THE ENHANCEMENT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION AND TRAINING TO PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL AND RURAL COMMUNITIES IN ZIMBABWE

BY

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ABSTRACT

The travel industry in Zimbabwe today, is the third largest foreign currency earner after agricultural produce, mainly tobacco exports and mining products. Tourism and hospitality makes an important and significant contribution to Zimbabwe’s economy in terms of employment creation, contribution to the balance of payments support and as a stimulator of capital for investments in both urban and rural areas. Tourism development is, however, grounded on the country’s unique cultural and natural heritage which is made up of sensitive ecosystems, encompassing national parks and wildlife. The increasing investments in tourism may cause adverse long term effects of developments in biodiversity and loss of wildlife. It is therefore, vital that communities living next to tourist attractions be educated so that they practise eco-tourism or sustainable tourism as a matter of priority.

The focus of this study is to identify a curriculum for the education of primary school learners in Zimbabwe and for the training of rural communities living within or neighbouring tourism resorts and attractions. Such a curriculum should equip primary school learners and communities with the requisite knowledge to preserve and protect their environment effectively. Introducing tourism and hospitality education at primary school and community level enhances the implementation of eco- and cultural tourism to the maximum economic benefits of school learners and rural communities.

In a bid to come up with a primary school curriculum incorporating tourism and hospitality education, some 145 out of a population of 250 respondents were interviewed in and around the tourist resort areas of Nyanga, Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls.

The study tendered a realistic and practical framework for the development of a primary school curriculum incorporating “Tourism and Hospitality” as a subject, which can also be used as an education or training guideline by communities next to resort areas and tourist attractions. Challenges facing rural communities regarding the implementation of eco- and cultural tourism were identified and strategies for the preservation and protection of the environment were proposed. Partnerships derived from best practices in environmental management and eco-tourism benefiting schools and communities, were also identified.
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Elizabeth, my children Rutendo, Farai, Tinashe and Tapiwa and to my grandchildren, Harvey, Ebony and Dante
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the unwavering support of my two supervisors Professor Isaac Chaneta (Dean of Commerce) and Dr Taka Munyanyiwa (PVC Business) for the guidance and support throughout this research study. Thank you and best regards.

I wish to thank my colleagues in the Department of Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Studies for their invaluable advice and encouragement.
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<tr>
<td>CAMPFIRE</td>
<td>Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources</td>
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<td>CBT</td>
<td>Community-based tourism</td>
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<td>CDU</td>
<td>Curriculum Development Unit</td>
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<td>CITES</td>
<td>Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species</td>
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<td>CVDP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Village Development Programme</td>
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<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education</td>
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<td>IHTEC</td>
<td>International Holistic Tourism Education Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>MICE</td>
<td>Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions</td>
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<td>MoESAC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture</td>
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<td>MoPSE</td>
<td>Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
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<td>PPT</td>
<td>Pro-Poor Tourism</td>
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<td>SMEs</td>
<td>Small to Medium-scale Enterprises</td>
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<td>TIES</td>
<td>The International Ecotourism Society</td>
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<td>UN-WTO</td>
<td>United Nations World Tourism Organisation</td>
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<td>WTTC</td>
<td>World Travel and Tourism Council</td>
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<td>CZI</td>
<td>Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries</td>
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<td>ZCT</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Council for Tourism</td>
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<td>ZIMDEF</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund</td>
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<td>ZTA</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1 Tourism in Zimbabwe
Zimbabwe’s tourism is based on its natural heritage which comprises National Parks, wildlife and its unique cultural heritage like the Great Zimbabwe, the Victoria Falls etc. World-wide trends show a movement towards adventure, historical and indigenous cultural tourism which is universally assumed to be consistent with natural, social and community values (Eadington and Smith, 1992). The term ascribed to this kind of tourism development is eco-tourism or sustainable tourism. Worldwide, indigenous ancestral territories hold the bulk of the world's remaining resources (World Wildlife Fund for Nature, 2000).

Realising the potential of generating foreign currency through tourism, Zimbabwe has promoted international visits to the country, which have increased steadily since independence from 80 thousand visitors in 1980 to over 2 million in 2010 (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2011). The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) also report that, likewise tourism revenues increased to over 634 million dollars annually over the same period. This situation has brought with it opportunities and challenges. More than 46 000 people are now directly employed by tourism in businesses like game ranching, tour operations and the hospitality sector (WTTC, 2011). Zimbabwe has a high biological diversity which forms the basis of its tourist attractions.

The increasing investments in tourism may cause adverse effects of developments in biodiversity and loss of wildlife. It is therefore imperative that communities living next to tourist attractions be educated so that they practise eco-tourism or sustainable tourism as a matter of priority.
1.1 Background to study

Tourism in Zimbabwe contributes significantly to the economy in terms of employment creation and support to the country’s balance of payments. ZTA (2012) reports that, the tourism and hospitality industry is Zimbabwe’s third largest foreign currency earner after 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 of world tourism in the 1960’s. Zimbabwe’s tourism gradually took off at this period, especially after the promulgation of the Hotels Act in 1968 when many hotels were refurbished in anticipation of grading. A new significant attraction Lake Kariba was built in 1958. Figure 1.1 below shows the tourist arrivals to Zimbabwe since 1964.

![Tourist Arrivals Graph](chart.png)

**Figure 1.1: Tourist arrivals 1964-2012**

Source: 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 independence. After independence arrival figures to Zimbabwe peaked in 1999 only to steadily decline thereafter. The figures 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 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 ought 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 as a means 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.

1.2 Statement of the problem
The development of tourism in Zimbabwe is based on the unspoilt 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 materialising 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 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, as well as training for local communities.

1.3 Research objectives

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 as well as protection and preservation of biodiversity.

1.4 Research questions

The following research questions will guide the research as they are intended to find whether the objectives are being achieved.

1. How can schools and local communities be empowered to get the maximum socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits from the integrated and multiple uses of their natural resources?

2. What forms of contracts can institutionalised and regulatory guidelines take among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities?

3. What are the eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities and how the negative impacts be minimised?

4. How can schools and local communities be empowered to manage their environment and market their products so as to strengthen their cultural roots?
1.5 Hypothesis
A holistic approach to tourism education at primary school level coupled with tourism training for communities would empower learners with the necessary skills and zeal to practise sustainable tourism developments in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Significance of the study
Results from this research can be used to:

- design the education curriculum for primary school learners as well as the training curriculum for local community learners in Zimbabwe;
- form a basis for the creation of a secondary school education curriculum in tourism;
- empower schools and local communities to appreciate, promote and reap maximum benefits from best practices in sustainable tourism;
- create an educational product that appreciates and promotes sustainable tourism in the community and for school children; and
- advance the frontiers of knowledge thereby providing frameworks for further academic research for use by the academic community, policy makers and development partners.

1.7 Limitations of the study
A number of challenges were encountered during the course of data collection for the study:

- Although appointments for interviews were always made in advance, some of the high ranking officials from government were not always available for the interviews at the agreed times. The researcher had to make further appointments.
Now and again interviews would be interrupted.
Organisations like the Environmental Management Agency would insist on prescribing for the researcher on who to interview, a custom and practice that limited the random selection of respondents.
Some of the data were collected during election time causing some respondents to be cautious. As a result five interviews with local community leaders failed to materialise.

1.8 Conclusion
Indisputably, natural resources and biodiversity must be well-looked-after for posterity. Tourism development will accrue benefits for communities today. The need to balance sustainability of natural resources and growth of tourism is therefore unquestionable. There exists a gap in the development of tourism and the economic imperatives that are derived out of this development that leaves the local communities and the surrounding environment otherwise at a loss. As the emphasis is on sustainable development, this gap can only be bridged through education and training of tourism and hospitality in schools and communities adjoining tourism resorts. This education and training will be enhanced through the development of a tourism curriculum for primary school learners and significant tourism training for local communities.

