be open and honest in dealing with other researchers and research subjects. The researcher must not exploit subjects by changing agreements made with them. For example, a researcher might discover that his/her survey / experiment show something that he/she would like to further investigate. If the researcher carries out the investigation secretly but pretends to be still carrying out the previous study that had been agreed to in the first place, this is a form of exploitation, and would breach the principles of informed consent and voluntary participation.

f) The researcher must take all reasonable measures to protect subjects physically and psychologically. Even voluntary participants can get carried away' to the point where they must be protected from themselves and each other. The researcher must be prepared to intervene, even at the cost of the study/experiment itself, to protect the subjects.

g) The researcher must fully explain the research in advance, and de brief' subjects afterwards. Whilst full explanations before the survey / experiment are essential to gaining informed consent, it is, unfortunately, a common practice for researchers to complete their research without telling the participants anything about the results.

Collecting data entails scores of activities, each of which must be carefully planned and controlled. Lack of proper strategies can invalidate the results and badly mislead the users of the information gathered. Some of the challenges faced by researchers in data collection are:

☐ **The researcher failing to carry out a pilot study:** Failure to pilot the study may contribute to haphazard work in the field. This is mainly because a pretest helps to identify some of the shortcomings likely to be experienced during the actual study. A pretest of the questionnaire and field procedures is the only way of finding out if everything will work during the actual study.

☐ **Lack of sufficient follow up on non-respondents:** A researcher's failure to follow up non respondents can ruin an otherwise well-designed study. It is not uncommon for the initial response rate in many survey studies to be under 50 percent. A low response rate does more damage in rendering a survey's results questionable than a small sample. This is because there may be no valid way of scientifically inferring the characteristics of the population represented by the non-respondents. To deal with this possibility, the researcher, may must return to sample households where no one was home (perhaps at a different time or on a weekend) or attempt to persuade persons who are inclined to refuse to participate. In the case of questionnaire response, it is usually necessary to conduct several follow-ups spaced, possibly, about three weeks apart.

☐ **Inadequate quality controls:** In some field work the researcher allocates all work to research assistants with minimum supervision. This can result in guessing the results. Controlling the quality of the fieldwork is done in several ways. The researcher can control the quality of field work through observation. The researcher can also carry out a small sample of interviews. There should be at least some questionnaire by questionnaire checking by the researcher, while the survey is being carried out. This is essential if omissions or other obvious mistakes in the data are to be uncovered before it is too late to rectify them. The researcher should during field work,

reexamine the sample selection, carry out some of the interviews, assessing the editing and coding of the responses. Without proper checking, errors may go undetected. The researcher should insist on high standards in recruiting and training of interviewers. This is crucial to conducting a quality field study.

☐ **Poor targeting:** Errors in defining and selecting the sample during data collection will bias the results by making the sample less representative of the target population. This can be due to non-inclusion errors where people are not included in the sample who should be.

☐ **Poor implementation:** In data collection some errors are caused by the way data collection is implemented. Some of the errors include the following:

- *Question error* - the question is wrongly worded or misleading.
- *Interviewer error*- the interviewer makes an error whilst asking the question.
- *Recording error* - the interviewer records incorrectly the answer given by the respondent.
- *Coding error*- the responses are wrongly coded.

In data collection, the researcher must play an active role. He/ she must ensure that data collection is accurate. It is essential that at the end of every session of data collection, a brief meeting is held with research assistants to analyse the work covered and any challenges faced. This should also be time to map out the next session. The researcher should collect and keep all the collected data after every session. In data collection, the researcher should ensure that the objectives of the field study are clearly spelt out and understood by all participants. If respondents are to be interviewed, the researcher should ensure that they are aware of the time the researcher is arriving. The researcher should avoid inconveniencing respondents. He/ she should always thank respondents after data collection.

CONCLUSION

The collection of information is a vital component in research. This is because it is through the collected information that major research

findings are made, recommendations offered and the way forward formulated. A researcher should therefore ensure that relevant steps are adhered to in data collection. Efforts should also be made to ensure the validity and reliability of the data collection exercise.

PART B: DATA ORGANISATION, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

INTRODUCTION
The term 'data organisation' in research refers to orderliness in research data. This is putting the data into some systematic form. The 'raw' data collected, particularly in surveys, needs to be processed before it can be subjected to any useful analysis. This organisation includes identifying (and correcting) errors in the data, coding the data, and storing it in appropriate form. On the other hand, analysis refers to examining the coded data critically and making inferences. The presentation of data refers to ways of arranging data to make it clearly understood. This chapter discusses the organisation, analysis and presentation of data.

Collected data are known to be 'raw' information and not knowledge by itself. It therefore must be well organised in various stages. The organisation from raw data to knowledge is as follows:

☐ **From raw data to information:** Data becomes information when it becomes relevant to the problem identified by the researcher.

☐ **From information to facts:** Information becomes facts, when the data can support it. Facts are what the data reveals.

☐ **From facts to knowledge:** Facts therefore lead to new information, new experiences and views.

☐ Knowledge is expressed together with some statistical degree of confidence. Before analysing the collected data, the researcher must ensure the data are well organised. The procedure in data organisation involves the following:

a) Pre-processing
After collecting data, the researcher must ensure it is processed in some manner before carrying out the analysis. The primary purpose of preprocessing is to correct problems that are identified in the raw data. This might include differences between the results obtained by multiple interviewers. In experiments, calibrations are carried out where significant and consistent differences between the measured result and the 'correct' result are found. The preprocessing stages are as follows:

- **The elimination of unusable data:** The researcher may find two or more questions that really provide the same data. The researcher must therefore decide which one of the questions is worth coding and storing, and which one should be discarded.
- **Interpretation of ambiguous answers:** The more subtle problems in data analysis are associated with the researcher trying to interpret ambiguous answers. It could be argued that any complex study is likely to produce at least some answers of this type. The researcher needs to develop a strategy for dealing with them.
- **Contradictory data from related questions:** The researcher may also receive contradictory data from related questions. For example, respondents in one religious denomination may give different answers as to who is the church elder. Contradictions may be due to church wrangles. The researcher may must verify and reject wrong responses. Many of these problems, if not detected and corrected at the organisation stage, will reflect adversely on the study findings.

b) The Development of a Coding Scheme

After correcting any errors that may influence data analysis, the researcher should formulate a coding scheme. The core function of the coding process is to create codes and scales from the responses that can then be summarised and analysed in various ways. A coding scheme is an unambiguous set of prescriptions of how all possible answers are to be treated, and what (if any) numerical codes are to be assigned to particular responses. In the coding scheme the researcher assigns codes to each likely answer and specifies how other responses are to be handled. For example, the researcher might allocate 1 to yes, 2 to no and 0 to do not know. Although these numerical codes are arbitrary, in some cases, their organisation will have implications on how the resulting data can be processed statistically. The reliability of a coding scheme is whether the person who created the scheme (researcher) can give it to another person, and the coding of the raw data matches exactly what the person

creating the code (researcher) would have produced if they had applied the scheme to the same answers.

There are various challenges faced by researchers in the development of a coding scheme. The major challenge associated with coding is the treatment of missing data. It is difficult for the researcher to decide on what action should be taken when the coding cannot be applied, such as when a question is unanswered. Do they ignore the question, or change and interpret it? Decisions are usually needed on how to handle missing items, or cases in which the respondent did not know the answer or refused to provide one. While providing codes it may also occur to a researcher that an essential question was not asked. There are several possible approaches that a researcher can apply to address these challenges. These include:

- ☐ Cross-reference the missing answer with the answers to related questions (this option, ironically, is less available if the researcher has carefully minimized duplication between questions).
- ☐ Interpolate from other answers to create a 'pattern' for the respondent and look to see how other respondents of the same 'type' answered this question.
- ☐ Look at the distribution of answers and interpolate from that; some computer programs will supply distributions of answers to the question and suggest what the missing value ought to be to maintain the distribution.
- ☐ Give missing data its own code, such as 'Did not answer'; this is the most common (and safest) approach.
- ☐ Exclude the respondent from the analysis (if the respondent failed to answer several questions, or the responses appear unreliable).
- ☐ Exclude the question from the analysis (if a significant number of respondents failed to answer it).

However, in research, the preferred practice for missing items is to provide special codes indicating why the data was not included. When resources are available, the 'filling in' or imputation of these missing data items should be undertaken by the researcher to reduce any biases arising from their absence. This involves going back to the field and filling in the missing information.

c) Deciding on data storage page

After coding the data, the researcher will must decide about the short and long-term storage of the information generated. The short time storage is necessary before data analysis. The system in which the researcher stores the data will determine (at least in the early stages) what forms of analysis the researcher will carry out and how easy it will be to transfer the data into systems which will do more complicated forms of analysis. There are two major storage forms, the **electronic form** and **non-electronic (paper) form**.

Paper storage: This is where the coded data are written on paper before the analysis. Paper storage has the following advantages:

- It has a low cost.
- It allows speedy retrieval.
- It is easy to distribute.
- It is comprehensible.

However, its disadvantages include the following:

- It is not extensible.
- It is fragile.
- It is bulky.

Electronic storage: The advantages of electronic storage include the following:

- It is extensible.
- It is easy to distribute.
- It is easy to interchange
- It has low volume.

The disadvantages of electronic storage are:

- Equipment costs are high.
- It has limited access.
- It is fragile.

Today, selecting electronic storage is an increasingly significant decision for a researcher. In electronic storage, the researcher can transfer the data (or information derived from it) into another system.

d) Choosing a statistical software package

After deciding on how data will be stored, the researcher must reflect on the statistical software package that will be relevant in data analysis. When choosing a statistical software package, there are several things a researcher must consider. These include the following:

- Characteristics of the data to be used; for example, is it descriptive or does it analyse relationships?
- Analyses that will be performed.
- Technical and financial constraints.

There are various types of statistical software packages that a researcher can select from. The software the researcher selects depends on the plan that the researcher has for analysing and presenting the data. The following are some of the computer software:

- **Word processor**

The researcher may decide to enter the data in text form straight into a word processor, include Microsoft Word.

Advantages

1. The obvious advantage of using a word processor is that the researcher does not waste time on unnecessary processing. This is because data in text form is entered directly in the processor present it then he/she can directly use the data The researcher might choose to take the data (from survey or experiment recordings) and put them directly into a word processor.

Disadvantage

The major problem of using a word processor is lack of analytical tools. Only the most advanced word processors have spreadsheet like functions. This means that in most cases, if the researcher puts data into a table, he/she cannot carry out simple calculation (sums and standard deviations) on the column of the table.

- **Spreadsheet**

This is one of the most versatile analysis and storage combination tools. Many of the formulae that spread sheets have built in are applicable to the data summarisation process. A popular spreadsheet example is MS Excel

2. Spread sheets allow a large range of conventional summary statistics.
3. Some also incorporate elements of Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA).
4. It is possible with some spreadsheets to form cross tabulations.
5. Most spreadsheets offer graphical presentation of the results of an analysis.
6. Spreadsheets are also able to interchange data with other systems. By using spreadsheets, a researcher can take information straight from a spreadsheet and place it into a word processor. Relevant information from the spreadsheet can be copied directly across to a report.

DISADVANTAGES

☐ The statistical functions supported by spreadsheets are mostly restricted to descriptive statistics and basic inferential statistics. A researcher is unlikely to find a wide range of advanced statistical

☐ Whilst the graphics in most spreadsheets are visually impressive, they are usually restricted to a certain number of fundamental graphic structures (bar charts, pie charts, and so on). If a researcher wants to use some of the more esoteric systems, he/she must transfer the data either via a statistical package or directly to a graphics package.

☐ **Databases**

In research analysis, databases are vital in record keeping. A researcher may use a database programme where he/ she wants to take advantage of the record manipulation options of database management systems. For example, if a researcher wants to find all survey responses where the respondent said yes to one question and no to another, the researcher keys in formulated codes and gets the answers. And basic record manipulation (sorting and searching), the database also provides other basic data processing functions, such as cross tabulations.

☐ Databases have high levels of interchangeability with other systems, such as word processors, spread sheets, graphic packages and statistical packages.

☐ The database is often a good starting point for storing raw data because if a researcher needs to manipulate the data (beyond the capability of the database), he/ she can do so by transferring the information into an alternative system

☐ **Statistical systems**

These are application systems that carry out a wide range of statistical techniques. The simplest statistical packages support data summarisation and basic inferential statistics. The more complex statistical packages support advanced inferential techniques, including multivariate methods. What they offer is advanced data manipulation. This includes sophisticated data description, and a range of various statistical tests. Statistical systems interchange particularly strongly with graphic systems. Examples of common statistical systems are SPSS and Python

☐ **Graphical systems**

These are not software packages. Generally, the researcher is not going to actually store data in a graphical system for future analysis. The assumption is that after the researcher has carried out the analysis, he/ she generates graphical displays of the results. Graphical systems emphasise:

☐ Advanced display options, including a large range of chart types.

☐ Interchange with word processors and other graphic systems such as presentation graphics and visualisation systems.

Before purchasing any statistical software package, it is crucial for the researcher to reflect on the data that will be analysed, particularly on the effectiveness of tile statistical software package identified in analysing tile collected data. Many statistical packages are unable to handle a large amount of data or various types of data structures. The researcher should brainstorm on the following:

☐ How will the data collected be stored?

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- How will the data be accessed by the software package?
- Will tile statistical package be able to create new variables and query the data?
- What amount of data will be used for the analysis? Will the statistical package be able to handle the database size?
- Does the current staff have the knowledge to operate the statistical package? What is financial implication of the statistical package?

While all statistical packages can generate descriptive statistics and basic tests, the breadth and depth of complex analyses that a statistical package can perform varies greatly among packages. Several statistical packages require the purchasing of additional modules or programmes to perform more advanced analyses. These packages may be expensive. The researcher should purchase only needed programmes and expand the package when additional analyses are needed. In selecting a statistical package, the researcher should also consider its display of the results and graphs.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis refers to examining what has been collected (sorting, coding and examining the collected data) in a survey or experiment and making deductions and inferences. It involves uncovering underlying structures, extracting important variables, detecting any anomalies and testing any underlying assumptions. It involves scrutinising the acquired information and making inferences. Statistical data analysis divides the methods for analysing data into two categories: exploratory methods and confirmatory methods. Exploratory methods are used to discover what the data seems to be saying by using simple arithmetic and easy to draw pictures to summarise data. This is used mainly in qualitative research. Confirmatory methods use ideas from probability theory in the attempt to answer specific questions. These methods are mainly applicable in quantitative research. The methods used in data analysis are influenced by whether the research is qualitative or quantitative.

a) Data analysis in qualitative research

Qualitative research involves intensive data collection (of several variables), over an extended period of time in a natural setting (variables are studied when and where they naturally occur). Qualitative data, such as finding out the views of respondents on a certain issue (for example, abortion) is not always computable by arithmetic relations: The responses can be categorised into various classes which are called categorical variables. The analysis of qualitative data varies from simple descriptive analysis to more elaborate reduction and multivariate associate techniques. The analysis will vary with the purposes of the research, the complexity of the research design and the extent to which conclusions can be reached easily (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2014). In qualitative research designs, the researcher should decide before going to the field, how he/ she will analyse the data. The analytical technique will determine the recording style that will be used during the data collection exercise. The analytic techniques used in qualitative research are as a quick impressionist summary, thematic analysis and content analysis.

A QUICK IMPRESSIONIST SUMMARY

In qualitative research, data can be analysed by a quick impressionist summary. This involves the following:

- Summarising key findings. For example, in focus group discussions the researcher notes down frequent responses of the participants on various issues.
- Explanation.
- Interpretation and conclusion.

This rapid data analysis technique is mainly used in situations that require urgent information to make decisions for a programme for example in places where there is an outbreak such as cholera and vital information is needed for intervention. This technique can also be used when the results already generated are obvious, making further analysis of data unwarranted. For example, if a researcher finds out that 80% of respondents give similar answers to what caused a fire outbreak doing further analysis may be unwarranted. This form of

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analysis does not require data transcription. The researcher records key issues of the discussion with respondents. A narrative report is written enriched with quotations from key informants and other respondents.

THEMATIC ANALYSIS

In qualitative research, data can also be analysed thematically. Themes refer to topics or major subjects that come up in discussions. This form of analysis categorises related topics. In using this form of analysis major concepts or themes are identified. In this form of data analysis, the researcher does the following:

- ☐ Peruses the collected data and identifies information that is relevant to the research questions and objectives.
- ☐ Develops a coding system based on samples of collected data.
- ☐ Classifies major issues or topics covered.
- ☐ Rereads the text and highlights key quotations/insights and interpretations.
- ☐ Indicates the major themes in the margins.
- ☐ Places the coded materials under the major themes or topics identified. All materials relevant to a certain topic are placed together.
- ☐ Develops a summary report identifying major themes and the associations between them.
- ☐ Uses graphics and direct quotations to present the findings.
- ☐ Reports the intensity that refers to the number of times certain words or phrases or descriptions are used in the discussion. The frequency in which an idea or word or description appears is used to interpret the importance, attention or emphasis.

Weaknesses of thematic analysis: The thematic method tends to rely heavily on the judgment of a single analyst. This may lead to high levels of subjectivity and bias. It may be necessary to have two or more analysts to code the transcript independently and compare notes.

Content analysis examines the intensity with which certain words have been used. Content analysis systematically describes the form or content of written and/or spoken material. In content analysis a classification system is developed to record the information. In interpreting results, the frequency with which a symbol or idea appears may be interpreted as a measure of importance, attention or emphasis. The relative balance of favourable attributes regarding a symbol or an idea may be interpreted as a measure of direction or bias. In content analysis, a researcher can be assisted by trained researcher or a computer programme can be used to sort the data to increase the reliability of the process. Content analysis is a tedious process due to the requirement that each data source be analysed along several dimensions. It may also be inductive (identifies themes and patterns) or deductive (quantifies frequencies of data). The results are descriptive but will also indicate trends or issues of interest. In content analysis, the first step is to select the data source to be studied, then develop a classification system to record the information. There are various forms of content analysis. These are as follows:

- **Pragmatic Content Analysis:** Classifies signs according to their probable causes and effects. The emphasis is on why something is said. This could be used to understand people's perceptions and beliefs.
- **Systematic Content Analysis:** classifies signs according to meaning.
- **Designation analysis:** determines the frequency with which certain objects or persons, institutions or concepts are mentioned. This is a simple counting exercise.
- **Attribution analysis**: examines the frequency with which certain characterization or descriptors are used. The emphasis is on the adjectives, verbs, and descriptive phrases and qualifiers. This is a simple counting exercise.
- **Assertion analysis**: provides the frequency with which certain objectives (persons, institutions) are characterised in a particular way. Such an analysis often takes the form of a matrix with objects as columns and descriptors as rows.

In historical research there are various forms of data analysis. These include:

- ☐ Analysis of concepts: Concepts are clarified by describing the essential and core concepts beginning from the early developmental stages.
- ☐ Interpretive analysis relates one event to another. The event is studied and described within a broader context to add meaning and credibility to the data.
- ☐ Comparative analysis examines similarities and differences in events during different time periods.
- ☐ Theoretical and philosophical analysis utilizes historical parallels, past trends, and sequences of events to suggest the past, present, and future of the topic being researched. Findings would be used to develop a theory or philosophy of leisure. For example, an analysis of public recreation agency goals and objectives of previous eras can be used to describe the future in the context of social, political, economic, technological, and cultural changes in society.

b) Data analysis in quantitative research

Quantitative data analysis consists of measuring numerical values from which descriptions such as mean and standard deviations are made. These data can be put into an order and further divided into two groups: discrete data or continuous data. Discrete data are countable data, for example, the number of defective items produced during a day's production. Continuous data are parameters (variables) that are measurable and are expressed on a continuous scale, for example, the height of a person. The analysis of quantitative data varies from simple to more elaborate analysis techniques. The analysis varies with the objective of the experiment, its complexity and the extent to which conclusion can be easily reached. Data analysis in quantitative research depends on the type of study. This is as follows:

CORRELATION STUDIES

In correlational research studies, data are mainly analysed using the **correlation coefficient**. By using this tool, the researcher indicates the degree of relationship between two variables. The correlation

coefficient is a number ranging from 1 (a perfect positive correlation) through 0 (no relationship between the variables) to -1 (a perfect negative correlation). In analysing the correlation coefficient, a researcher attempts to indicate the proportion of sameness between two variables. One of the correlation tools is the **Pearson Product Moment Correlation**. This tool is used to analyse the relationship between isolated independent and dependent variables.

Another type of correlational analysis is reliability studies (analyses conducted to provide information about the validity and reliability of tests). In reliability studies the same group of subjects is given a test and then at a somewhat later date is given the test again. The researcher analyses the two scores for each subject (the test score and the retest score) and the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores can be calculated. This kind of correlation coefficient is referred to as a **reliability coefficient**. Many tests used in education, for example standardised achievement tests, have more than one form. To determine the reliability coefficients, a group of subjects are given both forms of a test thus two scores are obtained for two sets of scores. To conduct a validity correlation analysis, a researcher obtains scores for students on a test and also records their scores on the criterion measure. Thus he/she has two scores for each subject and can calculate the correlation coefficient of the sets of scores. This correlation coefficient is referred to as **validity coefficient.**

The important thing to remember is that in correlational research; while carrying out analysis, the researcher is only looking at the degree of relationship between the variables and not the effect of one variable on another variable.

PREDICTION STUDIES
In predictive correlational studies, while carrying out the analysis, the researcher uses the degree of relationship that exists between two variables to predict one variable from the other. For example, if reading and spelling are correlated, then the researcher can use the information to predict a student's score on the spelling test if the

student has only taken the reading test. Conversely, the researcher can predict the student's score on the reading test given the student's score on the spelling test. Prediction studies are widely used to predict student academic success in college, based on such measures as secondary school grades in mathematics, and aptitude test scores.

CAUSAL COMPARATIVE RESEARCH

Causal comparative educational research attempts to identify a causative relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. However, this relationship is more suggestive than proven as the researcher does not have complete control over the independent variable. If the researcher had control over the independent variable, then the research would be classified as true experimental research. In carrying out analysis based on this design, the researcher compares two selected groups on the dependent variable. For example, if in form four, some of the students in mathematics classes use calculators while others do not, a researcher may be interested in finding out the effect of calculator use on mathematics grades at the end of the year.

The researcher therefore selects a group of students from the class that use calculators and then selects another group of the same size from the class that do not use calculators and compares the two groups at the end of the year on their final mathematics grades. Another variant of this study would be to take the students from a class that uses calculators and compare them with another class that does not use calculators. Both these studies would be causal comparative research studies, but they would differ in how you can generalise the results of the study. One of the problems faced in analysing data in causal comparative research is that since the respondents are not randomly placed in the groups, the groups can differ on other variables that may have an effect on the dependent variable.

An inferential statistic used to analyse data in both causal comparative and experimental research designs is the t-test. Where the subjects in the two groups are independent of one another, that is no matching of

subjects or other control procedures were used. The independent t-test is used to test the significance of a difference between the means of the experimental and control groups in the study. In research designs where the influence of an extraneous variable has been controlled, or in designs utilising a pretest pre-test post-test procedure, the appropriate t-test to use to compare the two groups would be the dependent t-test. When a researcher has three or more groups to compare, the appropriate inferential statistic to use in data analysis would be one-way analysis of variance. This statistic shows the significance of differences in the means of three or more groups of subjects.

In cases where the researcher uses frequency counts for the dependent variable, the appropriate inferential statistic to use in data analysis would be the **chi-square** test. This statistic tests the significance of differences between two or more groups (independent variable) in frequencies for the dependent variable.

EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

The major difference in data analysis between causal comparative and experimental research is that the researcher has control over the independent variable in experimental research and can manipulate this variable at will. In the case of causal comparative research, the independent variable is established by the identity of the groups chosen and is not under experimental control. In experimental designs, the observer should decide before carrying out the experiment the analytical process. The analytical process in experimental studies mainly involves the calculation of effect size. Effect size is the mean of the experimental group minus the mean of the control group, divided by the standard deviation of the control group. The idea is to calculate the effect size across several studies to determine the relevance of the test, treatment, or method.

DATA PRESENTATION

There are three ways researchers can present data after analysis. This includes the following:

☐   Using statistical techniques.

- Using graphical techniques.
- Using a combination of both.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Statistics are a set of mathematical methods used to extract and clarify information from observed data. Statistics generate simple numbers to describe distributions, either grouped or ungrouped. Statistics have two major functions in data presentation. They can add to our understanding of the data that make up the distribution, and they can substitute for (be used instead of) the distribution. With descriptive statistics it is important to define whether the researcher is calculating values for a population or for a sample: the results will be different. A sample statistic is any numerical value describing a characteristic of a sample. The following are some of the statistical techniques used to present analysed data.

a) Frequency distributions

The values in a set of ungrouped data constitute a distribution. The values that we have in a set of ordinal data, and the values we generate by converting ungrouped data into grouped form, constitute a frequency distribution. For example, imagine a survey in which we measure the weight of a sample of pieces of wood loaded onto a lorry. The values for all the pieces of wood measured make up a distribution. A researcher can calculate sample statistics from that distribution, such as a sample mean (for example, 14.56 kg). A frequency distribution of group data can also be created as shown in the table below.

Table 5.4: Weight of wood

Weight – kg	Number
7-9	2
10-12	8
13-15	12
16-18	19
19-21	7

Class Limits: The frequency distribution is made up of the values (counts) for a set of classes; each class has a frequency () associated

with it. The class limits are the upper and lower values for each class. They should be defined in such a way that no value is excluded, but no value can fall into two classes. The researcher can achieve this by using class boundaries with a precision (meaning in this case number of significant figures) one order below that of any of the actual data values. In the wood example, if the researcher weighs the pieces to the nearest tenth of a kilogram, he/ she would set the class boundaries to 7.05, 9.05, and so on. The **class interval** is the difference between the upper-class boundary and the lower-class boundary; in most frequency distributions it will be constant across the classes. The point halfway between the upper- and lower-class limits is the class midpoint. These values are used to calculate the mean of a set of grouped data.

Statistics can be divided into two groups: **measures of central tendency** and **measures of dispersion**.

b) Measures of central tendency
Measures of central tendency are numbers that define the location of a distribution's centre. For example, if we regard all measurements as being attempts to give us the 'true' value of a particular phenomenon, we can regard the centre of the distribution of a set of measurements an estimate of that 'true' value. The various sources of error in the measurement process will produce variability in the measurements, so they will not all have the same value. Measures of dispersion attempt to quantify the extent of this variability. When dealing with ungrouped data, the researcher can use several measures of central tendency. These include the **mean, the median and mode**. When dealing with grouped data, the researcher cannot use the arithmetic mean, instead he/ she can use the group mean. Using grouped data, the researcher cannot use the median, but can define the modal class.

Mean: This is the average. It is found by the sum total divided by the number.

Median: The median can be defined in a set of ungrouped data. If the data are arranged in ascending or descending order; in general, the median is the value that has half of the data values less than it, and half greater than it. If the sample size is an odd number, the median is the middle value of the entire distribution. If n is an even number, the

median is the mean of the two 'middle' values. For example, in the following ungrouped data: 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 22, 24; the median is 18. Whereas for 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 22, 24, 27 the median is 18.5. So, the median is the value that minimised the absolute distance to the data points.

Mode: The mode of a set of data are the value that occurs most often, with certain provisions: It is possible to have no mode (that is, no value occurs more than once). It is possible to have more than one mode (a distribution may be **bimodal, trimodal or multimodal**). For grouped data the class with the highest frequency value is the modal class. There may be two modal classes (bimodal), or more. For example, for the following frequencies: 12, 18, 13, 13, 22, 12, 14, 13 the mode is 13.

c) Measures of dispersion
This type of statistic describes how much the distribution varies around the central point. The various ways we can describe this spread are called measures of dispersion. These measures quantify the variability of the distribution. As they are attempting to quantify the general shape of a distribution rather than a single value for its centre most measures of dispersion are numerically more complex. These measures consist of the following:
Range: The simplest measure of dispersion is the range of the data: the difference between the highest and the lowest values in the data (maximum minimum).

Variance: This is a measure that indicates the distribution of data. It is based upon the idea that each observation differs from the mean by some amount. This is referred to as the difference from the mean. The difference between each value and the population mean is called its deviation. To get the variance, all the values are taken and summed. Dividing the result by the population size (N) gives the mean deviation. Unfortunately, this measure does not give sufficient 'weight' to the values on the margins of the distribution. To do so, the sum of the squares of the deviations from the mean must be taken. Dividing this value (the sum of squared deviations) by the population size gives the variance of the distribution.

Standard Deviation: The standard deviation is the square root of the variance. For example, in the example on the wood weight, if the mean weight was 13.78 kilograms, and the variance was 3.56 kilograms, the

standard deviation will be 1.89 kilograms. Consequently, we cannot compare the variances of two distributions unless they happen to have the same units. We cannot use the variance (or the standard deviation) to indicate which of two or more distributions exhibits greater variability. For this latter purpose we need a 'dimensionless' measure of dispersion, for which we usually employ the coefficient of variability.

Coefficient of variability (or Variation): The coefficient of variability is calculated by expressing the standard deviation as a percentage of the mean.

The basic shape of a frequency curve can be described quantitatively by several measures. These are measures that explicitly quantify the 'balance' of the distribution (See figure 5.2.). This balance has two components:

a) Are the values arranged symmetrically on either side of the centre?
b) Is the distribution highly 'peaked' (most values lie close to the centre, and the tails are short) or is the distribution 'flat' (long tails and a low central concentration)?

The measures used to describe the overall symmetry of a distribution that is, whether the two tails of the distribution are equal is called the skewness. The distribution can be described as left (positively) or right (negatively) skewed. The coefficient of skewness can be used to quantify the extent of the asymmetry. We also define whether the distribution is 'peaked' or not; the measure for this is called the kurtosis. Distributions that are strongly peaked (that is, most of the values lie close to the centre of the distribution, with relatively short tails) are termed leptokurtic, whereas those where the values are broadly spread (the tails are long) are termed platykurtic.
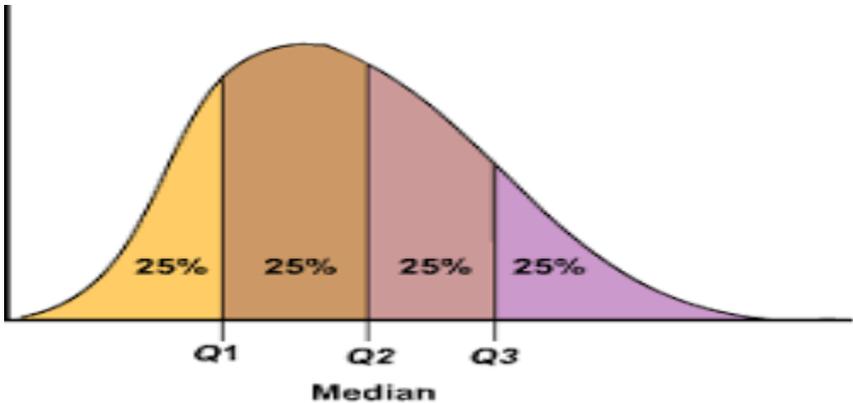
Figure 5.2: Major components of a distribution shape

Percentiles: Percentiles are values that divide a set of observations into 100 equal parts (P_1; P_2, P_3... P_{99}) such that 1% of all the data points fall below P_1, 2% fall below P_2, and so on.