The next chapter will contain a critical review of the literature surrounding this study. Literature gaps are identified and presented and synthesised leading to a conceptualisation of the research model/framework which will be the basis for chapter three. The research plan is as follows:

CHAPTER 1
Introduction
Chapter one examines the background to the study, statement of the research problem, the research objectives, the research questions, hypothesis and significance of the study.

CHAPTER 2
**Literature Review**

Chapter two explores and reviews various sources of literature relating to the following concepts: tourism growth and sustainability, education curricula, ecotourism and community empowerment, heritage protection, preservation and use, community participation, ownership and tourism resources management. Literature gaps are identified, presented and synthesised.

**CHAPTER 3**

**Model**

Chapter three on model represents assumptions about the relationship of player – variables in the real world and how they interact with other variables under study. It is built on knowledge on variable relationships solely based on beliefs and assumptions. A model on the improvement of a tourism curriculum for primary schools and communities together with the requisite tourism development is presented.

**CHAPTER 4**

**Research Methodology**

Chapter four presents the research methodology, the quantitative and qualitative approaches used and their advantages and disadvantages. The population, sample, and sampling techniques used are detailed and the methods used in data gathering for the current study are specified. Data collection instruments are indicated together with an explanation on how the collected data are analysed.

**CHAPTER 5**

**Empirical Evidence and Findings**

Chapter five provides the empirical evidence and findings from the fieldwork. In this chapter the hypothesis/proposition is tested and discussed.

**CHAPTER 6**

**Analysis and Discussion**
Chapter six provides an interpretation and analysis and discussion of the findings and the build-up to the recommendations from the study.

CHAPTER 7

Recommendations and Conclusion

Chapter seven presents the recommendations and conclusion drawn from the study. Areas for further research are discussed and recommended in this last chapter.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2 Introduction
The previous chapter depicted the importance of a critical review of literature surrounding tourism education in schools and communities. This chapter explores and reviews various sources of literature relating to the following concepts: tourism growth and sustainability, education curricula, ecotourism and community empowerment, heritage protection, preservation and use, community training, ownership and tourism resources management.

2.1 Definition of tourism
Tourism is a global multidimensional, multifaceted, economic activity encompassing many different sectors and involving travel for recreational, leisure or business purposes (Doswell, 1997). The five fundamental sectors of the tourism industry are the hospitality sector made up of accommodations and restaurants, the entertainment sector which includes sports, recreation, bars and night clubs, the transportation sector, comprising airlines, coach services and railways, the travel services sector, and the culture sector encompassing traditional heritage, music, cuisine, arts and crafts (Cooper et al., 1998).

After exploring the multitude of existing definitions of tourism from a wide variety of scholars, emerging as very encompassing is the definition as presented by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UN-WTO) which recognises tourism as comprising the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year and whose main purpose of travel is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited, for leisure, business or other personal reasons (UN-WTO, 1991). This definition nevertheless fails to identify the nature of tourist activity. However, the International Association of
Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) have included tourist activities in their definition and argue that, tourism may be defined in terms of particular activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home environment. Hence the terms: sports tourism; education tourism and adventure tourism; can be used to categorise tourism. De Groote (1995) disputes the idea of overnight stays being necessarily part of tourism and asserts that tourism may or may not involve overnight stays away from home. De Groote’s idea incorporates the concept of leisure into the tourism definition.

It is widely acknowledged that tourism underpins four major important concepts:

- the temporary travel or movement of people to an unusual place or destination with a clear intention of returning home within a short space of time;
- their motivation to travel which excludes taking up residence or employment;
- it is a sector of the economy or an industry; and
- it involves a broad system of interacting relationships of people – visitors and hosts and the travel trade meeting, the needs of those travellers (MacCannell, 1996).

Doswell (1997) examines three ways of looking at the tourism experience: what happens before leaving home – making the purchase, what happens on the way – the journey, departing and arriving and what happens at the destination – the experience and memories created. While tourism is widely perceived as a set of business activities or movements of people, it is also a social phenomenon; people travel from place to place, and so do their cultures (Rojek and Urry, 1997). This clearly has an impact on the locals in the destination and their involvement as a result of the tourism development process.

Middleton (2001) identifies four striking aspects of tourism that make it unique:

a) The product is invisible and cannot be tried out before purchase, as a result of the intangibility nature of the product;

b) It is consumed where and when it is produced, bringing in the idea of inseparability of the product;

c) The place and people where it is produced are part and parcel of the product; and
d) Demand for the product fluctuates between seasons of the year.

Page and Connell (2009) add a further dimension that tourism development has led to a deterioration of environmental quality, the environment being the natural and social worlds. This calls for a need for the locals where the tourism products are produced and consumed to play a distinctive role in the maintenance of the product itself. Given the complexity, sensitivity and diversity of players involved with the tourist experience, the economic, environmental, cultural, spiritual and aesthetic values of the destinations need to be carefully monitored, and an optimum balance created between economic growth, sustainable development, environmental conservation and protection (Krippendorf, 1987). Tourism is therefore a global, vibrant economic activity encompassing many different sectors involving travel for recreational, leisure, education or business purposes. Although visitors inevitably gain a fulfilling experience through tourism, and the operators maximise on their equity returns, what is lacking is a guarantee to equitable access to benefits, derived from natural resources by the locals within the vicinity of the tourist resort areas and destination. It seems education at schools and community level will provide an answer to ensuring such distribution of benefits to the locals.

2.1.1 The growth of tourism
Tourism has been described as the world’s largest industry (Goeldner and Richie, 2003). The UNWTO (2013) World Tourism Barometer reports that international tourist arrivals grew by 4% in 2012 to reach 1.035 billion registering an additional 39 million international tourists, up from 996 million in 2011. International tourist arrivals surpassed one billion (1.035 billion) for the first time in history and the world body forecasts that 1.5 billion people are expected to travel yearly by 2020. The average international tourist receipt is US$700 per person. In terms of economic contributions, the World Travel and Tourism Council (2012) estimates that travel and tourism represents about 10% of total global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) realising US$919 billion in export earnings and creating approximately 10% of world employment accounting for more than 255 million jobs. Zimbabwe occupies position 55 having registered 2.5 million arrivals in 2011 where
France tops with 78.4 million followed by USA 57.9 million, Spain 57.3 million, China 53 million, Italy 42 million and UK 30.1 million arrivals annually (UNWTO, 2013).

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country located in Southern Africa, between the Zambezi and Limpopo rivers. It is bordered by South Africa to the south, Botswana to the southwest, Zambia and a tip of Namibia to the northwest and Mozambique to the east. The top tourist attractions include the Victoria Falls among other attractions comprising a wide variety of national Parks, Lake Kariba, Bulawayo and the Eastern Highlands. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA, 2011), reported that in 2010 the country earned US$770 million from 2.3 million international arrivals, up from US$523 million and two million arrivals recorded in 2009. The major source markets are the USA, UK, Germany and China. The World Travel and Tourism Council WTTC (2011) estimates the tourism industry to directly support 26,000 jobs, which account for 2.6 percent of total employment in the country. This figure is forecast to rise by 5.6 percent per year to 46,000 by 2021. Zimbabwe is ranked number 33 in the world for natural resources overall and number 117th in most likely travel destinations where South Africa ranks 60th and Africa’s strongest performer Mauritius ranks 41st overall.