Deciles: Deciles are values that that divide a set of observations into ten equal parts (D_1, D_2, D_3... D_9) such that 10% of all data fall below D_9, 20% fall below D_2 and so on.

Quartiles: Quartiles are values that divide a set of observations into four equal parts (Q_1, Q_2, Q_3) such that 25% of all the data fall below Q_1, and 50% fall below Q_2, and 75% fall below Q_3.

Graphical representation

Whilst the most obvious way of representing grouped data are as a table; the information can also be represented diagrammatically. Data can be graphically presented by a histogram or polygon.

☐ **Histogram:** A basic representation of the shape of a frequency distribution (see figure 5.3). This can be shown as a series of vertical or horizontal bars, their length indicating the frequency of particular class.
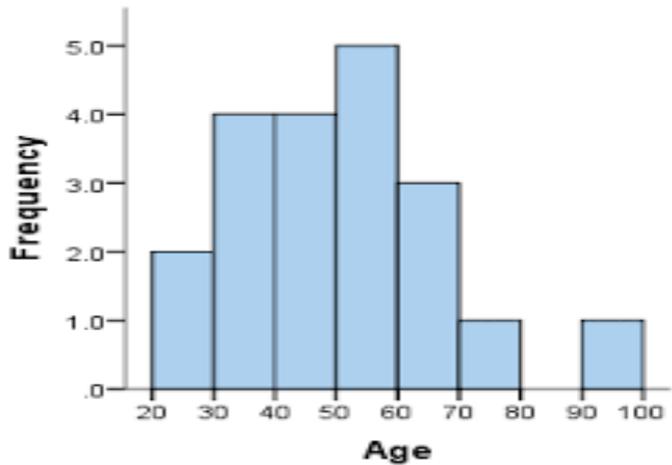
Figure 5.2: Sample histogram

☐ **Polygon:** Data can also be presented as polygons. The polygon is closed by connecting the midpoints of the end classes to the mid points of 'imaginary' classes on each side that have notional frequency zero.
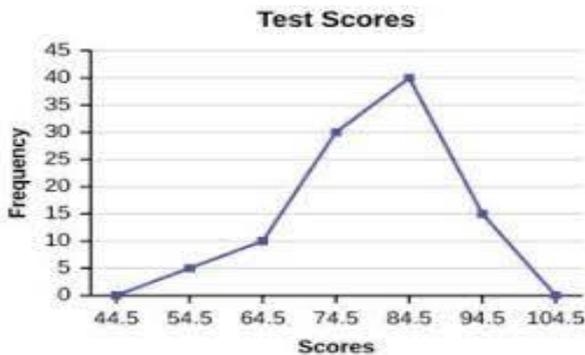
Figure 5.3: Sample polygon

☐ **Bar graph:** The cumulative frequency distribution can also be plotted as a series of bars (see figure 5.5), or as series of line joining the midpoints of the classes; this termed an ogive (figure 5.6).
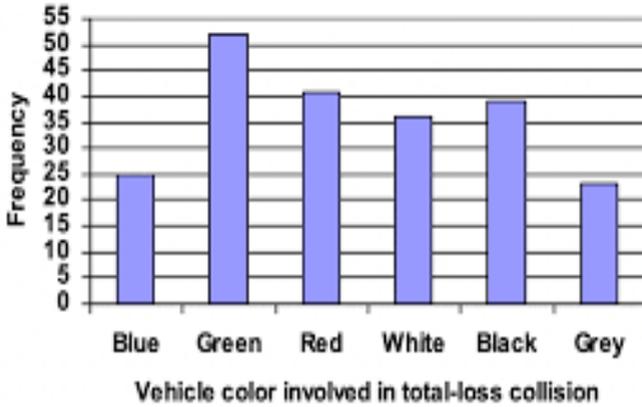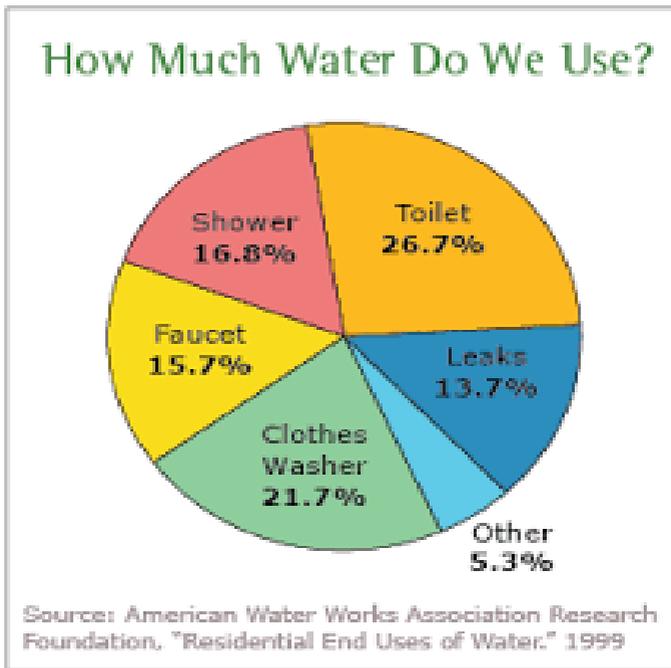
Figure 5.4: Sample bar graph
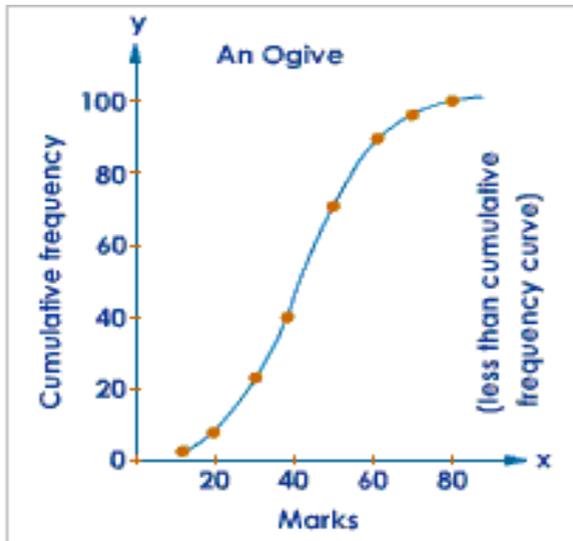
Figure 5.5: Sample Ogive

☐ **Pie chart:** A pie chart can be used for the purpose of presenting results (see figure 5.7).

Figure 5.6: Sample pie chart

CHALLENGES FACED IN DATA ANALYSIS

In data analysis, the researcher should ensure the following:

- Understands the assumptions of their statistical procedures and be sure they are satisfied. In particular, the researcher should be aware of hierarchically organised (non-independent) data; use techniques designed to deal with the challenges faced in data analysis.
- Be sure to use the best measurement tools available. If measures have errors, then that fact should be considered.
- Beware of multiple comparisons. If one must do many tests, then he/she should try to replace or use cross-validation to verify the results.

- Keep in mind what one is trying to discover. One should look at the magnitude rather than values.
- Use numerical notation in a rational way. One should not confuse precision with accuracy.
- Be sure to understand the conditions for causal inference. If one needs to make inference, then he/ she should try to use random assignment. If that is not possible, then one should devote much effort to unearth causal relationships with a variety of approaches to the question.
- Be sure that the graphs are accurate and reflect the data variation clearly.

ETHICAL ISSUES

In data analysis and presentation, a researcher should maintain integrity. This is particularly in the application of statistical skills to problems where private interests may inappropriately affect the development or application of statistical knowledge. For these reasons, researchers should:

- Present their findings and interpretations honestly and objectively.
- Avoid untrue, deceptive, or doctored results.
- Disclose any financial or other interests that may affect or appear to affect their analysis.
- Delineate the boundaries of the inquiry and the boundaries of the statistical inferences which can be derived from it.
- Make the data available for analysis by other responsible parties with appropriate safeguards for privacy concerns.
- Recognise that the selection of a statistical procedure may to some extent be a matter of judgment and that other statisticians may select alternative procedures.
- Direct any criticism of a statistical inquiry to the inquiry itself and not to the individuals conducting it.
- Apply statistical procedures without concern for a favourable out-come.

RESULTS DISCUSSION

In the results section of your thesis/dissertation, you present what you found when you conducted your analyses, whereas in your discussion section you explain what your results mean and connect them to prior research studies. In other words, the results section is where you describe what you did, and the discussion sections is where you describe what this means for the field. The discussion section that follows the results section, will include an explanation of the results. In this section, you should connect your results to previous research studies, make explicit connections back to your research question(s) and include an explanation about how the results might be generalized. This is where you make an argument that supports your main conclusions. Unlike the results section, the discussion section is where you interpret your results and explain what they mean, draw implications from your results and articulate why they matter, discuss any limitations of your results, and provide recommendations that can be made from these results.

The Discussion section follows the Results and precedes the Conclusions and Recommendations section. It is here that the authors indicate the significance of their results. They answer the question, "Why did we get the results we did?" This section provides logical explanations for the results from the study. Those explanations are often reached by comparing the results to prior studies' findings, so citations to the studies discussed in the Literature Review generally reappear here. This section also usually discusses the limitations of the study and speculates on what the results say about the problem(s) identified in the research question(s). This section is very important because it is finally moving towards an argument. Since the researchers interpret their results according to theoretical underpinnings in this section, there is more room for difference of opinion. The way the authors interpret their results may be quite different from the way you would interpret them or the way another researcher would interpret them.

Note: Some writing styles collapse the Discussion and Conclusion sections together under a single heading (usually "Conclusion").

CONCLUSION

In data analysis and presentation, a researcher has, according to (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007) to be sure of the following:

- Be sure the analysis sample is representative of the population in which the researcher is interested in.
- Be sure you understand the assumptions of your statistical procedures and be sure they are clearly defined. Beware of hierarchically organised (non-independent) data and use techniques designed to deal with them.
- Be sure to use the best measurement tools available. If your measures have errors, take that fact into account.
- Be clear of what you are trying to discover.
- Be sure the graphs are accurate and reflect the data variation clearly.

EXAMPLES OF DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presented findings according to research objectives. The main research objective was to develop a destination image (DI) recovery model for enhancing performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe. Specifically, this chapter presented findings on the current situation with regards to DI and performance of the tourism sector, determinants of DI and performance of the tourism sector and the extent to which DI affects performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe. It also presented the model. These were the specific research objectives. It was however, imperative to present the study's response rate and then the demographics of the respondents before presenting findings on the specific research objectives.
5.2 Response Rate
5.3 Demographic characteristics of respondents
5.4. Data Validation
Reliability Analysis
KMO and Bartlett's Test - Destination Image Recovery and Performance
5.5 Findings
5.5.1 Current situation with regards to destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe

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5.5.2 Determinants of destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe
5.5.3 Effect of destination image on performance of the tourism   sector in Zimbabwe
5.6 Proposed destination image recovery model
5.6.1 Modeling process
5.6.1.2 Factor Extraction
5.6.1.3 Communalities Matrix
5.6.1.4 Total Variance Explained - Destination Image Recovery and Performance
5.6.1.5 Rotated Component Matrix-Destination Image Recovery and Performance
5.6.1.6 Naming the Factors - Destination Image Recovery and Performance
5.6.1.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
Convergent Validity
Discriminant Validity
5.6.1.8 Structural Equation Model (SEM)
Multivariate Normality
5.6.1.9 Model Results
5.6.1.10 Squared Multiple Correlations
5.6.1.11 Research Model Equation
5.6.1.12 Model Fit Test
5.7 Chapter Summary

Example 2: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction
The preceding chapter drew the methodology implemented in the study. This chapter's purpose is to present, analyse, discuss and interpret data collected. The study investigated factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. The research questions guide the presentation and analysis of the study data.
6.2 Research questions
6.3 Word cloud and coding charts
6.3.1 Word cloud
6.3.2 Focus group coding chart
6.3.3 Interview coding chart - Managers
6.3.4 Interview coding chart – Key stakeholders
6.4 Description of research sites
6.4.1 Ownership and Size
6.4.2 Organisation Structure
6.4.2.1 Independent Hotels
6.4.2.2 Chain Hotels
6.4.3 Product Range
6.4.4 Market Target
6.5 Research Participants
6.6 Theme One: The level of stakeholders' awareness of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry
6.6.1 Sub theme one: Quality defined
6.6.2 Sub theme two: Dimension of service quality
6.6.3 Sub theme three: Customer Satisfaction
6.6.4 Sub theme four: Quality Management Systems - Quality philosophy

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises the whole research process. It first provides a brief summary of the whole study with particular reference to the research problem, research methodology, results, the main contributions of the research and recommendations for future work. It provides a summary of the main findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations. This chapter should be reasonably short.

The readers would want to know whether the objectives of the study were achieved, and whether the work has contributed to knowledge. Therefore, when compiling this chapter, a researcher should focus on answering these questions. Any conclusions drawn should be those resulting from the study. A researcher should make relevant references to chapters that support the listed findings and may also refer to the work of others for comparison. However, one should not discuss the study's results here.

SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

In summarising, a researcher should identify the findings of the study and discuss them briefly. In addition, the methodological problems encountered should be outlined so that future/ other researchers may take the relevant precautions. The researcher should clearly pinpoint if the study objectives were achieved or not. An effective summary has the following qualities:

a) It bases on results from the study.
b) It is brief; all statements are concise, and pinpoint to the contributions that the researcher has made.
c) All statements are factual.

One way to present the summary is to use one paragraph for each idea. Alternatively, the researcher can use a point-by-point format.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion section should be very brief, about half a page. It should indicate what the study results reaffirm. It should also briefly discuss some of the strategies highlighted by the respondents. In this section, the researcher should clearly state how the study has contributed to knowledge. The best way to start a conclusion is simply by restating the thesis statement. That does not mean just copying and pasting it from the introduction but putting it into different words. You will need to change the structure and wording of it to avoid sounding repetitive. Also, be firm in your conclusion just as you were in the introduction. Try to avoid sounding apologetic by using phrases like "This thesis has tried to show..."

The conclusion should address all the same parts as the thesis while making it clear that the reader has reached the end. You are telling the reader that your research is finished and what your findings are. A well-written conclusion provides you with several important opportunities to demonstrate your overall understanding of the research problem to the reader. These include:

a) **Presenting the last word on the issues you raised in your thesis**. Just as the introduction gives a first impression to your reader, the conclusion offers a chance to leave a lasting impression. Do this, for example, by highlighting key points in your analysis or findings.

b) **Summarising your thoughts and conveying the larger implications of your study**. The conclusion is an opportunity to succinctly answer the "so what?" question by placing the study within the context of past research about the topic you've investigated.

c) **Demonstrating the importance of your ideas**. Don't be shy. The conclusion offers you a chance to elaborate on the significance of your findings.

d) **Introducing possible new or expanded ways of thinking about the research problem**. This does not refer to introducing new information [which should be avoided], but to offer new insight and

creative approaches for framing/contextualising the research problem based on the results of your study.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations section is important in research. This section often exposes further problems and introduces more questions. As a researcher, there is a time limit to the research project, so it is unlikely that the study would have solved all the problems associated with the area of study. The researcher is therefore expected to make suggestions about how his/her work can be improved, and also based on the study findings, point out whether there are areas that deserve further investigation. This section will indicate whether a researcher has a firm appreciation of his/her work, and whether he/ she has given sufficient thought to its implications, not only within the narrow confines of the research topic but to related fields. This section reflects the researcher's foresightedness and creativity.

This chapter should be written using a punchy style and should not be too long. Conclusions and contributions should be presented concisely and factually.

EXAMPLES OF SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Example 1: **Kanokanga, (2019): Development of a destination image recovery model for enhancing the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe**

6.1 Introduction
The conclusions of the study were discussed in line with research objectives. This chapter will include summary of findings before presenting the implications of the study. This study sought to address the following research objectives:
6.2 The specific objectives of the study were to:
6.2.1 Assess the current situation with regards to destination image and performance of the Tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
6.2.2 Examine the determinants of destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
6.2.3 Investigate the extent to which destination image affects performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.
6.2.4 Develop a destination image recovery model for enhancing performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.

6.3 Current situation with regards to destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe

- Zimbabwe was mainly visited by tourists traveling for purposes of visiting friends and relatives (VFR).
- Most of the tourists to Zimbabwe travelled alone and some in groups followed by those who travelled as couples.
- Africa and Europe contributed most of the tourists who visited Zimbabwe, and these were mostly educated males, highly educated with an annual income of at least US$50 000 per annum. However, they spent very little in the destination (around us$1000).
- The national airline lacked capacity to adequately fly tourists into the country and to various tourist destination in Zimbabwe.

There were mixed reactions in terms of the viability of tourism and hospitality firms.

6.4 Determinants of destination image and performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe

- The most important factor which was influencing image and performance of the tourism sector were lodging prices followed by overall quality of the destination and the value tourists attached to Zimbabwe as a vacation destination. Immigration infrastructure and facilities for young children were rated highly.
- The ZTA and the TBCZ, representing the government and the private organisations in tourism and hospitality, were well positioned to influence destination image recovery and tourism performance in Zimbabwe. However, both lacked adequate.

6.5 The extent to which destination image affected performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe.

- Most of the service providers and key informants indicated that they had been affected by Zimbabwe's unfavourable image to a large extent. Most of them were considering relocating their businesses to neighbouring countries. Tourists spent more on food and beverages than on accommodation supporting the prevalence of the VFR market or transit business.
- The small amounts of money spent by tourists in the destination also indicated the huge effect that destination image had on performance of the tourism sector.

6.6 The proposed destination image recovery model for enhancing performance of the tourism sector

- According to the proposed model, price, amenities and ancillary services had a significant influence on affective image. Ancillary services had a significant effect on tourism performance. Accessibility of Zimbabwe as a destination was found not to be significantly affecting destination performance. It can be derived from this that accessing the destination on its own is not the panacea for tourism firms to grow sales and profitability. This is because the tourist could still be constrained by prices when they are in the destination.
- From the study, the strongest relationship was found to exist between ancillary services and affective image. This suggests that a destination's support services could influence a tourist's feelings towards a place. In literature, many attention tends to be put on tourist attractions-both natural and man-made and

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their capacity to draw tourists to the destination. Also, it appears that the role of tourist attractions in turning around a tourist

☐   In view of the high prices of goods and services in Zimbabwe, accessibility becomes more of a hygiene factor than a key mover of destination image and tourism performance. This finding suggested that accessibility would only be relevant in Zimbabwe's tourism matrix only if the more important drivers of image and performance such as prices, amenities and ancillary services were right.

☐   The situation cited above, relating to high prices of goods and services, was compounded by the other finding that pricing was one of the key factors which influenced tourists' destination choice and expenditure patterns in the destination. The findings however, did not suggest that accessibility was not important, but that there were other more significant factors.

☐   Amenities and ancillary services were not to be taken lightly as determinants of destination image recovery and tourism performance. This study indicated that these could influence a tourist's perception of a destination. So, this study provided the evidence to show that while it is important to put attention on tourist attractions, support services in the form of ancillary services and amenities are also central in changing a person's beliefs, impressions and attitudes towards a destination.

☐   The study showed that in terms of improving the affective image and value of Zimbabwe as a destination, the first thing which needed to be reviewed were the ancillary services then the price.

6.7 Implications on theory

The model developed in this study relates the concept of image recovery to tourism performance. The other destination image recovery models assume that image recovery is synonymous with tourism performance. There was no attempt to isolate factors which influence image and the extent to which they do so and to identify factors which influence performance of the tourism sector and establish the extent to which they influence performance. This study has contributed to knowledge in that it identified specific components which form the cognitive image, measured them and established the extent to which they influence destination image. It therefore a tool which destination marketers can depend on in influencing the perceptions of the markets towards Zimbabwe as a destination.

Past destination image recovery models have tended to focus on influencing the market to visit the destination especially using the media to broadcast positive news about the destination in question. Avraham's (2013) image repair model has two sets of approaches, one comprises the cosmetic approaches and the other consists of the strategic approach. This approach uses the approach of ignoring the cause of the image decline, acknowledging that there is a problem in terms of the decline in image and using fire-fighting methods of resolving the problem, ridiculing the decline in image and tourism performance so that customers do not take the problem seriously, using spinning to ensure that the market will not know all the facts with regard to the image decline and hosting and spinning events and counter-branding. The challenge with using spinning is that there is an assumption that the tourists and potential tourists are not quite informed about the source of the problem at hand. The proliferation of modern technology makes it very difficult for destination marketers to depend on spinning. Law, Chan and Wang (2018) noted that mobile technologies which include smartphones, mobile applications and tablets have become the main devices for users to access the Internet. The penetration of the

various mobile devices has made social networking very attractive to users (Matikiti, 2017). Models which assume that the customer lacks information may have serious challenges in this day and era. The model developed in this study acknowledges the proliferation of information on both demand and supply sides. The image repair model by Avraham and Ketter (2016) was developed in Asia and hence destination marketers in African destinations face the challenge of having to adapt it to turnaround destination image and improve performance of the tourism sector. Also, Avraham and Ketter's (2016) model focuses on the role of the media in turning around destination image. It uses three sets of media strategies, namely media strategies to influence the source of the message, media strategies focusing on the message and media strategies focusing on the target audience. To the extent that information is part of ancillary services, the model somewhat resembles the one generated in this study. However, the model generated in this study, unlike that by Avraham and Ketter's (2016) established that there was a significant relationship between ancillary services and affective image and ancillary services and tourism performance.

The model generated in this study supports that by Haneef (2017) in that Haneef looked at the impact of tourism infrastructure on destination image for effective tourism marketing. However, Haneef (2017) did not cover destination image recovery, let alone linking image recovery and destination performance. Haneef (2017) highlighted the importance of attractions, accessibility, activities, amenities and attractions in creating destination image and the tourist experience. Hannef (2017) assumed that these destination factors are of equal importance in image recovery and tourism performance. This study showed that while accessibility is an important attribute in image recovery, it was not at par with amenities and accessibility with regards to image rejuvenation and enhancing performance of the tourism sector. Furthermore, Haneef's study focused on England and not on a developing country such as Zimbabwe.

The model generated in this study somewhat resembles the tourism performance model by Assaf and Josiassen (2012) which identifies and ranks destination attributes from one to ten according to their importance in contributing to tourism performance. However, the model generated in this research does not quite rank the attributes. The model which was produced in this tends to resemble that by Lubbe's (2004) in that both models depend on the stakeholder theory. Lubbe (2004) perceives a tourist destination as a system, an open system on which the systems theory can be applied. The systems theory provides a framework for harmonizing an organisation's goal with the expectations of the society and its publics. In terms of DI, the reconciliation of the tourist destination's goal-to achieve a favourable and sound tourism relationship-with the expectations of the publics in a tourist-generating country, is what is desired. Lubbe (2004) argued that this harmonization requires a continuous exchange of information between the tourist destination and the public's so that the destination and the tourist generating country can understand each other. There is also need for both the tourist destination and the publics to adapt to the ever-changing environment and to maintain a balance in the relationship. In doing so, a favourable DI can be developed and maintained. According to Lubbe's (2004) model, public relations are essentially a communications function concerned with relationships, image and image development.

Given that the provision of ancillary services and amenities in a destination is achieved by various stakeholders, the model developed in this study depends on the stakeholder theory. Both the public and private sectors play essential roles in

providing amenities and ancillary services at the destination and destination accessibility. Immigration infrastructure, airport infrastructure, road infrastructure, shopping facilities, facilities for the physically challenged and children, the provision of tourist information kiosks and others require a stakeholder approach.

6.8 Implications on policy and practice

The model has several implications to policy. It was established that price is a key factor in terms of the formation of the affective image. This implies that for tourists to have a favourable view of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination, more attention should be given to pricing. The stakeholder approach which informed this study as indicated in the theoretical framework, needs to be adopted and utilized. Affective image influences potential tourists to consider the destination among many and influences destination choice (Clouse & Dixit, 2018). Also, it was established that the friendliness of local people played a critical role in the performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe. ZTA (2017) highlighted this although it may not have been based on empirical evidence. Evidence is there to show the importance of the host community in tourism performance. The implication is that there was a serious need to educate the local people on the importance of tourism and their importance in the tourism system. ZTA with other tourism stakeholders, needs to conduct workshops across the country educating people on what is expected of them as key resources in tourism. The local people also needed to be trained on what tourism is and their role and how they should conduct themselves to be good destination ambassadors.

This model stands to benefit many tourism and hospitality stakeholders who include tourists, destination marketers, tourism planners, the government and the society at large. There is need to place amenities and ancillary services at the centre of tourism operations and not to confine it to the periphery of the tourism and hospitality sector as has been the case in the past. Policy could thus be developed to highlight the centrality of the so-called support functions to destination image recovery and tourism performance. The World Economic Forum (2017) advocated for financing public infrastructure development through public-private sector partnerships. UNWTO (2016) noted that such partnerships are still associated with construction of public utilities such as dams, roads and airports. Public-private sector partnerships seem to be still in their infancy in the tourism and hospitality sector.

The enjoyment of maximum revenues from the tourism industry by tourist destinations often entails the adoption of the stakeholder approach. This may include the use of public-private sector partnerships. Public-private partnerships have been used in travel and tourism for building the facilities needed which, unfortunately, most governments do not have sufficient expertise and capital to construct (Haddadi & Khodadadpoor, 2015). Indeed, research on PPPs in the travel and tourism industry have been biased towards the provision of infrastructure and services (Viet, 2019). Such investment is associated, not only with establishing hotels, restaurants, shopping and entertainment centres, but also transportation related projects, including the construction and reconstruction of airports, railways, ports and communication lines (Raunio, 2016). However, research which focuses on the service providers' assessment of the performance of the national tourist organisation (NTO) (the government agent) and the representative of the private tourism organisations as key parties in the destination image recovery process, seems to be uncommon. There is need for policy to guide this.

The image recovery model developed in this study will benefit society in various ways. As a strategy for reviving tourism, the communities will benefit from the revived tourism through inclusive growth and development (UNWTO, 2018), employment creation and hence a reduction in poverty levels in Zimbabwe and other parts of the developing world. Poverty reduction will naturally lead to an improvement in the happiness index of the people concerned (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2016). Tourism development will result in a higher multiplication of tourism benefits.

The resuscitation of Zimbabwe's tourism sector will lead to a rise in the numbers of international tourists (ZTA, 2017). This will in turn result in the destination generating more foreign currency which the country badly needs to buy drugs, import equipment and machinery. These will facilitate the general improvement in the quality of life in Zimbabwe. It is also argued though that tourism growth will mean more of cultural pollution especially among the youths and other vices associated with tourism (Holloway, 2008).

The model developed in this study has managerial implications. ZTA is advised to adopt it for destination image recovery and enhancing performance of the tourism. This study offers strategic solutions to destination marketers in terms of destination image recovery and the enhancement of tourism performance instead of resorting to guess work, the use of ad hoc solutions and speculation which could be costly. This was a contribution to knowledge.

The tests which were done tested the extent of effect of price, amenities, ancillary services and accessibility on value and affective image. This was a contribution to knowledge notwithstanding the findings of the tests. Because accessibility was found not to be significantly related to both affective image and destination performance, the destination marketers are guided in terms of prioritization of determinants of cognitive image in so far as they impact destination image and tourism performance. Such a finding helps to put aside certain claims which possibly have been repeated several times without any empirical study.

Developing countries, especially those in Africa, lack destination image recovery models. These have been associated with the Western world and yet it is often the developing destinations which tend to be more affected by prolonged political and economic challenges, poverty, disease, natural calamities, corruption and others. These negatively affect destination image and tourism performance giving rise to the need for image recovery and the enhancement of performance of the tourism sector. The destination image recovery model developed in this study is thus a ready tool which the developing world and Africa particularly, can adopt for image recovery and tourism performance.

The model presented several implications to practice. Destination managers should ensure that amenities and ancillary services are world class. This was because tourism is international business. Tourists are always comparing the facilities and services when they visit. A tourist destination which is not competitive may fail to attract tourists (Seraphin et al., 2016). This therefore suggests that there is a close relation between destination image and destination competitiveness. It was crucial therefore for tourism marketers and destination marketers to ensure that the

competitiveness and image of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination were well managed.

It was also important that the ZTA and TBCZ as representatives of government and the private businesses in tourism respectively, spearhead the process of reviewing prices in tourism and hospitality as a sector but also to team up with those in other sectors and relook at prices. Prices have been found by the World Economic Forum (2017) as an important factor in destination selection. This study found out that prices were a key factor in destination image recovery and performance of the tourism sector. The implication was that a stakeholder approach was required to achieve sustainable destination image recovery in Zimbabwe.

There was need to evaluate destination accessibility. Although accessibility was found in the study not to be as critical as amenities and ancillary services, nevertheless it is an important dimension in terms of destination development in general and destination image recovery and tourism performance. ZTA (2017) indicated that accessibility both form outside Zimbabwe and internally, was important for sustainable tourism development in Zimbabwe. The ZimStat (2016) research on Zimbabwe indicated this. It was necessary that tourism planners constantly review the issue of destination accessibility from time to time. Furthermore, accessibility did not only refer to physical access, that is, the use of aircrafts, airports and roads, it included access through electronic means. This implied that the country's information communication technology was expected to be in a sound and competitive condition.

There was also need to conduct research in the tourism and hospitality sector now and again. Research on the state of the destination and its attributes could show areas needing improvement. Research is an area which has been neglected in the tourism and hospitality industry for a long time, but it is actually one of the key components to image recovery and tourism performance and inclusive tourism growth.

6.9 Implications on further research
Limitations of the study cited in Chapter One were used to suggest areas which require future research. The respondents were selected from several areas in Zimbabwe including key tourist resorts. The areas include Harare, Victoria Falls, Kariba, Bulawayo, Masvingo, Zvishavane, Gweru and Kwekwe. Possibly, if data could have been collected from more areas, the research quality could have been better. However, the impact on the study arising from this was mitigated by ensuring that data was also collected from the areas which are mostly visited by tourists, namely Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls (ZTA, 2018). The impact was further mitigated by the fact that the respondents and participants were derived from mainly ZTA-tourism designated zones. The ZTA tourism zones comprised sixty seven percent of these areas. They were also spatially dispersed to reduce bias to a bare minimum.