2.1.2 Forms of tourism

The six major forms of tourism shown in Figure 2.1 below are:

![Figure 2.1: Major forms of tourism](image)

*Adapted from: Doswell, 1997.*
Domestic tourism involves residents visiting in their own country, but not staying for more than six months in the place visited. Inbound tourism, on the other hand encompasses non-residents visiting a country other than their own and outbound tourism, residents visiting other countries. Internal tourism comprises domestic and inbound tourism, whilst a combination of domestic and outbound tourism comprises national tourism and a combination of inbound and outbound tourism results in international tourism (Doswell, 1997).

All travellers can be categorised on the one hand into visitors and on the other hand, non-visitors who include soldiers on manoeuvre, migrants, those people going into special institutions and commuters. The visitors can further be divided into excursionists, who are visiting for less than a day and not using accommodation, and tourists, who overnight and use either private or commercial accommodation in the place visited (Cooper et al., 1998). The UN-WTO (1991) further defines an international tourist as a person who spends more than 24 hours in a country other than that in which he/she has usual residence, for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited.

2.2 Types of tourism

2.2.1 Sustainable tourism

Swarbrooke (1999) notes that all forms of tourism that respect both the visitors and the hosts, together with their cultural heritage and biodiversity fall under the realm of sustainable tourism. He adds that sustainable tourism attempts to make as low an impact on the environment and local culture as possible, while helping to generate future employment for local people. The aim of sustainable tourism is to ensure that tourism development brings a positive experience for local people, tourism companies and the tourists themselves. Sustainable tourism implies responsible tourism that is sensitive to its environment or surroundings. Hence it can also be termed ecotourism as observed by Wight (1993), Honey and Gilpin (2009) and Mawere and Mubaya (2012).
The concept of sustainability and tourism development can be traced as far back as 1980 when the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) published the world Conservation Strategy which promoted sustainable development in tourism. The publication “Our Common Future” by The World Commission on Environment and Development (1987), defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the needs of future generations”. Now being counted among the fastest growing industries which comprise, crude oil and petroleum products, the automobile and spare parts and the information technology industries, tourism has also become a global phenomenon. Tourists who promote sustainable tourism are sensitive to the local cultures and environments and seek to protect tourist destinations. Sustainable tourists aim to reduce the negative impact of tourism in many ways (Page and Connell, 2009):

- informing themselves about the culture, politics and economy of the communities of and in the places visited;
- anticipating and respecting local cultures, expectations and assumptions;
- contributing to intercultural understanding and tolerance;
- supporting the integrity of local cultures by favouring businesses which conserve cultural heritage and traditional values;
- supporting local economies by purchasing local goods and participating with small, local businesses; and
- conserving resources by seeking out businesses that are environmentally conscious, and by using the least possible amount of non-renewable resources.

The distribution of benefits has also been a problem with most of the revenues collected ending up in the coffers of rural district councils. Petersen (1991) states that communities have no idea whether the revenues they receive are as a result of their complaints about wildlife and tourists or whether they are due to the presence of wildlife and tourists. For this reason, he advocates for further decentralisation of appropriate authorities to ward or village level. This situation calls for a study to establish ways and means of paying the communities. Murphree (1991) warns that communities can become effective institutions
for sustainable resource management only if they are granted genuine proprietorship. In order to fill up this gap, this study seeks to find ways of ensuring the granting of effective proprietorship to local communities. Murphree (1991) reiterates that, any policy which excludes genuine proprietorship will most likely frustrate the goal of making communities effective institutions for resource management. To enable the communities to take up ownership of community projects, there is need to empower these communities to be in a position to manage their resources. There is need to educate and train these communities so that they can perform efficiently and effectively. Plainly, studies to enhance and create new models to assist in the operation of future community based eco- and cultural tourism projects are long overdue.

2.2.1.1 Sustainable tourism and renewable energy use

Tourism development involves the use of physical and natural resources and will subsequently impact upon the economies, cultures and ecology of the destinations it develops in (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Energy resources are crucial components of the livelihood of the ecosystem including the human being, particularly the tourist who pays for leisure visits. Many greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide, and methane, occur naturally. Over centuries, human activities have added significantly to the level of these naturally occurring gases. Large amounts of these greenhouse gases are produced by the use of non-renewable energy sources such as oil, natural gas and coal. A major source of air pollution within the context of tourism is associated with transport for tourism from the burning of fossil fuels (Holden, 2000). The use of renewable energy is the answer to sustainable tourism as this source has a very low release of carbon dioxide. For a sustainable future, fossil fuels will have to be replaced by renewable energy sources that come either directly or indirectly from natural resources like the sun, wind, rain, biomass fuels, tides and geothermal heat. According to the law of conservation of energy, any form of energy can be converted into another form and the total energy will remain the same. Most renewable energy like sunlight, or solar energy, can be used directly for heating and lighting, for generating electricity, solar cooling, and a variety of commercial and industrial uses. The sun's heat also drives the winds, whose energy is captured with
wind turbines. As the winds and the sun's heat cause water to evaporate, the water vapour turns into rain or snow and flows downhill into rivers or streams, its energy being captured for use as hydroelectric power. Along with the rain and snow, sunlight causes plants to grow. The organic matter that makes up those plants is known as biomass which can be used to produce electricity, transportation fuels, or chemicals. The use of biomass for any of these purposes is called bio energy.

Hydrogen, the most abundant element on earth can be found in many organic compounds, as well as water. But it does not occur naturally as a gas. It's always combined with other elements, such as with oxygen to make water. Once separated from these other elements, hydrogen can be burnt as a fuel and can be used for powering automobiles, heating, cooking and electricity generation.

Geothermal energy taps the earth's internal heat for a variety of uses, including electric power production and the heating and cooling of buildings. The energy of the ocean's tides comes from the gravitational pull of the moon and the sun upon the earth. In addition to tidal energy, there is the energy of the ocean's waves which are driven by both the tides and the winds. The sun also warms the surface of the ocean more than the ocean depths, creating a temperature difference that can be used as an energy source. All these forms of ocean energy can be used to produce electricity. Renewable energy technologies can be used as a leverage to assess the compatibility between renewable energy sources and sustainable tourism development. As people consume more energy resources that provide tourism attractions and habitat to tourism wildlife, bio-diversity is removed. As more bio-diversity is removed tourism becomes unsustainable leading to unsustainable development (http://www.conserve-energy-future.com accessed 9 Feb 2012).

Reviewed literature reveals that studies already carried out on sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe, 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. There is now a need to encourage policies that ensure use of renewable energies in tourism as a measure to preserve and
protect the environment. People should therefore be educated and their attitudes changed to conserve and protect energy and woodlands. Renewable energies can be employed to (http://www.un.org/esa/earthsummit/zimbab-c.htm, accessed 10 Feb 2012):

- develop and disseminate tools and materials to change SMEs, tourism operations and hotels management actions and investment decisions in their use of energy;
- promote the exchanges of know-how and experiences between airlines, tour agencies, tour operations and hotels as energy users, suppliers and manufacturers;
- raise awareness of tour operators, transport providers and hotel managers, decision-makers, staff and consumers of the benefits of using renewable energies; and
- stimulate the establishment of networks committed to the dissemination and promotion of energy efficiency and the use of renewable energy sources.

Implementation of policies that encourage the use of renewable energies calls for the education of local communities on the importance and use of these energies.