The other limitation was that some service providers, especially big hotels, were reluctant to allow the researcher access to their guests fearing that the researcher could possibly disrupt the guest's experience. This was mitigated by approaching those who could be accessed but still without compromising systematic random sampling.

The researcher had challenges balancing work and research. To overcome this, he had to go on leave to concentrate on research. The high cost of living was an obstacle since financial resources were often inadequate. To deal with this, the researcher had to stick to tight budgets and avoid unnecessary expenses.

Given the above limitations of the study, future research could be more encompassing and include the host community in destination image recovery and tourism performance. This study focused on tourists and those employed in the tourism and hospitality industry. It did not include the ordinary person.

Further research could be required on strategic public-private partnerships and destination image recovery in tourism. Also, future research could explore the value attached by the tourism and hospitality industry on research. There seems to be a strong perception that the tourism and hospitality industry does not attach much importance on research, preferring to focus on customer service.

6. 10 Chapter Summary
This chapter presented a summary of research findings, conclusions and implications of the study on theory, policy and practice and further study. Conclusions were derived from research findings and both findings and conclusions informed the implications of the study. Further research was premised on limitations of the study which were highlighted in Chapter One.

Example 2: **Basera (2021): Factors contributing to the late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel sector in Zimbabwe.**

7.1 Introduction
The preceding chapter, Chapter six, presented the results, and discussed the study's significant findings in line with literature on QMS related to the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study. Areas for further study will also be suggested in this chapter.

7.2 Restating the research objectives and questions
The main aim of the study was to investigate the factors which contribute to late adoption of quality management systems by hotels in Zimbabwe for their sustainable competitiveness. Through understanding of the factors affecting the adoption of quality management systems in hotels, holistic measures will be employed to improve the adoption of quality management systems in hotels and improve their operations.

7.2.1 Research objectives
The study focused on the following objectives as outlined in Section (1.6):
- To investigate the level of stakeholders' awareness of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry;
- To determine the internal factors which contribute to the late adoption of QMS

within Zimbabwe's hotel industry;

- ☐ To determine the external factors which contribute to the late adoption of QMS within Zimbabwe's hotel industry;
- ☐ To investigate the benefits of adopting Business Excellence (BE) as a tool for improving quality in Zimbabwe's hotel industry;
- ☐ To identify external stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS within Zimbabwe's hotel industry; and
- ☐ To propose a model of QMS adoption within the hotel industry.

7.2.2 Research question
The study sought to answer the following questions:
- ☐ What is the level of stakeholders' awareness of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?
- ☐ What are the internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within Zimbabwe's hotel industry?
- ☐ What are external factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within Zimbabwe's hotel industry?
- ☐ What are the benefits of embracing BE as a tool for improving quality in Zimbabwe's hotel industry?
- ☐ What are the external stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS within Zimbabwe's hotel industry?
- ☐ How can a model of QMS adoption within the hotel industry be constructed?

7.3 Summary of the study's findings
The subsequent section presents a summary of the study's findings.

7.3.1 Stakeholders' awareness of QMS in the hotel industry
The study revealed that key stakeholders in Zimbabwe's hotel industry were aware of QMS, although three out of the four key stakeholders (75%) were only aware of it in abstract terms. Managers and staff elucidated quality according to their own understanding and did not define it according to the definitions proffered by quality gurus or scholars. Among the hotels, 78% had written quality policy documents. Of the 78% hotels that that had quality policy documents, most of their managers and staff did not refer to the documents in their definitions of quality. Only one key stakeholder that is the SAZ had a clear definition of quality and is offering various QMS certification to the hotels including ISO 9001:2015. The study also showed that hotel managers train their employees on quality and customer service. The employees wear uniforms to improve service quality. Managers obtained feedback from customers through different ways which include using questionnaires, feedback forms and online platforms like WhatsApp, Facebook, blogs, and websites. Hotels learnt about quality and QMS from each other and at fora, workshops and exhibitions organised by key stakeholders.

Apart from the above, the study also established that hotels in Zimbabwe use QMS that are adapt and fit to their own facilities and they do not follow any previously documented quality philosophy. The hotels that are certified with SAZ had their own QMS that pass SAZ certification. Managers and staff admitted to the benefits brought about by the adoption of QMS in hotels indicating improved customer

satisfaction as integral among continuous improvement, improved reputation, competitiveness, organisational efficiency and employee satisfaction. Finally, the study revealed that, the level of QMS awareness was found to be high among chain hotels than in independent hotels.

7.3.2 Internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS by the hotels

The study revealed that in Zimbabwe's hotel industry, managers and employees in the hotels are well qualified which cannot be a cause for concern in the adoption of QMS. All of the managers are holders of honours degrees and 22% are holders of master's degrees. However, the study's results showed a high management turnover with 89% managers not lasting their organisation's strategic plan life span of five years. Most of the staff members were engaged on contract basis and several students employed on internship constituted a big part of junior staff. Finances affected the adoption of QMS as the hotels financed their initiatives from profits and shareholders contributions which proved difficult. Chain hotels were abreast with trend technology as all of them were using the latest technology in their operations.

Quality communication in the hotels was done using various media and more organised in big hotels than in smaller hotels. Embracing of change in the hotels seemed to be high in chain hotels products offering, operations and management, the hotels are offering beyond food and accommodation to include spars, tour operations in meetings, events, conferences and exhibitions. From the study's findings, it was also clear that independent hotels did not have specialised quality departments in their structures. The chain hotels have broad structures and the independent hotels have lean structures that affected quality implementation in the hotels. In 60% of independent hotels the personnel interchange roles serving in more than one department. The study showed internal factors affecting the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry as:
- ✓ High management and staff turnover;
- ✓ The hotels have no specialised quality function within their establishment;
- ✓ Poor remuneration of hotel employees;
- ✓ Shortage of financial resources;
- ✓ Lack of product development; and
- ✓ Hotel size and structure.

7.3.3 External factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS by hotels

The study showed that external factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS in the hotel industry include several government regulations that stipulate high fees when registering hotels and industry specific taxes. Competition among hotels was increasing the rate at which hotels were adopting QMS. The need by local hotels to get international recognition was also influencing the adoption of QMS. The technology that takes the hotels global was very expensive and independent hotels were failing to access the global reservation systems which compromises the quality of their service delivery.

Apart from the above, inflation also affected the adoption of QMS as the hotels were failing to do renovations and acquire the right technology as the local currency failed to store value for capital investments. The lack of supporting infrastructure in Zimbabwe's hotel industry also affected the adoption of QMS as lack of safe and clean water and electricity outages demand expensive alternative investment. The Internet is very expensive in the country, yet its use is as at the core of quality enhancement in the hotel industry. Corruption by licensing authorities is also

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affecting adoption of QMS. Benchmarking by hotels also influenced the adoption of QMS among hotels. The hotel association also influenced its members to adopt best business practices through workshops, seminars and conferences. The factors contributing to the late adoption QMS in the hotel industry can be summarised as:

- ✓ High taxes and licensing fees;
- ✓ Industry over regulation;
- ✓ High levels of competition and low levels of coopetition;
- ✓ Economic challenges of hyperinflation;
- ✓ Poor industry supporting infrastructure;
- ✓ Corruption by authorities; and
- ✓ Lack of hotel customers associations.

7.3.4 Benefits of adopting Business Excellence as a tool for improving quality in the hotel industry

The study showed that hotels in Zimbabwe do not use any of the internationally recognised Business Excellence (BE) models. 45% of hotels have won awards at some point from local BE models that include the Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce Awards (ZNCCA) and the Megafest Awards. The awards are not well documented, and the awarding criteria are left known to very few and literature on the awards is scarce. The results revealed the benefits of adopting BE as a tool for improving quality in the hotel industry as customer satisfaction, continuous improvement, training of employees, effective communication, community satisfaction, employee's satisfaction and good management. BE tools improved management or leadership style as employees are involved in the business' decision-making process. Customers become part of the product development process using BE tools. Therefore, BE tools lead to improved operations by use of computerised systems and guided information analysis.

7.3.5 External stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS in the hotel industry

The study showed that the government is one of the major external stakeholders influencing the adoption of QMS within the hotel industry in Zimbabwe through the economic policies and statutes it adopts. Banks are not advancing loans to hotels to finance the adoption of QMS. Although the RBZ had a revolving loan facility set aside for hotels, from the study's findings, it seems none of the hotels had accessed the facility. The main reason why hotels implement QMS is to satisfy their critical stakeholder- the customers and it was also noted that customer associations are still unavailable in the hotel industry. Finally, the ZTA, TBCZ, HAZ and SAZ are also critical external stakeholders that influence the adoption of QMS by hotels in Zimbabwe.

7.4 Conclusions of the study

The study investigated the factors contributing to late adoption of quality management systems in the Zimbabwe hotel industry for their sustainable competitiveness. Through understanding of the factors affecting the adoption of quality management systems in hotels, holistic measures will be employed to improve the adoption of quality management systems in hotels and improve the hotel industry's competitiveness. The study used a multiple case study research design underpinned in the interpretivist paradigm. Contingency theory and resource-based view theory were used to comprehend the adoption of QMS by hotels in Zimbabwe. Four key stakeholders and nine hotel managers, forty-eight junior staff from nine hotels in Harare were selected purposively to be the study sample

representative of Zimbabwe hotel industry. Focus group interviews and qualitative interviews were used to collect data for the study. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data for content. The study's conclusions are presented below.

7.4.1 Stakeholders' awareness of QMS in the hotel industry
It can be concluded that stakeholders in Zimbabwe's hotel industry were aware of QMS. However, they did not normally follow their written down standard operating procedures when referring to quality and they do not practice quality issues according to the tenets of the quality gurus or models (Deming, 1986; Juran, 1988; Oakland, 2003; Kanji, 2012; EFQM, 2017). Quality awareness in the hotels was positively reflected in chain hotels that had prepared quality policy documents However, independent hotels reflected quality awareness, but it was in an abstract sense. Hotels in Zimbabwe used QMS that fit and adapt to the organisation's sizes. It can be concluded that the SAZ is the major stakeholder in the hotel industry empowering hotels with quality training and offering certification to hotels including ISO 9001:2015. To empower employees on quality issues, hotels were training their employees on customer service and dressed them accordingly. Feedback from customers was used by the hotels to improve their products and services. However, independent hotels used limited feedback mechanisms. The hotels acknowledged the benefits brought about by the use of QMS and integral to the benefits was customer satisfaction.

7.4.2 Internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within the hotel industry
The study showed high management and staff turnover, absence of a specialised quality function within the hotels, poor remuneration of hotel employee, shortage of financial resources, lack of product development and hotel size as major internal factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry. It can be concluded that high turnover of management and staff is likely attributed to poor remuneration and welfare levels for employees in the hotels. It can be concluded that hotels that have stable employees' turnover, better finances, quality functions and that are innovative are well positioned to adopt QMS.

7.4.3 External factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS within the hotel industry
The study revealed high taxes and licensing fees, industry over-regulation, high levels of competition and low levels of competition, economic challenges, poor industry supporting infrastructure, corruption by authorities and lack of hotel customers' representation as factors contributing to the late adoption of QMS in the hotel industry. It can be concluded that hotels that are capable of strategically responding to the external business environment are competitive taking advantage of established quality systems include several government regulations that stipulates high fees when registering hotels and industry specific taxes. It can also be concluded that hotels are adopting QMS to get international recognition as the hotels also serve international customers.

7.4.4 Benefits of adopting Business Excellence as a tool for improving quality in the hotel industry
The study revealed that 44% of the hotels in Zimbabwe follow local business excellence and all of the hotels do not follow any of the international business excellence models. Local awards that have been won by the hotels include the ZNCC and the Megafest awards and to date, no hotel has won the SAZ National

Quality Awards. By following BE models, hotels have improved their leadership style, employee involvement, business results, community satisfaction and management reporting among a host of benefits. It can be concluded from the findings that there is a positive relation between BE and the adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry.

7.4.5 External stakeholders and their role in influencing the late adoption of QMS within the hotel industry

The study showed that the government, the ZTA, TBCZ, HAZ and SAZ as the major external stakeholders influencing the adoption of QMS within the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. Local authorities and banks were also identified as critical stakeholders in the hospitality industry. It can be concluded from the findings that the adoption of QMS is inevitable when there is a positive relationship between the hotels and the external stakeholders.

7.5 Recommendations

The results of the study mirrored that there are several internal and external factors affecting the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry in Zimbabwe and there is need for an industry multi stakeholder strategy to better position the tourism and hospitality sector for business. The findings reflected that the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry will bring several benefits that will enable the hotels to be competitive locally and internationally. However, the study having been carried out based on a multi case study in Harare as a representative of Zimbabwe's hotel industry, provided an understanding of the internal and external factors delaying the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry. The proposed model for quality management systems adoption in the hotel industry enlightens stakeholders on how hotels can adopt quality management systems in an updated manner. The model outlines the planned procedures and actions that could be used to improve adoption of QMS in hotels for their sustainable competitiveness.

From the findings, the researcher suggests the following recommendations that could improve the adoption of QMS in Zimbabwe's hotel industry:

☐ Hotels in Zimbabwe should strategically prepare for adoption QMS using informed models accommodating the internal and external factors influences in a systematic and integrated way;

☐ Independent hotels need to come up with standard operating procedures and quality policy documents to be referenced by their employees when performing duty. The standard operating procedures will assist the employees as quality handbooks, and it will be easy to adhere to outlined quality management systems;

☐ Small hotels should comprehend physical aspects of service quality, they need to dress their employees uniformly, spruce up outlook of their facilities to improve their image as it will create competitive advantage;

☐ Hotels need to train their employees frequently so that quality concepts stick, they trained employees but sometimes they go for years without being retrained and customer service is very dynamic;

☐ Hotels need come up with quality measurement tools that are tailor-made modified accredited quality measurement since they are collect feedback from customers it seems they do not eventually measure their quality satisfaction

they just use it to improve service delivery. The quality measurement tools will assist the hotels in quantifying the benefits of QMS;

☐ The ZTA as the authority that licenses, grades and standardised hotels should develop minimum quality standards to be confirmed to by all hotel and license hotels after the adoption of clearly recognised QMS. The ZTA needs to relook at its role because from the study's findings, the ZTA claimed it had nothing to do with QMS in the hotel industry;

☐ The study's results also revealed that hotels which are adopting QMS are expanding, renovating, more innovative and are receiving international customers. As noted by Cheng and Rashid (2013), the adoption of QMS intensifies an organisation's capability to find new markets and to maintain and increase the market share. This is also confirmed by Chen and Chen (2014) who posit that organisation with certified products get international recognition and competes on global market.

☐ Hotels in Zimbabwe need to review management and staff salaries and their general welfare to become competitive so that they can reduce the high rate of turnover to fulfill strategic management decisions in pursuant of the adoption of QMS;

☐ The government of Zimbabwe should offer loans to support the hotel industry. Such loans should be accessible to all hotels with easy terms and conditions to enable the hotels to finance their quality initiatives. The adoption of QMS by hotels has proved to have positive multiplier effects on the country's economy;

☐ Before registering or renewing licenses, the ZTA should include a clause which stipulates minimum technology required at a hotel facility in terms of reservations, equipment, conferencing and management systems. This will encourage the hotels to acquire better technologies which will influence the adoption of QMS;

☐ Within their organisation's structure, hotels should have a specialised department dealing with quality issues within a hotel regardless of its size. If resources are limited at least a cross functional committee can serve the purpose;

☐ There is need for the government to realign laws that govern the hotel industry, several authorities' demand fees from the hotels which end up reducing the hotels returns leaving less to use towards improving quality;

☐ Hotels in Zimbabwe should practice coopetition as an alternative of competition. Coopetition pulls resources together, brings economies of scale while competition leads to waste of resources during market fights. Coopetition can lead to the acquisition of global technologies and sharing of supporting infrastructure;

☐ Registration of hotels and renewal of hotel licenses should be done using electronic platforms to minimise corruption tendencies. Inspection of facilities should be done regularly not only registering facility;

☐ A hotel customers' association is supposed to be formed in the country with the help of the hotels associations so that it can act as an advocate group for enhanced quality service delivery in hotels. It should be mandatory for all hotels to affiliate to HAZ so that they benefit from HAZ programmes done in conjunction with other key stakeholders; and

☐ The ZTA should establish quality awards that are specific to hotels to encourage the use of business excellence tools in hotels.

Apart from the above recommendations, the study further proposed a model for adopting QMS in the hotel industry which is presented and discussed below. The

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development of the proposed model fulfills the sixth research objective: *To propose a model of QMS adoption within the hotel industry*. The supposition is that the model will possibly help hotels in Zimbabwe's hotel industry to strategically adopt QMS to improve their sustainable competitiveness

Figure 7.7: The proposed model for adopting quality management systems in the hotel industry

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Internal Hotel Environment

_____ Hotel Industry Environment
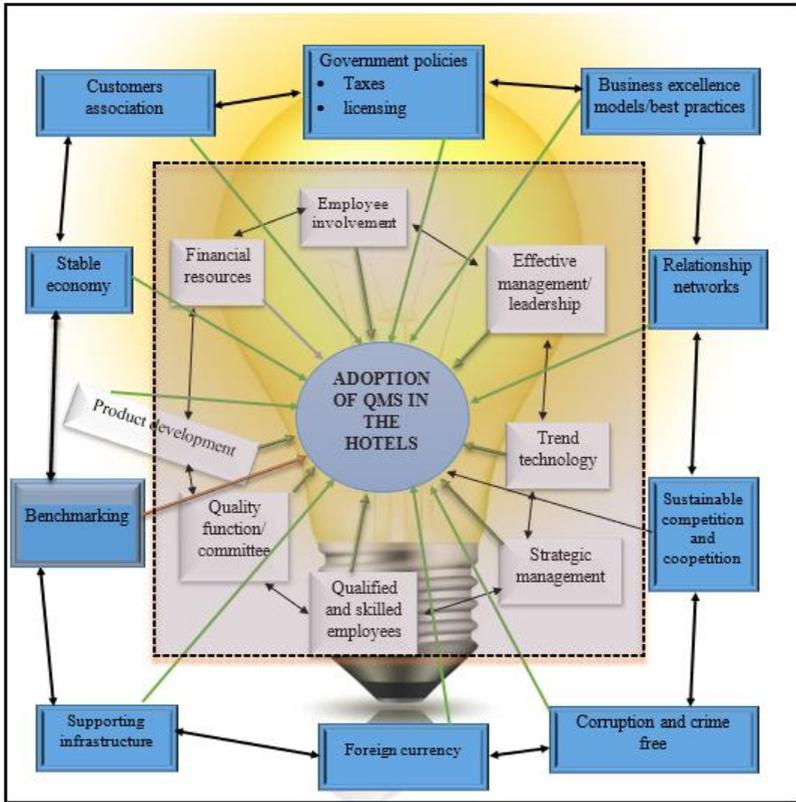
• **Strategic management**

Management of hotels will need to develop a vision that embraces quality and strategies for the adoption of QMS in the hotels that will control allocation of resources, products offerings, and systems to manage ambiguities prevailing in the business environment. Staff at all levels should be involved in crafting the vision and strategies so that they support it, bringing in what they tap from the customers.

- **Qualified and skilled employees**

Hotels should hire qualified and skilled employees so that they add value to their quality strategies. The employees are useful in QMS formulation. Their skills and qualifications also matter in the implementation of QMS including in the formulation of quality vision and strategies. Qualifies and skilled staff will also be able use systems and technologies appropriately.

- **Effective management/ leadership**

Management or leadership of hotels should be responsible and accountable for forming and communicating a quality vision and strategies for the adoption of QMS to ensure organisational continuous improvement. Effective leadership or management styles that involve employees in decision making should be adopted to achieve positive business results.

- **Trend technology**

It is essential for the hotels to implement the latest technology in their operations; communication in and outside their organisation and storing information as this reduces operating costs and affords the adoption of QMS. Organisations that are advancing in technology will enjoy maximum benefits through its utilisation.

- **Employee involvement**

Employees' involvement in decision making is one of the sustainable ways of adopting QMS in the hotels. Employees should at all times know and understand customer needs better and they should be part of QMS. Employees can repair dented service quality.

- **Financial resources**

The hotels need to set aside budgets for the implementation of QMS, to train staff, hire or pay quality consultants, procurement of necessary equipment and associated costs. Mechanisms to secure the finances by the hotels need to be in place before starting the process of adopting QMS to prevent wastage of resources if the process is half done.

- **Quality function**

The management of hotels should establish a specialised quality management department responsible for quality issues. Should they fail to have a quality function, at least a cross functional quality committee will spearhead the adoption of QMS adoption as positive work culture is established when quality turns to be the duty of everyone to improve the ways work is done.

- **Product development**

Hotels need to involve employees and customers when developing new products, service delivery systems and any new ways of conducting business. Internal and external stakeholders' inputs in product development will enable quality improvement to be realised.

- **Sustainable competition and coopetition**

Hotel managers need to consider sustainable competition and coopetition as

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fundamental pillars in the adoption of QMS. Only if a hotel is well resourced can it pursue competition and the small independent hotels can consider coopetition to enjoy economies of scale. Coopetition can bring in standardised systems among members which improves the quality of their products.

- **Stable economy**

Hotels can easily adopt QMS when operating in a normal economy with consistent economic policies for them to plan and invest towards it. Management of hotels should develop mechanisms of dealing with economic shocks so that the quality strategies are not disturbed. When the economy is performing well, hotels are in a better position to adopt QMS.

- **Foreign currency**

Availability of foreign currency is very critical for quality improvement in the hospitality industry. Hotels need foreign currency to buy the latest equipment and hotel management software that is in most cases imported. Hotels need to focus on budgeting for quality using foreign currency which does not lose value due to inflation.

- **Corruption and crime free**

Hotels are not supposed to tolerate corruption in the licensing process and remittance of statutory fees if they are to embrace genuine quality in their organisations. The process of licensing and grading of hotels should be done in a manner which is auditable. Hotels need to implement computerised systems to curb theft of their small property from their premises like the use of CCTV and monitored check in and check out points.

- **Supporting infrastructure**

Managers need to make sure that there is an adequate and reliable supply of water, electricity and Internet as they are the basics of quality in the hotels.

- **Benchmarking**

Hotels need to learn from each other, copying quality strategies from those performing well and generating new ideas on how to improve. They should make sure that they match or surpass what their partners and colleagues in the industry offer.

- **Relationship networking**

Hotels need to affiliate or relate to key industry stakeholders, to cooperate and exchange resources, ideas, knowledge and information in the industry. Interface with customers, other hotels, suppliers, researchers and universities is critical for information sharing as hotels work towards the adoption of QMS.

- **Customers association**

It is important to listen to customers' voices to improve quality in the hotels. Customers' associations lobby for the missing quality dimensions in the industry's products and it is important to consider them in quality improvement.

- **Government policy**

The taxes and license fees should be gazette in a way that encourages the adoption of QMS in the hotel industry. Access to cheap funds and rebates encourages hotels to improve the quality of their products.

7.6 Recommendations for further research

The study was conducted in one industry and is subject to disparagement for being too narrow and problematic to generalise the results and theory creation. Nevertheless, the study gives better control over differences in characteristics of industry and challenges that are explicit to the industry. Single industry study can be replicated in other industries and relating the results cross sectional and longitudinal over time. Hence, it is recommended that similar study to be conducted in other industries and again in the similar industry at a later time and compare the findings.

It is recommended for further research to consider taking the views of customers and hospitality trainers, the study only considered managers, staff and key stakeholders views on the factors affecting adoption of QMS in the hotel industry in Zimbabwe. While this study adopted a qualitative methodology, it is recommended that further research could adopt a quantitative methodology to validate the results. The study used case hotels in Harare only especially the independent hotels. Future research can use other independent hotels outside Harare to evaluate if the results are valid.

CHAPTER 7: REFERENCES

Finalisation of the research work is very demanding. This is mainly because by the time a researcher finishes the study, there may be tiredness and pressure to complete the study. However, this section is essential and should be accomplished with seriousness and uttermost care. This chapter discusses referencing, preparing the appendix and formatting the final work.

REFERENCES

In research, the term 'reference' applies to materials that have been referred to or quoted in the study. The reference list is a compilation of the books and articles referred to. This list is related closely to the literature review chapter. This is because all reference materials used in the literature review should be reflected in this section. The reference list should contain the most relevant and important publications. Reference has been made easy with the use of computer softwares such Mendley (https://www.mendeley.com), Endnote (https://endnote.com) among many others. There are four widely used referencing styles or conventions. They are called the *MLA* (Modern Languages Association) system, the *APA* (American Psychological Association) system, the *Harvard* system, and the *MHRA* (Modern Humanities Research Association) system.

In writing thesis make sure you know what style your institution is using. Some institutions will produce manuals explaining which style they want you to use. You can also find detailed guides to these systems in your institution's library or on the internet. The following sections give the important aspects of the four conventions in brief and all other preceding sections followed the APA style for illustration purposes.

☐ The MLA system is a parenthetical system: i.e. bracketed references in the body of your thesis are linked to full length citations in the bibliography at the end of your thesis. The bracket

in the body of the di contains only the author's surname and the page number or numbers you are referring to. If your thesis quotes from two or more works by the same author, then the bracketed reference should include a shortened version of the title to indicate which book is being referred to (Kennedy, *New Relations*, 26).

A bibliography compiled according to MLA conventions lists items alphabetically by the author's last name. Each entry should include, in the following order: the author's name in full, the title of the book, the place of publication, the publisher, and the date. For example: Kennedy, David. *New Relations: The Refashioning of British Poetry 1980-1994.* Bridgend: Seren, 1996. Pay attention to how the entry is punctuated as that is part of the system too.

☐ The APA system is also a parenthetical system but the bracketed references in the body of your thesis are the author's surname, the date of publication and the page or page numbers you are referring to. For example: There are several different referencing styles or conventions but there are four that are used most widely (Kennedy, 2003, p. 17). The reference always goes at the end of the sentence before the full stop.

A bibliography compiled according to APA conventions lists items alphabetically by the author's last name. Each entry should include, in the following order: the author's surname, their first initial, the date of publication in brackets, the title of the book, the place of publication and the publisher. For example: Kennedy, D. (1996). *New Revelations: The Refashioning of British Poetry 1980-1994.* Bridgend: Seren. Again, pay attention to how the entry is punctuated as that is part of the system too.

☐ The Harvard system is another parenthetical system and the bracketed references in the body of your thesis are the author's surname and the date of publication. The list of works at the end of the thesis is headed 'References'. The works listed in it appear in alphabetical order by the author's surname and follow the same format as the APA system.

☐ The MHRA system does not use bracketed references in the body of a thesis. Instead, superscript numbers like this [1] are linked to a sequence of notes which appear either at the foot of the page or in

a section at the end of your thesis. The note contains the full reference for the book or article you are referring to. Here's what an MHRA note reference looks like:

[1] David Kennedy, *New Relations: The Refashioning of British Poetry 1980-1994*. (Bridgend: Seren, 1996), p.26.

THE REFERENCES IN THE BODY OF THE TEXT

The appropriate point at which to indicate the source of an idea is as soon as is convenient. When it is at the beginning or middle of a sentence, the researcher should indicate the surname of the author and year of publication. The year of publication should be enclosed inside brackets, for instance, 'Basera (2021) pointed out that ...,' 'Basera (2021) indicated that ....' At the end of a sentence or paragraph, one needs to enclose the surname of the author and year of publication in brackets. The name and year should be separated by a comma, for example (Basera, 2021); (Kanokanga, 2018).

DIRECT QUOTATIONS

Direct quotations should be accurate. If there is need to omit some words within a quotation, the writer should use three ellipses (...) to indicate the omissions. If the quotation is short, that is, a maximum of three sentences then uses quotation marks within the text. Longer quotations are usually indented and typed in single spacing, without quotation marks. In both cases, the pages from which the quotation comes must be indicated at the end of the quotation (Basera, 2021:693).

PARAPHRASE

The use of another author's idea but expressed in the writer's words is referred to as paraphrasing. In this case the writer indicates the source author and year, for example (Kanokanga, 2018).

CITATION STYLES

One of the challenges experienced by researchers is how to cite references. The two most common methods for citing published work are **the number system** and the **name year system.**

1. The number system

With this system, references to published work are by use of numbers, for example:

> There are many factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in the Zimbabwean hotel industry [5-9]. The most common factors seem to be the economic challenges also expressed by Zengeni [2]. However, the only one factor which the industry had managed to manage is employing skilled personal on multiskilled bases indicated by Basera [13].

> Or

> There are many factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in the Zimbabwean hotel industry 5-9. The most common factors seem to be the economic challenges also expressed by Zengeni 2. However, the only one factor which the industry had managed to manage is employing skilled personal on multiskilled bases indicated by Basera 13.

In both examples above, three citations were made. The first referred to publication numbers 5, 6, 7 and 9; the second citation referred to publication number 2, while the last citation referred to publication number 13. The fact that the numbers relate to items in the reference list is indicated by the square parentheses [...] or by the superscripts. The convention a researcher follows will depend on the guidelines and regulations of one's institution.

When using the number system citation style, the order of the corresponding reference list is important. By convention, the first cited publication will be the first on the list and assigned the number '1'. The second cited publication will be the second on the list and as signed the number '2' and so on. That is, the publications in the reference list are presented in the order that they were cited. However, the reference list must not contain duplicates. This means that the researcher will must keep track of the publications that have been cited and their associated order in the reference list, so that he/she can use the

appropriate number when he/she is citing a publication more than once, as in the above examples.

2. The name year system

Using the name year citation style, the above example becomes:

> There are many factors affecting adoption of quality management systems in the Zimbabwean hotel industry (Basera, 2021; Chikuta, 2017; Kanokanga 2018; Zengeni, 2014). The most common factors seem to be the economic challenges also expressed by Ndlovu (2014). However, the only one factor which the industry had managed to manage is employing skilled personal on multiskilled bases indicated Urombo (2018).

The first citation named 4 authors using their surname. Associated with each surname is the year of the publication. Notice that they are presented in alphabetical order, within round parentheses, (...). The author is separated from the year by a comma. Author year pairs are separated by semicolons. The next two citations named the authors using their surnames with the publication year of the cited publications enclosed in parentheses. Therefore, there are two ways to use the name year citation style. When using this citation style, the reference list is presented in alphabetical order.

How a publication is cited also depends on the number of authors. If there are two authors, then cite as follows: 'Basera and Mwenje (2021) defined quality in hotels is freshness, integrity, vibrancy, consistency and synergies in all that is done when offering service to guests.'
 Or
Quality in hotels is freshness, integrity, vibrancy, consistency and synergies in all that is done when offering service to guests (Basera and Mwenje, 2021).' When a publication has more than two authors, cite as follows:
'Basera *et al.* (2021) considered ….'

At the point at which a source is cited in the text, indicate the author's surname, followed by the year of publication.