Karagiorgas, Tsoutsos, Drosou, Pouffary, Pagano, Lopez, and Mendes, (2006) argue that employee and community education can be done effectively through total commitment to the environment by all:

- standard operating procedures in the hotels and tour operations ought to include correct and best practices regarding different departments;
- through setting targets, involving and then encouraging employees to meet them;
- to ensure training of staff on issues related to the environment such as greenhouse gas emissions, water shortage, energy and the initiatives taken by the tour operators or hotels regarding these;
- community development accompanied by the participation of surrounding communities, suppliers and service providers, who promote the economic, social and cultural growth; and
- greening the supply chain, through either purchasing from firms that are equally environment responsive or setting clauses that result in efficient practices.
2.2.1.2 Sustainable tourism and wood energy use

Tourism just like any other industry and households in the country is not spared from the use of wood energy. The National Energy Balance (2000) as provided by the Government of Zimbabwe to the 5th Session of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development shows use of energy in Zimbabwe as 53% wood fuel, 20% coal, 14% liquid fuel and 13% electricity. As a part of Zimbabwe’s National Strategy for the Sustainable Management of Forests, existing programmes need to be strengthened to address the problem of deforestation through:

- improved environmentally sound harvesting practices;
- enhancement of forestation programmes;
- increased agro forestry activities;
- promotion of non-consumptive use of forest resources;
- value added secondary processing of forest products at the community level;
- increasing the capacity of the Forestry Commission in monitoring deforestation and changes in the vegetation cover;
- more support for the Schools and Colleges Tree Growing and Tree Care Programmes as part of the National Tree Planting Programme;
- increasing production of tree seedlings at community based nurseries, in line with the strategy to decentralize this activity and to involve communities in reforestation; and
- supporting the work of the NGO-based working groups on woodlands.

To ensure their cooperation, there is need to include local and indigenous communities in planning, development and operation relating to use of renewable energy. Obviously, there is need to develop quantifiable economic models that link landscape, tourist features, woodlands and human populations. These models must factor in the consumptive and non-consumptive values and benefits of forest resource products and renewable types of energy that are used by communities. To ensure their effective participation, the communities themselves need to be educated about these benefits and also in respect of values related to forestation and tourism developments. On the other
hand, the use of renewable energy resources ought to contribute to the well-being of local and indigenous communities in order for it to be acceptable and sustainable.

2.2.2 Ecotourism

Ecotourism is a newer phenomenon premised on the variables of conservation and education definitions. It is one of the most common forms of sustainable tourism that involves visiting natural areas in remote wilderness or rural environments. According to the definition and principles of ecotourism established by The International Ecotourism Society (1990) ecotourism includes, "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people." (TIES, 1990). The Society emphasises that ecotourism is about ‘uniting conservation, communities, and sustainable travel.’ This means that those who implement and participate in ecotourism activities should follow the following ecotourism principles:

- minimise impact on the environment;
- build environmental and cultural awareness and respect;
- provide constructive quality experiences for both visitors and hosts;
- trigger the provision of financial resources for conservation;
- make available economic benefits and empowerment for local people; and
- raise sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental and social climate.

Honey (2008) expands on the TIES definition by describing more characteristics of ecotourism, which include: involving travel to natural destinations; respecting local culture; and supporting human rights and democratic movements in terms of travel. Indeed this presupposes that taking a game drive through Hwange National Park is not necessarily ecotourism unless that particular drive somehow benefits the Park and the locals living in the park’s vicinity. Ceballos-Lascuran (1983) focuses on the importance of natural areas and unbundled ecotourism as travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas. He reiterates that, ecotourism also seeks to reduce the visitors’ impact on the area visited and contributes to the conservation of natural areas and development of adjacent communities and nearby populations. Benefits to the local
communities include economic developments which create employment and opportunities for entrepreneurship for locals, environmental benefits providing improved social infrastructure for residents, and socio-cultural benefits which enhance better cultural understanding and improved social infrastructure for residents.

The most popular ecotourism destinations are spread out in Central and South America, Canada, USA, Australia, Kenya and South Africa. A study of Amboseli National Park in Kenya determined that a lion there was worth US$27 000 and elephant herd US$610 000 in tourist revenue per year (Hasler, 1996). Concurring with Hasler, Swarbrooke (1999), Page (2002), citing the case of The Galapagos Islands and Thailand respectively, argue however, that ecotourism based activities often lead to a deterioration in environmental quality as today’s ecotourism can easily become tomorrow’s mass market tourism product. Wood and House (1991) outline broad categories of tourism impacts ranging from inappropriate development, loss of habitat and effects on wildlife, pollution, extinction of species and loss of spirit. Butler (1980) identifies the evolution of resorts or destinations through his tourist area life cycle where resorts experience various stages of evolution from exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, decline and rejuvenation. This model provides a useful insight into understanding how destinations evolve and have to cater for different categories of tourists at each stage of the life cycle and that tourism will impact negatively on the destination if proper management decisions are not met. Evidently, a community-based approach to ecotourism ought to recognise and promote both the quality of life of locals and the conservation of resources, through compensating people for the loss of access to resources they suffer when wildlife parks are created and when animals invade their fields. The Narok Country Council which has jurisdiction over the Masai Mara park puts money into a trust fund which is used to fund schools, cattle dips and health services which benefit the entire community (Sindiga, 1995). In New Zealand, meanwhile, Maori communities are using ecotourism as a means of sustainably utilising physical resources at their disposal in a way which can provide employment options. Woodwood (1997) however comments that there was little commitment to supporting the rights of indigenous peoples to benefit from their traditional lands and wildlife in South African
ecotourism ventures. Education in the field of tourism at schools and community level will boost the locals’ appreciation of developments in ecotourism.

2.2.3 Cultural, Heritage and Historic tourism
According to Richards (2001) cultural, heritage and historic tourism describes all tourist trips to experience places and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present encompassing historic, cultural and natural resource. LORD Cultural Resources Planning and Management (1999:3) adds that this type of tourism encompasses visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific, lifestyle or heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution. Culture can be tangible in the form of buildings and artefacts or intangible in terms of people’s values, attitudes and way of life (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Mathieson and Wall (1982), UNESCO (2000: 2) further argue that culture is the ‘conditioning elements of behaviour and the products of that behaviour’ such that it can be seen in many forms including buildings, areas, dance, food, dress, events, values, lifestyles and handicrafts.

Cultural heritage does not end at monuments and collections of objects, but includes intangible and verbal traditions as well as customs inherited from descendants passed on to their children, in the form of manners, activities, drama, visual arts, festive events, protocols and conventions vis-à-vis fauna and flora including skills to produce traditional crafts, music and dance UNESCO, 2011). Linking tourism and cultural heritage can enhance the preservation and protection of heritage and culture at the same time ensuring economic and other benefits like employment creation, new businesses and higher property values for tourism and the local communities (Sharpley, 1994). Doswell (1997) adds that such tourism can stimulate initiatives to trigger conservation and enhancement of the environment as there maybe society-wide improvements in income, employment opportunities, education, local infrastructure and services. There exists a symbiotic relationship between the combination of tourism development and cultural preservation and protection resulting in a number of challenges to be addressed:

- maintaining and conserving the cultural heritage;
achieving a better state of economic and social wellbeing for all sectors of a community;
providing the tourist with a quality experience;
maintaining unspoilt nature; and
achieving sustainable tourism development (Mueller, 1994).
Sharpley (1994) concurs and argues that cultural heritage tourism results in the enhancement of the following attributes of sustainable development:

the perpetuation and fortification of cultural resources;
meaningful elucidation of resources;
authentic visitor experiences; and
the incentive to raise economic benefits from cultural resources.

It is therefore clear, that cultural heritage tourism is fundamentally apprehensive about the identification, preservation, management and protection of heritage values. Furthermore, it is also concerned with accommodating the impact of tourism on communities and regions, fostering social benefits, providing financial resources for protection, as well as marketing and promotion. Indeed this presupposes that it is necessary to educate the local communities about tourism development vis. a vis. protection and conservation of cultural heritage.