In a sentence simply indicate the surname and put the year of publication of the document in brackets, that is, Basera (2021). However, if the source is indicated at the end of a sentence or paragraph, then include both the author and year of publication in brackets (Basera, 2021).

A comma separates the author's name and year of publication. If an author has published several works in the same year and one is using more than one of these, then lower-case letters are used after the year for identification, that is, Basera (2021a, 2021b, and so on).

If several sources are being referred to at the same time, then the authors should be organised alphabetically and the sources separated using semi colons (Basera, 2021; Kanokanga, 2021).
If quotations are used, indicate the author, year of publication and page(s) of the quotation. Page(s) can be indicated by using p. (pp. if many) or using colon i.e. (Basera, 2021, p.693) or (Basera, 2021: 693). If many pages (Basera, 2021: pp. 693-694) 014 (Basera, 2003: 693-694).

LISTING OF REFERENCES
There are several types of publications used in research. These materials include articles, magazines, journals, conference proceedings, books, dissertations, theses and research reports. Each category of materials requires a different presentation format. However, the general order of organising the references is as follows:
1. Surname of the author
2. Initials of the author
3. Date of publication
4. Title of the material
5. Place of publication
6. Publishers

Author's surname, initials, (year of publication). Title of material. Place of Publication: Publishers.

There are various presentation formats for different materials. This is as follows:

- **Journal Articles** - These are the most common sources of cited material and include specialist technical journals and trade journals. They are presented in the following format:

a) Surname of the author.
b) Initials of the author.
c) Year (date) of publication.
d) Title of article: The first letter of the title is capitalised while the rest are in lower case.
e) Name of journal (underlined or italicised). You may use an abbreviated form for the journal name, but make sure that it is the Recognised one. Most journals will have the 'official' abbreviated title printed at the top of its pages.
f) Volume, followed by number of issues. Instead of issue numbers, some journals have a month of issue. In such cases, substitute the month for the issue number.
g) Pages in the journal where the article appears.

Author's surname, initials. (Year of publication). Title of article. *Name of Journal*, Volume (number, pages).

For example:

> Basera, V. & Mwenje, J. (2021). Stakeholders' Awareness of Quality and Quality Management Systems in Zimbabwean Hotels. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure,* 10(1): 682-697.

- **Conference Proceedings** - Papers presented at conferences are also common sources of research information. The format is as follows; Author(s), (year). Article title, Name of conference, Location of conference, page range.

For example:

> Kanokanga P. F., Ndoda, G., & Tukuta, M. (2019). Public-private sector partnerships for destination image recovery and sustainable performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe. Conference paper, *12th Zimbabwe Research Council-International Research Symposium,* 10-13 March, 2019, (Paper to be published by Zimbabwe Research Council in a book in September 2019).

The author(s) surname appears first, followed by initials. The year is enclosed in parentheses and terminated with a full stop. The first letter of the title is capitalised while the rest are in lower case. You may use abbreviations to indicate the type of publication and the name of the conference. For example, 'Proc.'is usually used in place of 'Proceedings'; 'Pre.' for 'Preprints'; 'Conf.' for 'Conference'; 'Symp.' for 'Symposium' and so on.

- **Books** -To list books, use the following format:

Surname of the author, initials of the author. (Year of publication.) Title of book. Edition number, place of publication, publishers. For example:

> Basera, V. (2020). *Online Marketing*. London: Lambert Publishers.
>
> Gay, L. R. (1992). *Educational Research: Competence for Analysis and Applications*. 4th Edition, New York: Macmillan Publishers.

In referencing books, the first letters of keywords in the main title are in capitals, and the title is in italics. There is no need to indicate the edition of the book if it is the first edition.

Some books are compilations of articles from different authors. For such cases, the format used is a hybrid between that for journal articles and books. This is as follows:

Author(s), (year). Title of article in book, In: Name of book, Edition number, Chapter number, Name(s) of editors, Name of publisher, place of publication.

For example:

> Rumelhart D.E., Hinton G.E. and Williams, R.J. (1987). Learning internal representations by error propagation, In: *Parallel Distributed Processing: Vol. 1*, Ch. 8, D.E. Rumelhart and J.L. McClelland [editors], MIT Press: Cambridge MA. Note the use of the word 'In:' and the difference in which the names of the authors and the names of the editors are presented: editors' names are listed with their initials first. However, when you list the book without reference to authors of particular chapters, editors are considered the authors, in which case the item will be listed as:
>
> Or Rumelhart, D.E. and McClelland, J.L. [editors]. (1987). *Parallel Distributed Processing: Vol. 1*, MIT Press: Cambridge MA.

- **Dissertations, theses and research reports**

Dissertations, theses and academic research reports are listed using the format below:

Author(s), (year). Title in italics. Type of publication, Research Group, Name of Institution, Country. For example:

> Kanokanga, P. (2018). *Development of destination image recovery model for enhancing performance of tourism industry in Zimbabwe.* PHD Thesis, Chinhoyi University of Technology, Chinhoyi, Zimbabwe.

☐ **Company reports and manuals**

Sometimes, a researcher may need to cite material contained in publications by companies and from manuals. In such cases there are no named individuals for authors. Use the format below:

Name of company or organisation, (year). *Title in italics.* Place of publication. For example:

> Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, (2020). *Tourism Statistics.* Harare, ZTA.

□ **Information from the world-wide website**

Nowadays, much information can be obtained from the Internet; typically, websites but sources include newsgroups and online forums. The format to use for such publications is:

Name of Author(s) or company or organisation, (year), Title of article, URL, date found.

The URL (Uniform Resource Locator) is the full Internet address of the article. Due to the transient nature of online information, it is important to include the date when one found the information. For example:

> EFQM, (2017). *The EFQM Excellence Model.* http: //www.efqm.org [Accessed 22 11 2018].

□ **Personal communications**

Sometimes, a researcher may have used information passed on to him/her by a colleague or another person, via a phone conversation, letter, email or other forms of communication. The researcher can include this information in the reference list. The format to use is:

Name, (year). Personal communication, Affiliation of named person. For example:

> Basera, V. (2021). Personal communication, Manicaland State University of Applied Science, Zimbabwe.

The reference list should be compiled as a researcher writes the chapters. The references should be organised alphabetically using surnames. If the author has several publications listed, they should be organised using the date (year) order. If there is more than one author, the names and initials of all the other authors should appear. All authors should be given credit. All the materials cited should be referenced.

The reader should note that the material presented here is not exhaustive; there are many variations. However, in the absence of other instructions, and as long as you are consistent, the guidelines presented above should be sufficient.

In a research proposal or thesis, there is a specific format for numbering. There is specific numbering for the following:

- Chapters and sections in chapters
- Figures and diagrams
- Tables and lists
- Equations

Each chapter of the proposal/thesis should be assigned a number. For example:

Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter sections and subsections should also be assigned a numerical index. For example, the second section of Chapter 1 could be 1.2 Statement of the research problem, while a subsection of Section 4 in Chapter 4 could be: 4.4.1 Simulation results.

Notice the use of different cases in the 3 heading categories. The title of chapter is in upper case (capitalised); the heading of a section has the first letter of keywords in upper case; while only the first letter of the first word in a subsection is capitalised. These styles are used as visual cues to indicate the different levels of headings. Avoid having more than 3 levels, for instance, 2.1.3.2, as they can make the text messy especially when referring to them. If you need to categorise further, the contents of a subsection, use a different font style. Bold and underlined text is a popular format.

To refer to a particular chapter, use the formats given by the following examples:

'Chapter 2 provides a review literature on factors affecting quality management systems. The methodology used in the study is explained in Chapter 3 ....' Notice that the word 'Chapter' is written in full with a capital 'C.' The following examples show how references are made to sections or subsections:

'The procedure outlined in Section 5.3 was employed to ...' 'Section 3.2.2 discussed the implication of ...'

Here, the word 'Section' with a capital 'S' is used to refer to both sections and subsections; the latter being obvious from the numerical index.

FIGURES AND DIAGRAMS

In proposals, dissertations and thesis, all figures and diagrams must be captioned and given a numerical index. Captions should appear below or above the figure or diagram and should be sufficiently descriptive without being too long. Simply state what the illustration is showing and do any explaining in the main text. Captions for figures and diagrams have the format: Chapter number. Figure number.

DESCRIPTION

Figure 2.4. Service quality measurement.
The word 'Figure' is used generically to cover all illustrations, such as drawings, flow charts, sketches, and so on. Spell out the word in full. Note too, the positions of the full-stops. The numerical index is composed of the chapter number, a full stop, and followed by the figure number, terminated with another full stop. Thus, the third illustration appearing in Chapter 4 would have the caption:
Figure 4.3. Demning model.

You may use the abbreviated form, 'Fig.', when referring to illustrations if the reference appears in the middle of a sentence. For ex ample:
'The Demning model, shown in Fig. 4.3, is quite common.'
Otherwise, write the word 'Figure' in full, for instance, 'Figure 4.3 shows a Deming model of quality management.'

TABLES AND LISTS

All tables and lists must be captioned and given a numerical index, and the numbering style is identical to that used for figures and diagrams. The captions should be placed below or above each table and list. So, for example, the second table in Chapter 3 would have the caption:
'Table 3.2. Hotels in Harare.' Abbreviations should not be used when referring to tables and lists write out the word 'Table' in full, with a capital 'T.'

EQUATIONS

These are mathematical and chemical expressions. Each major equation should be assigned a numerical index, with the following format: (Chapter number. Equation number). The following shows equation number 6 in Chapter 4.

$$VA = 2BN + C + K \_\_\_ (4.6)$$
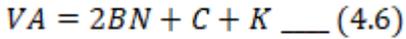
Use the following rules when referring to equations.

- When a sentence starts with the word 'Equation,' write it out in full followed by the numerical index.

- Otherwise use either the abbreviation 'Eq.' or 'Eqn.' making sure that you maintain consistency throughout the proposal/ thesis. When referring to a collection of equations, use the corresponding plural forms, i.e. 'Eqs.' or 'Eqns.'

For example:

'Equation (5.1) shows the effect of ...'

'Substituting Eq. (3.3) into Eq. (3.7) yields ...'

'The factor model, given by Esq. (4.4) to (4.10) ...'

When referring to equations in text contained within parentheses, you need not enclose the equation's numerical index within parentheses. As such, 'The factor model, (Eqs. 4.4 to 4.10)' is much neater than 'The factor model, (Eqs. (4.4) to (4.10)) ...'

CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES

This section is meant for information which may be of interest to the reader but not critical to the study. Information usually includes research instruments, copies of letters of respondents, tables, figures, the budget and the work plan. Some things which are typically included in appendices are: data files that are too large to be represented simply in the results chapters, pictures or diagrams of results which are not important enough to keep in the main text and time frame, research instruments. Appendices should be devoted to those aspects of the project that are of secondary interest to the reader. Begin by assuming that the reader will only have a short time to read the proposal and it will only be its main body (not the appendices). After reading, the reader's attention has already been engaged, and now he/she would like some additional information. This is the purpose of the Appendices. Several sections could be included in the appendices.

BUDGET

An important aspect of your proposal/thesis will be the budget. Most institutions are interested in seeing how finances will be allocated for the study. This refers to the amount of money needed or used during the study. Figure 8.1 shows a budget template

Table 8.1 Tourism and Hospitality Research Budget Template

Total Budget		$5000
Indirect cost rate limit (%)	$0	
Awarded in semester 4.1		
Budget Category		
Personnel	$0	
Consultant Costs	$0	
Equipment	$0	
Supplies	$0	
Travel	$0	
Park fees	$0	
Other	$0	
Total		$5000
Budget justification		

Personnel:		
Equipment:		
Travel:		
Supplies/consumables		
Travel:		
Park fees		
Other		

WORK PLAN

A work plan is a clear indication of the time frame for the project and the times when each aspect of the project will be implemented. A timeline can be created as a graphic representation (not too many words). If done well, it will help demonstrate the feasibility of the project in a very visible way. It is a schedule, chart or graph that summarises the different components of a research project and how they will be implemented in a coherent way within a specific timespan. It may include:

a) The tasks to be performed.
b) When and where the tasks will be performed.
c) Who will perform the tasks and the time each person will spend on them (research team, research assistants and support staff drivers, typists assigned to the tasks)?

A **time frame** is the length of time a project will take from the start to the end. It is given in terms of specific dates. It gives an indication of time. It is usually in form of a table. It gives the duration of each activity.

A **time plan** is the demarcation of what will be done from the start to the end, when, and where. It includes the dates each task should begin and be completed. These three terms are used interchangeably.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER BEFORE COMING UP WITH A WORK PLAN

A work plan is the blueprint of any project. It encompasses all that is required for a project to succeed or fail. Many care, objectivity and preparation must be put in the work plan. Much consideration should be taken as to who gets assigned to the preparation of the final work plan.

Work planning does not start simply with the scheduling of tasks to be performed and the order in which they should be performed. It involves an awareness of the objective of the research project, the research methodology and the tentative budget.

ROLE OF THE PLANNER

The planner must be very conversant with various aspects of the proposal as these have a direct link to designing the work plan. The planner must be conversant with the problem that is being addressed and why it is being addressed, the available information and the additional information needed, the target group, and the techniques that will be used in data collection. He/she also needs to have a rough estimate of the length of time such a project will take. The planner also need to be aware of time such a project will take. The planner also need to be aware of some of the challenges likely to be faced. The role of the planner includes the following:

a) **Reflection**- this involves assessing the project from the social and ecological perspectives. This includes assessing the set goals for the project and the best way of achieving them

b) **Defining key issues (problems/challenges)** – Issues to be addressed in the project and its practical boundaries.

c) **Identifying key uncertainties -** that is the likely gaps in understanding knowledge about the project or the social or ecological systems. For example, if one of the study areas is Harare, it is necessary for the planner to be aware of how long it will take to cover all areas in Harare, clearance issues, accommodation, security, transport and so on.

STEPS TO BE FOLLOWED IN DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE WORK PLAN

The following are the steps that a planner must adhere to in developing an effective work plan.

☐ Review and revise, if necessary, the list of tasks prepared for data collection. Add to the list other tasks you must complete not related to data collection such as clearance of the proposal data analysis and report writing, and feedback to the authorities and target group. Number all tasks.

- Review the staffing for different tasks, taking into account the experience during the pre-test. Consider:
- Who will carry out which tasks?
- The amount of time needed per research unit (interview/observation/record) including travel time.
- The number of staff needed to complete each task in the planned period of time.
- Look at a calendar and note any public holidays or other important activities scheduled for the period (about 6 months) in which you plan to conduct the fieldwork.
- Include your facilitator in stages of the fieldwork where you feel you would require assistance (for instance, during training of research assistants or during the initial period of data collection in the field). If needed, schedule the use of a local consult ant.
- Do not forget to include support staff required (typists, drivers, for example).

Consider whether the number of days each member of the research team plans to invest in the fieldwork is adequate and acceptable for the task. (It should most likely not exceed 30 working days.)

Make revisions, if required. Complete the staffing for the tasks you have just added. Consider whether the use of short-term consultants is necessary for certain tasks. Always consider using local consultants. If consultants are used, involve them in the planning stage of the project so you can incorporate any useful suggestions they may have pertained to the design of the methodology.

There are several computer software packages on the market that one can use to prepare and monitor the implementation of a work plan. Microsoft Project Manager, Excel, and Lotus are among the commonly used software solutions.