2.2.4 Education Tourism

The term education tourism or edu-tourism refers to any "programme in which participants travel to a location individually or as a group with the primary purpose of engaging in a learning experience directly related to the location" (Bodger, 1998: 28). It has its origins in the Grand Tours of the 17th and 18th centuries where young English elites often spent two to four years travelling around Europe in an effort to broaden their horizons learning languages, architecture, geography and culture. The term Grand Tour was coined by Richard Lassels (1670) in his travel Guide book involving trips from England to Italy. Grand tours heading mostly to Paris, Rome and Venice were risky, daunted by sea-sickness, illnesses, and sometimes robberies and shipwrecks. The institution of the Grand tour was unpopular at home because it involved large expenditures of money abroad although grand tours are given credit for the dramatic improvements in British architecture and
culture (Town, 1985). Today, education tourism is comprised of several sub-types including ecotourism, heritage tourism, rural or farm tourism and student ex-changes between educational institutions. The notion of modern travelling for educational purposes is widely acknowledged (Gibson, 1998; Holdnak and Holland, 1996; Kalinowski & Weiler, 1992) and its popularity in the tourism market is only expected to increase.

2.2.5 Sport Tourism
Weed and Bull (2004) categorise sport tourism as a segment of special interest tourism where the desire to pursue sports activities at the destination is the major motivation to travel. They argue that travellers generally have more reasons to travel than one although one motive may play a more dominant role than others and in the case of sport tourism; sports-related motivations supplement the generic tourism ones. Hall (1992) states that sport tourism falls into two categories and these are travel to participate in sport and travel to observe sport. Therefore, sport tourism may be defined as travel for non-commercial reasons to participate or observe sporting activities away from the home range. It can however occur while a person is travelling for business or commercial reasons. This gives rise to three domains of sport tourism: active sport tourism, which refers to people who travel to take part in sport; event sport tourism, which refers to travel to watch a sport event; and nostalgia sport tourism, which includes visits to sports museums, famous sports venues, and sports themed cruises.

2.3 Zimbabwe Education System

2.3.1 Basic Education
Zimbabwe’s basic education system comprises the Early Childhood Education made up of ECD “A” for the 3-4 year olds; and ECD “B” for the 4-5 year olds encompassing the pre-school level of education. The Primary Education level is for 6 – 12 year old children lasting 7 years. Secondary Education comprises 2-years of Junior Secondary education, a 2-year Ordinary Level education and finally, a 2-year Advanced Level education. Government determines and provides the school subject areas. Schools select subject
areas from the curriculum and subject syllabi are prepared by the Curriculum Development Unit. Schools are specialised educational communities assisting the family in the education of the child and introducing the child to the wider world (UNESCO International Bureau of Education 2001).

2.3.2 Tertiary and higher education

Tertiary and higher education encompasses universities, polytechnics, teacher training colleges, technical colleges, and vocational skills training centres. In addition, there are privately owned institutions, offering predominantly commercial based programmes. Principally three-year training programmes at specialist training colleges awarding Diplomas in Education are open to trainee teachers throughout the country. A wide variety of registered institutions with the Ministry of Higher Education also offer technical / vocational education.

In a bid to buttress the local skills base, government predominantly invested heavily in skills training programmes with the support of local authorities (UNESCO 2001: 11). These programmes were specially designed following consultations with local communities making them relevant and serviceable within the local communities where they were launched. During programme implementation government availed the technical expertise and human resources required for the training exercise, while local authorities provided the infrastructure together with the additional staff and the private sector working in conjunction with the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF) subsidised the construction and refurbishment of the training centres.

2.4 Curriculum development

Curricula generally specify the main learning content expected to take place during a course or programme of study in terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, teaching methodologies and assessment methods. This means that the curricula outline what all children must learn in accordance with their special interests and circumstances. The national curriculum provides for the intellectual, moral, physical and social training of the child based on the existing and future essentials, goals and objectives of the nation or
society at large. Specifically, the curriculum assures individual and national achievement via the acknowledgement and appreciation of the different capabilities and requirements of learners (Kurasha and Chabaya, 2013). This explanation assumes that learning is planned and guided and curriculum theory and practice emerged in the school in relation to other schooling ideas such as ‘subject’ and ‘lesson’.

2.4.1 Learning Domains of Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* was developed in the late 1940s as a framework for classifying statements of what educators expect or intend students to learn as a result of instruction. Since the publication of the original taxonomy in 1956, the traditional education was designed to revolve around this taxonomy based on the attainment of knowledge and skills. Bloom (1956) saw the original Taxonomy as more than a measurement tool. He believed it could serve as a:

- common language about learning goals to facilitate communication across persons, subject matter and grade levels;
- basis for determining a particular course or curriculum the specific meaning of broad educational goals, such as those found in the currently prevalent national, state and local standards;
- means for determining the congruence of educational objectives, activities, and assessments in a unit, course, or curriculum; and
- panorama of the range of educational possibilities against which the limited breadth and depth of any particular educational course or curriculum could be contrasted.

The original Taxonomy provided carefully developed definitions for each of the six major categories in the cognitive domain which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities. The categories were *Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis* and *Evaluation* (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). Aims for schools have also commonly been written in the form of affective domain which refers to aspects of human development which include non-cognitive, *emotions, aesthetic sense, attitudes, values, beliefs* and the
spectrum of value systems. Basing on Bloom’s cognitive and affective domains, schools prepare students to accept their social responsibilities as members of a democratic society. Furthermore, students learn and acquire the knowledge and develop skills, values and attitudes which will enable them to contribute to society as active, informed and confident citizens. Curricula provide a basis for personal fulfillment and prepare students for coping with today’s dynamic, changing society and for enhancing their employability. With a curriculum theory that is student-centred, it will not be appropriate to presume that a subject should have a place in the school curriculum simply because it represents a traditional academic discipline, imparts specific knowledge and skills or develops a set of key employment related competencies. Rather, the justification of its place requires an explanation of how it contributes in both general and distinctive ways to the personal development of students and society (Castles and Rossiter, 1983).

If the evident concern of a school is to develop language, mathematical, scientific and other academic and vocational abilities, and if there is no comparable study of culture, language, traditional customs and tourism, then the absence of attention to these areas can alert young people that there is no educational interest in the way they perceive their visitors, environment and their heritage. This can take care of itself, or it will happen incidentally while the 'real' education goes on.

The psychomotor domain includes those aspects of learning associated with movement and skill demonstration and integrates the cognitive and affective consequences with physical performances.

2.4.2 Curriculum Development Unit
The Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) plans, designs, develops and monitors implementation of curricula through research and consultation with stakeholders. Stakeholders comprise of teachers, school heads, education officers, government institutions, Examinations Councils, Civil society, Commerce and Industry. The Unit also provides orientation for teachers on the approaches to teaching. Evidently, there is
growing realisation on the need to institutionalise participation of parents and communities, civil society, industry and commerce in the processes of curriculum development. This is critical if the protection of biodiversity and tourism is to become a priority. The development of the curriculum without fail should involve parents and communities, industry and commerce and also be designed to address issues of attitudes, behaviours and conduct in matters relating to tourist activities and protection of the environment. Undeniably, the Curriculum Development Unit needs to foster much closer ties with the tourism and hospitality industry to enable it to incorporate values related to sustainable development and environmental protection and preservation.

2.4.3 School curricula in Zimbabwe
The Ministry of Education Sport, Arts and Culture designs, develops and has since localised the school curricula for primary and secondary education. The aims of this school curriculum are geared towards implementing national goals of:

- improving literacy and creating a strong scientific and technological base through the introduction of Mathematics and Science;
- intensifying the technical/vocational curriculum to link education with entrepreneurship and production;
- equipping learners with skills for survival and appropriately preparing them to cope with future challenges in the fast changing technological areas;
- promoting preserving and protecting indigenous culture through the teaching and learning of languages;
- producing responsible citizens who appropriately participate in family, national and societal activities with due diligence and morality;
- consolidating skills related to problem-solving; and
- augmenting cultural identity, fostering diversity, national pride and the preservation of Zimbabwe’s heritage and national unity (Moesac, 2011)

A school term has between 12 and 13 weeks totalling from 36 to 39 weeks a year. At primary level class periods normally last for 30 minutes while they take a little longer lasting for 40 minutes at secondary school level.
The pre-school curriculum focuses on educative play that encompasses the curriculum areas with subject areas that also include the development of communication skills as well as health and nutrition.

Learners are expected to have acquired proficiency, aptitudes and competencies by the time they graduate from primary school in the chosen subject areas as described below:

- **Literacy, Language & Communication:** English, Shona, Ndebele, Kalanga, Venda, Tonga, Tschangana, Sesotho and Nambya

- **Numeracy:** Mathematics,

- **Science and technology:** Environmental Science, Social Studies, Home Economics, Art, Music, Computers,

- **Ethics and citizenship:** Religious and Moral Education, Peace Education, HIV/AIDS & Life Skills Education

- **Practical skills:** Co-curricular Activities, Agriculture, Physical Education

At secondary school level up to O-level, the curriculum consists of five groups of subjects namely:

- **Group 1 Languages:** English, and either Shona or Ndebele, and French

- **Group 2 Sciences:** Integrated Science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Physical Science, Human and Social Biology

- **Group 3 Mathematics:** Statistics, Additional Mathematics, Mathematics

- **Group 4 Human and Social Studies:** Literature in English, Geography, History, Bible knowledge, Religious and Moral Education, Sociology, Economics

At A-level the curriculum consists of the following subjects:


Health, Peer Education, Civic Education, Guidance and Counselling, Gender Equity and Tourism and Hospitality are generally not integrated into the curriculum. However syllabi for Guidance and Counselling and Civic Education have since been drafted and await implementation in the average school.

UNESCO (2001) note that the current curriculum in Zimbabwe needs a review to reinforce it in terms of building individuals with entrepreneurial skills and aspirations who are responsible, ethical, productive and self-sustaining citizens. Clearly there are essential specific skills and competencies embedded in school curricula which learners develop when they take the basic core subjects including:

- a mother language and communication skills;
- mathematics and computations;
- sciences and technologies;
- aesthetics and originality;
- entrepreneurship; and
- ethics and good citizenship.

(Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture, 2011)

### 2.4.4 Function of the Curriculum Development Unit in Zimbabwe

The curriculum establishes the permissible basis for the advance of basic teaching and most learning activities. In Zimbabwe it is developed by the CDU whose main function is
to transform government policies guiding primary and secondary education into smart objectives, programmes and activities.

Curriculum development by the CDU targets the following objectives:

- an appropriate, judicious development and review of syllabi;
- suitable teaching and learning materials that support the syllabi;
- creative teaching and interactive methodologies between teacher and learner;
- proper organisation of courses on curricular matters;
- relevant testing and evaluation of the curriculum; and
- useful research into curricular issues. (Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture, 2011)

In the wider sense, curriculum development prepares individuals and communities for future employment. This implies the need for the curriculum to encompass industry values and objectives. The foremost objective of model of curriculum development takes as its major premise the idea that all learning should be defined in respect of what students should be able to do after studying the programme, in terms of learning outcomes or learning objectives (Harden, Crosby and Davis, 1991). It forms part of what is generally believed to be the outcomes-based education. Here educators concentrate on what their learners will do and as a result they organise their curricula accordingly. On the other hand, the process model assumes that content and learning activities have an intrinsic value and are not just a means of achieving learning objectives. Stenhouse (1975) argued in favour of four fundamental processes of education:

- training - involving skills acquisition;
- instruction - enhancing information acquisition;
- initiation - fostering familiarisation with social norms and values; and
- induction - based on thinking and problem solving.

He claimed that behavioural objectives were only important in the first two processes and that in initiation and induction it would not be possible to use objectives. The spiral curriculum, is one in which learning is seen as a developing process with active
reinforcement as one shifts from the more simple ‘building blocks’ to understanding complex principles, a shift from ‘novice’ to ‘expert’. The key aspects of a curriculum are:

- its aims;
- learning outcomes/objectives (knowledge, skills and attitudes);
- its content;
- the necessary and applicable teaching and learning methods;
- the assessment methods; and
- the supporting elements.

The supporting elements of the curricula are:

- learning resources (teachers, support staff, funding, book and IT support);
- monitoring and evaluation procedures;
- recruitment and selection procedures, including promotional materials and attachments in the case of adult learners; and
- student support and guidance mechanisms.

Besides preparing them for the transition from school to sustainable careers in the tourism industry, learners have the opportunity to learn and practise from an early age the technical and applied skills relating to specific occupations in the diversified tourism career field. The diverse sectors of the tourism industry are, accommodations, restaurants, recreation and entertainment, transportation, travel services, sport and culture which offer unlimited career options or employability.

Other goals include helping learners to apply basic numeric, literacy and other fundamental skills in a context, focused to careers in tourism.

Learners can develop aptitudes and interests with the lifestyle made possible by a career in tourism and gain the specific knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to be successful in tourism workplaces.

The curriculum mirrors the priorities which the country sets on things such as the personal worth of an individual, the rights of minorities, the ethical and moral values and respect for others and the environment.
By examining students in only a few subjects, English, Shona, Mathematics and Content, at the seventh grade, the impression is gained that the rest of the subjects on offer that are not examined, music, art, culture and environment are of inferior status and students’ attitudes to these subjects become problematic. When tourism comes on board, it might easily fall into this category if it is not examined.

A primary school tourism curriculum will facilitate and prepare students for direct transition to appropriate secondary and tertiary Tourism and Hospitality programmes. Such a curriculum will also pave the way for the development of tourism and hospitality programmes in the secondary and tertiary education arenas.

2.4.5 International Curriculum Designs in tourism

The curriculum forms a suitable basis for the improvement of basic teaching and standard learning activities. In order for the curriculum to be effective, it should respond to the needs of society and individuals. Its development process therefore, ought to involve an interface among learners, parents, government officials, heads of schools, education officers, the examinations council, subject specialists, teachers in colleges, universities, commerce and industry.

In Germany the dual education system combines apprenticeships in a company and vocational education at school (German: Berufsschule). The same system is practised in Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Serbia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Denmark, the Netherlands and France. This dual system ensures that industry makes a direct input into education and training.

The Caribbean region is heavily depended on tourism although tourism curricula are
barely available in the Caribbean Islands Schools as shown in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Tourism curricula are hardly available in the Caribbean Islands’ Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Curricula Available</th>
<th>Delivery Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anguilla</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As part of social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aruba</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As a project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antigua &amp; Barbuda</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belize</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bermuda</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonaire</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Virgin Islands</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grenada</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Infusion method used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martinique</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Lucia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad &amp; Tobago</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>As part of social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US Virgin Islands</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Caribbean Tourism Learning System, 2007

There are no tourism curricula available within the various education systems in the region at the Secondary level. Certain aspects of tourism, albeit limited, are however covered in Geography or Social Studies and tourism is one of the modules in the Caribbean Examination Council’s (CXC) Curriculum for Social Studies for Forms 4-5 or Grades 10-11, examinations which are equivalent to the G.C.E. O Level examinations. Tourism and Hospitality studies programmes are offered at tertiary level training institutions across the region. The programmes vary in length and content and can lead to certification at the certificate level, the diploma level, undergraduate and post-graduate degrees. The Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO) spearheaded the setting up of the Caribbean Tourism Human Resource Council (CTHRC) in 1998 and has undertaken to
incorporate the work of this Council into its Human Resource Department. The CTHRC is the regional authority, with the political mandate to set standards for tourism education and training, agree on the programmes and provide the institutional accreditation and programme validation for extra-regional institutions and programmes. The overall goal of the Caribbean Tourism Human Resource Council is to develop and promote a systematic and coordinated approach to human resources planning, research, education and training in Caribbean tourism to meet the demands of a globally competitive tourism environment. Among the key elements of the Caribbean Tourism Learning System are:

- unified core curriculum for different levels of certification at the tertiary level of education;
- use of occupational standards linked to the core curriculum;
- tourism modules for primary and secondary schools; and
- public awareness and career awareness at the secondary school level

(Caribbean Tourism Learning System, 2007).