The work plan is the starting point for developing the budget. Specify, for each activity in the work plan, what resources are required. Determine for each resource needed the unit cost and the total cost.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN STAFFING PLAN

Any person planning a research project must have specific and careful planning on the recruitment of resource persons. This is mainly because they play a major role in the success of the project. Factors to consider before incorporating them in the work plan include the following:

- ☐ Are the types of personnel and levels of expertise you require likely to be available for the project? For example, is there a sufficient range of disciplines available including, where appropriate, personnel from outside the field? Varied views may help boost the project.

- ☐ If special staff must be recruited or reassigned from other ministries/ agencies/ departments, and so on, what regulations or procedures will must be followed?

- ☐ Is the staffing plan realistic, considering the project budget that is likely to be available?

- ☐ To what extent can community members, students or other non-professionals be involved in the study?

- ☐ What training would the research assistants/ data collectors require? How long would the training last? Who would do the training? How do you intend to supervise the assistants/ data collectors?
  After this has been put into perspective the planner can then fix the dates (in weeks) indicating the period in which each task will must be carried out and calculate the number of working days per person required to complete each task.

- ☐ The first draft of the work plan should be prepared when the project proposal is being developed, so the schedule can be discussed easily with the relevant authorities. A more detailed work plan should be prepared after the pretest in the study area. There should be no hesitation in revising work plans as necessary, based on a reassessment of what can be realistically accomplished in the coming months.

- ☐ Seasonal changes and their effect on travel, work habits, and on the topic you are studying (such as incidence of disease or nutritional status, politics – election periods) should be kept in mind as the schedule is planned.

IMPORTANCE OF WORK PLAN IN RESEARCH

A work plan can serve as:

- A tool for planning the details of the project activities and drafting a budget.
- A visual outline or illustration of the sequence of project operations. It can facilitate presentations and negotiations concerning the project with government authorities and other funding agencies.
- A management tool for the team leader and members of the research team, showing what tasks and activities are planned, their timing, and when various staff members will be involved in various tasks.
- A tool for monitoring and evaluation, when the current status of the project is compared to what had been foreseen in the work plan.

CHALLENGES FACED IN PREPARATION OF WORK PLANS

There are various challenges experienced by researchers while preparing the work plan. This includes the following:

a) Planning without an awareness of the research methodology, area of study and the respondents.
b) Inexperience of the planners (researcher) particularly with certain data collection technique and therefore allocating less 'time for the field work.
c) Planning without budget estimates.
d) Pressure from authorities to hand in work plan in as short a time as possible. This results in haphazard planning to beat deadlines.

Errors in the preparation of the work plan may contribute to in valid data as it may contribute to rushing in coverage of study area and respondents. It can also contribute to the application of indicators and measuring techniques or instruments which do not adequately measure what the project set out to measure. All the above-mentioned shortcomings may threaten the validity of the research findings and conclusions.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION - GETTING AN OVERALL PICTURE

In the finalisation of a research proposal, dissertation and thesis a researcher must consider the format.

☐ **Proposal**

In proposal the structure is as follows:

(1) **Cover page** – This page consists of the following:

☐ Title- The title should not be more than twenty words. It should be clear and focused.

☐ Author(s) identification – This includes stating the authors(s) full names and the name of the department.

☐ Caption – A research proposal submitted for the degree of (specify e.g. Doctorate degree of tourism and hospitality management) in Faculty of, then specify the institution e.g. Bindura University of Science Education

☐ Date e.g. (February 2016)

The cover page therefore has full title, and the sub-title if any, of the research work; the name of the author, a statement about the degree programme under which the thesis is submitted; the date of submission.

Example of cover page
Factors contributing to late adoption of quality management systems in the hotel industry in Zimbabwe.
Vitalis Basera Khaki
A research proposal submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Commerce, Graduate School of Business of Bindura University of Science Education, Zimbabwe, February 2016.

(2) **Declaration**

This is the immediate page after the cover page. The declaration is made by the student and the supervisor. This is as follows:

1. **Student's Declaration '**This proposal is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.'

Then the student signs above his/her name, indicates the registration number and date.

1.1. Signature.. Date ………….
1.2. Name: Vitalis Basera Khaki
1.3. Registration number: B1850011

2. **Supervisor(s) Declaration** - 'This proposal has been submitted for review with my / our approval as University supervisor(s).'
Then the supervisors, beginning with the main supervisor, sign and indicate their respective departments. This is as follows:
2.1. Signature ………………………. Date ……………………………
2.2. Dr Judy Mwenje
2.3. Graduate School of Business

(3) Abstract

This is immediately after the declaration page. It summarises the entire proposal, pointing out the research problem, the objectives of the study and methods of data analysis. The abstract normally should not exceed 500 words but this usually differs with institutional requirements.

4. Abbreviations and acronyms

This section comes immediately after the abstract. This section should be included in the proposal only if it is applicable.

5. Table of contents

This section indicates the chapters and sections. It lists the chapter and section headings with their corresponding page numbers. In proposals three main chapters are indicated. These are as follows chapter 1, chapter 2 and chapter 3

6. Chapter 1: Introduction

    a. Introduction
    b. Background to the Study
    c. Statement of the Research Problem
    d. Purpose and Objective of the Study

e. Research Questions and Hypothesis
f. Significance of the Study
g. Limitations of the Study
h. Assumptions of the Study
i. Conceptual /Theoretical Framework
j. Definition of Terms

7. Chapter 2: Literature Review

This section consists of highlights of current studies that address the issues in the proposal. Clear gaps in quoted studies should be indicated.

8. Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter highlights the methodology appropriate to the study. This includes the following:

- Introduction
- Research Design/philosophy
- Location of the Study
- Target Population
- Sample Selection
- Research Instruments
- Data Collection Techniques
- Data Analysis

a) References

The reference section is not numbered. It shows all the sources that were consulted in writing the proposal.

b) Appendices

This shows big figures, tables, and associated documents (consent forms, data collection instruments – interview guides, questionnaires. The figures and tables shown on the appendices are the ones that are big more than one page that could not fit in the main document as the pose risk of distorting flow of work.

b) Thesis / dissertation

The thesis is written after the collection and analysis of data. It consists of the following

☐   Cover Page

This page is similar to the proposal in the title and author's identification. However, the caption changes to: A research thesis submitted for the degree of (specify e.g., Doctor of Philosophy) in the School or Faculty of.... then specify the institution e.g., Bindura University of Science Education. Then the date e.g. (June, 2021).

2. Declaration

This is similar to the proposal except that the replaced with thesis. This is as follows:

o   **Student's Declaration** - 'This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.'

Then the student signs above his/her name, indicates the registration number and date.

1.   Signature... Date ………….
2.   Name: Vitalis Basera Khaki
3.   Registration number: B1850011

   o   **Supervisor(s) Declaration** - 'I/we confirm that the work reported in this thesis was carried out by the candidate under my / our supervision as University supervisor(s)' Then the supervisors, beginning with the main supervisor, sign and indicate their respective departments. This is as follows:
   o   Signature ………………………. Date ……………………………
   o   Dr Judy Mwenje
   o   Graduate School of Business

Of late under declaration a new section which declares published work **(declaration publications)** from the thesis is now a requirement. However, this depends on institutions requirements

   o   **Declaration publication(s)** - The following publications are associated with the research presented in this thesis:

a)   Basera, V., Mwenje, J., and Ruturi, S. (2019). A snap on quality management in Zimbabwe: A perspectives review. *Annals of Management and Organisation Research,* 1(2), 77-94.

https://doi.org/10.35912/amor.v1i2.278

b) Basera, V., and Makandwa, G. (2020). Customers' perceptions, expectations and experiences of service quality for hotels in Mutare, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Gastron- omy, Hospitality and Travel (JOGHAT)*, 3(1), 51-63. https://doi.org/10.33083/joghat.2020.30

c) Basera, V., and Mwenje, J. (2021). Stakeholders' awareness of quality and quality management systems in Zimbabwean Hotels *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure,* 10(1): 682-697. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-126

d) Basera, V., and Mwenje, J., (2021). Factors affecting the adoption of quality management systems (QMS) in Zimbabwean hotels. *African Journal of Hospitality, tourism and leisure*, 10(1): 682-697. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-132

e) Basera, V. Mwenje, J. (2021). Model of QMS adoption in the hotel industry: A case study of hotels in Zimbabwe, *Journal of Gastronomy Hospitality and Travel*, 4(1), 26-38. https://doi.org/10.33083/joghat.2021.55

f) Mwenje, J and Basera, V., (2021). Business excellence models and external stake- holders influencing the late adoption of quality management systems in Zimbabwe hotel industry. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure. 10(6):1848-1866. DOI: https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720.196*

3. Dedication
This statement should not exceed 25 words. It should be on a separate page.

4. Acknowledgement
This section should not exceed 150 words and should be on its own page.

5. Abstract
This should not exceed one page. It should consist of the precise summary of the thesis including the objectives, methodology used, findings and recommendations.

6. Abbreviations and Acronyms

This section comes immediately after the abstract. Explain all abbreviations and acronyms as used in the entire thesis.

7. Table of Contents

This section begins on a new page. As in the proposal, it indicates all the chapter and section headings with their corresponding page numbers.

8. Chapters 1-3

Chapters 1-3 have content and form similar to that in the proposal. However, the future tense used in the proposal changes to past tense. Chapter two and three of the theses are similar to the proposal apart from the tense used.

9. Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Discussion

This chapter interprets and explains the findings about the study objectives.

10. Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

In this chapter, a summary of the study and implication of the main findings are given. Conclusion and recommendations are given. Areas that need further research are also suggested.

11. References

This section lists the references that have been cited in the thesis. It gives credit to any authors the researcher referred to. Good referencing allows readers to check, the foundations of the researcher's additions to the structure of knowledge in the discipline. This enhances work reliability. Good referencing also tells the reader which parts of the thesis are descriptions of previous knowledge, and which parts the researcher's additions to that knowledge.

12. Appendices

This presents research instruments, charts, graphs, illustrations, big figures, and tables that failed to fit in the body of thesis, etc.

The presentation format for the thesis is similar to that of the proposal. There are varieties of presentation formats, and they vary with institutional requirements. Normally a thesis would have the following presentation forma:

1. The thesis must be prepared using a word processor using the Times Roman or Arial 12-point typesetting. It should be double spaced and printed on one side of the paper.
2. The text should be justified.
3. A 50 mm margin should be left on the left side of the paper and a 25 mm on the right-side margin of the paper. Typing should begin 40 mm from the top of the paper and should not go beyond 25mm from the bottom of the page.
4. All references must be complete and consistently applied in the format indicated in chapter 7.
5. All figures must be produced using a computer graphics package and have figure number and title.
6. Gender specific words should be avoided. Words like author, researcher, and engineer, for example, should be used instead of 'he' or 'she'.
7. Pagination: The preliminaries (title page, declarations and abbreviations) should be numbered in Roman numerals lower cases (e.g., i. ii. iii ....)
8. The text, chapter 1 to appendixes should be numbered using Arabic numerals. The number should appear in the centre of the upper margin of the page.
9. Language Used: In writing the thesis, past tense should be used. This is mainly because the author is reporting what has already been carried out and completed.

GUIDELINES IN THESIS PRESENTATION

Various chapters of the thesis must be linked together in a coherent manner. One of the techniques to achieve smooth flow of contents in a thesis is to maintain a thread between adjoining chapters. The author should ensure that each section within a chapter leads on to the subsequent section, and paragraphs of sections are connected to each

other. A common practice is to use 'joining' words or sentences, particularly at the end and beginning of each chapter. A joining sentence at the end of a chapter tells the reader what to expect, while one at the beginning of a chapter reminds the reader of the contents of the previous chapter.

When making calculations in a thesis, the author should define all variables (include units where applicable) and justify all simplifying assumptions. The author should be fastidious in describing experimental, simulation and test conditions. In compiling thesis material, the author should not presume that the reader knows what he/she is trying to do or are familiar with the techniques that one is employing.
Material that does not contribute directly to the discussion, argument, or development of a theme or idea in a thesis interrupts flow. Such material should be excluded. If, for the sake of completeness, the author wishes to include these materials, then they should be placed in an Appendix and referred to in the main text.

In writing a thesis, the author should avoid one sentence paragraphs. Too many of these paragraphs will result in a page having numerous gaps. This will impact a feeling of discontinuity with the content. The author should also avoid long sentences. Long sentences are difficult to read and can obscure an otherwise simple explanation. The author should try to keep sentence length to less than two lines. Appropriate use should be made of punctuation. Punctuation breaks a sentence into readable chunks, reduces ambiguity, and can increase effect and emphasis. However, punctuation should be carefully applied since it can change the meaning of a sentence.

The repeated use of words can make a thesis difficult, if not boring, to read. The author should use a thesaurus to get synonyms to introduce variety. The author should make sure that they are used in the proper context. In compiling a thesis, bombastic words (i.e., flambagitious, octogenarian, barracudas, gigantic) should be avoided. Explanations using commonly encountered words are more, effective than pompous

sounding but rarely used vocabulary. Presentation also plays an important part in giving the impression of smooth flowing content.

ROUGH DRAFT
It is important to create a rough draft before the final copy. The rough draft should include any critical components including thesis, supporting statements, facts and conclusions. It is often helpful to have someone other than the supervisor read some sections of the draft, particularly the introduction and conclusion chapters.

REVISE AND AMEND
One should revise the proposal/thesis. The author should proofread to check for spelling errors and be sure the cited information was well documented.

PROPOSAL OR THESIS DEFENCE
In most institutions one must defend one's proposal/thesis. This at times lasts for an hour for a thesis and thirty minutes or less for a proposal. The thesis defense is like an examination in some ways.

10 Valuable tips for your defence / presentation day
a) Familiarise yourself with the room. Try to visit the room a day before your defence. If there is air conditioning bring a jacket or scarf with you because the temperature can play a role. If their online presentations make sure you have good internet connection, power back up, do test runs before the day.
b) Be on time. Try to be there at least one hour in advance so you can prepare and start at the time that was allocated to you. Try to stick to the time given for your presentation. For online presentations connect on time before the scheduled time.
c) Have a check list and go over this. (This is also why you should be on time so you can double check if you have everything.)
d) Confirm with your Department both the time and date. Make sure that you inform your advisor(s)/supervisor(s) so they can be present during your defence.

e) Prepare a PowerPoint presentation and do not clutter the pages. Just have bullet points and be prepared to defend these.
f) Have a backup plan in case there is electricity failure, or your notebook does not work. Have hard copies of your thesis / proposal just in case and also have your defence on an USB flash drive.
g) Wear comfortable but presentable clothes and shoes.
h) Before you start with your defence; Please turn off your mobile phone. (Disruptions from a ringing phone can knock you off track and will create a huge negative impact.)
i) Try to be as clear as possible; if you did not understand a question, ask the panel member to repeat the question.
j) Last but not the least do not be defensive during your presentation/ defence and keep smiling no matter what!

Before your big day try to attend at least a couple of defences so you can learn from these.

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Synopsis

Proposal and thesis writing are areas of research that have provided challenges to many students and scholars. However, the ability to identify, define and research an issue or problem impacting on education, business or society is a necessity for students undertaking undergraduate or postgraduate studies. Students are required to prepare scholarly research papers that examine in detail issues or problems and provide recommendations or solutions.

This book was written to address these challenges and provide guidelines for the preparation of scholarly research documents. It will aid in teaching and learning of business research methodologies in higher institutions of learning and research institutions. The book attempts to use various examples to illustrate basic issues in research methodology. The illustrations are drawn from studies done in the Zimbabwean context using qualitative and quantitative research methodologies though they are inclined to Tourism and Hospitality Management cases.