At universities in the Caribbean, the curriculum studies departments make decisions regarding research, evaluation and the entire curriculum process.

The International Holistic Tourism Education Centre (IHTEC) suggests the introduction of the International School of Peace Gardens curriculum globally. It argues that it would be helpful to implement climate-change curricula that can be delivered to all schools around the world at the same time, stimulating awareness and action. IHTEC has been working on educational initiatives for positive action in communities, such as eco-schools teaching how to clean up and try to never create the same crisis on earth again (Bukhardt, Dyson, Morton-Marr, 2006)

2.4.6 Curriculum designing in Zimbabwe

A research process precedes collection of curriculum materials, where the CDU and its parent ministry, other ministries, research institutes and parastatals are involved. Informal meetings are held with a lot of brainstorming intended to generate decision making data eventually debated at senior management level meetings. All decisions made at various
levels are considered at syllabus review and revision stages. Correspondence with schools is achieved through regular circulars, teacher education guides, workshops and seminars. Implementation of new decisions follows through regular trial testing and evaluation by curriculum developers through returns of routine questionnaires, field interviews and sometimes observations. Besides regular internal monitoring and evaluation, assessments by external assessors are pertinent from time to time carried out on an annual basis.

The Nziramasanga Commission (1999) endorses the view that education should equip the learner with knowledge and skills to respond to life’s challenges appropriately and adjust to social and cultural changes. The Commission agrees that the education philosophy should be based on *Unhu/Ubuntu* which implies a good person morally with such values as honesty, trustworthiness, discipline, accountability, respect for other people and elders, harmony, hospitality, devotion to family and welfare of the community. The commission further concurs that education should be based on a solid cultural foundation using the language which the people understand best for its transmission.

Undoubtedly the role of education is essentially to pass on survival skills to individuals. In so doing it however is also an induction into cultural norms, guiding human relationships and behaviours thereby stimulating character formation. Cultural activities, clubs and lessons, an annual cultural day/festival, art and music, could be channels in search for an identity, guidance, understanding and tolerance to enhance cultural ethics.

There is a need for moral and ethical education curricula that promotes positive values of dignity of work, self-reliance, honesty, justice and respect for life and responsibility for our heritage. Such education should span to include consideration for people living with disabilities and this includes tourists and learning of sign language in schools and communities with tourism.

The National Environmental Policy advocates that a knowledgeable and well-informed public on environmental issues is essential for effective environmental conservation and management (National Environmental Policy and Strategies, 1999). The policy further argues that the Government ought to integrate relevant environment issues into the
national curriculum at all levels and should support educational programmes that increase environmental awareness and public involvement especially among disadvantaged and less literate groups. The policy also calls for the promotion of local languages and drama in environmental education.

2.5 Local Manpower Development
Currently training within the tourism and hospitality industry within the communities is skills based. Education makes a valuable contribution to the development of independent learning skills nationwide and the ability to apply knowledge. It also helps to create interest in the curriculum and ensures high levels of quality and operational standards that prepare students for their future careers.

Pupils who are taught tourism at the primary school age are more likely to become critical perpetuators of the status quo and turn out to be effective and thinking would-be managers ready to change things for the better. Furthermore, they are likely to exhibit improved communication and presentation skills in their encounter with the tourism and hospitality industry. In Zimbabwe there is a process of training local manpower such as waiters and waitresses in hotels, tour guides, game guards, scouts, problem animal reporters and bookkeepers. This is to ensure that locals will look after their own resources. Education will augment such skills and also ensure sustainability in terms of tourism developments

2.6 Institutional development
The Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) seeks to realise the efficient and effective utilisation of wildlife and how wildlife management compliments use of domestic species like cattle ranging and rearing of sheep and goats. International pressure groups and conservationists are however particularly sensitive about Zimbabwe’s policy of hunting and culling elephant populations among other animals as a wildlife management tool. Year in year out, they put pressure on the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) to
oppose hunting or culling of elephants for the international ivory market and other elephant products. Undeniably, defending the killing or culling of elephants as a management tool has proved to be a mammoth task on the international arena and that has impacted negatively on the conservation philosophy, which underpins its sustainable use of the resource by the local communities. Since banning hunting in 1977, Kenya has become one of the most vocal critics against the sale of ivory by Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia and has persistently objected to the delisting of the African elephant from a highly endangered species to that whose population can be managed.

Justifiably, conservationists worldwide are happy to support the concept of sustainable use of natural resources, but when those resources concern majestic animals like elephants and rhinos, local conservationists become remarkably vulnerable to the animal rights lobbyists and CITES.

Although CAMPFIRE is undoubtedly a viable land-use option in combating desertification and enhancing biodiversity conservation, it has not done enough for rural communities with key issues having emerged in the implementation of the programme which requires serious attention in order to enhance the practice of sharing dividends from the programme. One major outstanding issue that easily comes to mind is the problem about tenure. In Zimbabwe, wildlife and biodiversity are considered national or global resources which belong to government. Communal people do not own the land and the wildlife they possess hence their property rights are ill-defined.

Other problematic issues with CAMPFIRE hinge on land use planning and effective management of wildlife and biodiversity. There is need to ensure a multi-dimensional, integrated development approach based upon a ‘bottom-up’ and local community approach in the formation of such protected tourism areas. This can be achieved through the developing of an ecotourism steering committee with members from local communities, chiefs, government officials and tour operators. Without any doubt, members of such committees would perform more effectively if they are educated and
trained in the management and use of biodiversity resources, hence the advocacy for the introduction of tourism in the primary school curricula.

### 2.7 Community based environmental education

Karim, *et al.* (2003) while admitting that most governments of developing countries are not oblivious to the seriousness of the problem of environmental degradation and poverty, they postulate that pragmatism and objectivity are often lacking in tackling these problems. In the case of Community Based Environmental Education for Sustainable Development projects, they examine the introduction of the Comprehensive Village Development Programme (CVDP) for sustainable rural communities in Bangladesh and argue that peoples’ participation as an institutional structure is a stronger alternative than mere governmental poverty alleviation and environmental preservation programmes. They stress that the CVDP, not only empowers the beneficiary groups but also makes these groups of people responsive to the cost of preservation of the environment and entitles them to the benefits emerging there from. They also attribute the success of this programme to the members’ education, people’s participation, local level planning, the sense of belonging to the society, discipline, capital accumulation and its judicious investment in diversified productive activities.

Tourism, when developed sensitively, has the potential to have a positive impact on poverty alleviation. Community-based tourism is often more effective in combating poverty than large scale developments as it requires less investment, fewer business skills and less imported goods than large-scale tourism projects. Pro-poor tourism (PPT) is a new approach to the planning and management of tourism that puts those people living in poverty at the top of the agenda. PPT strategies are concerned with reducing both absolute and relative poverty by providing tourism-related income opportunities for disadvantaged groups.

Community-based tourism (CBT) is a type of sustainable tourism that promotes pro-poor strategies in a community setting. CBT initiatives aim to involve local residents in the running and management of small tourism projects as a means of alleviating poverty and
providing an alternative income source for community members. CBT initiatives also encourage respect for local traditions and culture as well as for natural heritage. Gender issues are very challenging as customarily communities in Zimbabwe are patriarchal, with the male as the household head. Community-based decision-making favours men. The UNWTO (2004) concerned about how poor nutrition lowered worker productivity and motivation, came up with the seven STEP (Sustainable Tourism Eliminating Poverty) mechanisms and recommendations for pro-poor tourism:

- encouragement of employment of the poor in tourism enterprises;
- supply of goods and services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor;
- direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor (informal economy);
- establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor e.g. micro, small and medium sized enterprises, or community based enterprises (formal economy);
- tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor;
- voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists;
- investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support to other sectors.

(http://step.unwto.org/en/content/seven-st-ep-mechanisms)

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature related to sustainable tourism development and schools curriculum developments. The areas of tourism growth and sustainability, education curricula, ecotourism and community empowerment, heritage protection, preservation and use, community participation, ownership and tourism resources management were analysed and literature related to those issues critically reviewed. Markedly, it was noted that a gap exists which advocates for the introduction of tourism education at primary school level and within the communities in Zimbabwe today. This gap can only be bridged through education and training of tourism in schools and communities surrounding tourism resorts. Manifestly, the development of a tourism curriculum for
primary school learners and significant tourism training for local communities is a prerequisite for further development.

The next chapter three, on model represents assumptions about the relationship of player – variables in the real world and how they interact with other variables under study leading to a conceptualisation of the research model/framework for this research.
CHAPTER 3

MODEL

3 Introduction

The previous chapter explored and reviewed literature essentially contiguous with tourism education in primary schools and communities. This chapter conceptualises a model / framework for this research. The concept also elaborates on the variables that include development of an education curriculum for primary schools on the one hand and development of sustainable tourism in communities on the other hand. Other variables investigated in the model are:

- tourism growth and sustainability;
- community empowerment and ecotourism;
- biodiversity consumption and heritage preservation;
- biodiversity and protection of natural resources;
- ownership of fauna and flora and game management;
- tourist attractions management and community involvement; and
- tourism resources utilisation and visitor management.

The basic objectives of the Zimbabwe national curriculum ought to be premised on the strength of the curriculum to provide an opportunity for pupils and communities to learn and achieve as well as promote the learners’ spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. The fundamental aim is to prepare all learners for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of life.

3.1 Development of a tourism curriculum for primary school education in Zimbabwe

Curriculum development can be likened to dairy farming. Dairy farming has been part of agriculture for thousands of years for the long-term production of milk and other milk products such as cheese and yogurt. Although dairy farming can be carried out using
horses, goats, sheep, camels and buffalo most of it is usually from dairy cows. Besides milk production, the mainstream dairy farms also sell the male calves born by their dairy cows, by and large for meat or breeding. They keep the heifers for future milk production. In order to maximise on their returns, dairy farmers grow their own feed, in most cases corn or hay. Milk production requires that the cows be in lactation, which means the cow must have given birth to a calf before milking can start.

In dairy farming problems arise however when determining how often the dairy cattle must remain pregnant, bearing in mind that worldwide of late, reproduction is mostly through artificial insemination. Other controversies, a propos dairy farming stem from:

- the practice of separating calves from their mothers only three days after birth;
- how dairy cattle are housed; and
- environmental concerns regarding dairy production.

To enable farmers to maximise on returns on milk production, it is common practice to feed calves on a milk replacer as early as three days after birth. The milk replacer is a powder added to water as a substitute for the cow’s whole milk. Furthermore, within the dairy farms the size and concentration of cattle, creates major environmental issues associated with manure spreading, dispersion and disposal which require substantial areas of cropland. Air pollution from methane gas associated with manure management is also a major concern. However, when properly managed, dairy and other livestock waste, due to their nutrient content, make an excellent fertilizer promoting crop growth, increasing soil organic matter and improving overall soil fertility.

The irony of the whole situation is that, as a rule the cow prepares and gives milk to the calf / heifer. Nevertheless, here comes the milkman who weans the calf (withdrawing the supply of its mother's milk) only three days after birth, yet the calf is the rightful owner of the milk. The cow can be compared to mother earth, giving to biodiversity to sustain the environment. The calf, the owner of the milk is synonymous with the host communities, fauna and flora in a tourism environment. Host communities, fauna and flora are the rightful owners of the tourist attractions. The cow’s milk is distributed to customers for
their nutrition, cheese making and production of a variety of other milk by-products. The milk consumers are synonymous with the visitors and tourists who pay for the products and cause their augmented production. The milk itself is identical to the direct tourism and hospitality product and the other milk by-products constitute the various forms of tourism: ecotourism; sustainable tourism; sport tourism; education tourism; cultural and heritage tourism.

There is need to ensure that the calf / heifer gets enough milk to be sustained and be able to grow and supply future milk, meat and ensure a thriving posterity. Host communities need to enjoy their heritage fully when this heritage enjoyment is extended to visitors and tourists. In this way, host communities will contribute to suitable preservation, sufficient protection and appropriate environmental management.

The host communities however need to be educated so that they can be able to appreciate their role and be effective in the management of their environment.

The educational curriculum is employed as a guideline for use by teachers to facilitate the education of learners thereby empowering them to be able to maximise on the benefits emanating from tourism growth at the same time preserving and perpetuating the environment for posterity.
3.2 The Model

Figure 3.1 below, presents a model of the development of a tourism curriculum for primary school education in Zimbabwe.

Figure 3.1: A model of the development of a tourism curriculum for primary school education in Zimbabwe

Source: Compiled by the researcher
It can be observed from the model that curriculum reviews are centred on the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU). Fundamentally the need for curriculum review is brought to the attention of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education through interfaces with political organisations, universities, teacher education colleges, examination bodies, religious organisations, business councils, parent associations and non-governmental organisations. These organisations together with the CDU develop the curriculum and the requisite subject syllabi working with subject specialists from the unit. The subject syllabi are then used to train the teachers who ultimately deliver to learners in schools.

3.3 Drafting of the tourism curriculum for primary school

In the model the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) drafts the curriculum. Input into the draft curriculum is raised from:

- Ministry of Education, Sport, Art and Culture;
- Schools Examination Councils;
- Teacher Education Colleges;
- Universities and Colleges;
- Religious Organisations;
- Parent Associations;
- Subject specialists and researchers;
- Business Council, CZI and ZNCC;
- Zimbabwe Tourism Authority; and
- Zimbabwe Council for Tourism.

Once completed and approved, the curriculum is dispatched on the one hand to teacher education institutions to facilitate the training of teachers. The training of teachers will focus on skills in tourism and hospitality management which include music, dance, sport, physical education, renewable energies, wildlife management, culture, language, communication, art and crafts. The curriculum is indispensable in the course of imparting the requisite environmental knowledge, essential skills, constructive attitudes and appropriate values to the teachers. Emphasis ought to lay on education of the environment and sustainable development concerns whilst issues in the classroom include engaging learners in practical, action-oriented activities and projects. This obviously
ensures that ultimately, learners have a sound basis for being employable within the tourism and hospitality sector in their neighbourhoods.

The curriculum is on the other hand given directly to schools especially in the form of syllabi which cover the requisite subject areas. The syllabi should enhance the teachers' understanding of the concept of sustainability of tourism developments and the relationship between host communities, tourists and the environment. Other critical areas in the teaching of tourism and hospitality would include environmental education, information technologies, ethics and citizenship, and the synchronisation of the contributions made by specific subject areas such as science and technology, numeracy, communication and practical skills.

The learners from such an education system will develop critical thinking skills when addressing issues of sustainability and be suitable and eligible to represent their communities so far as decision making is concerned and also in the distribution of benefits to communities. Indeed, the environment itself is consequently adequately preserved and amply protected.

3.4 Integration of the tourism education curriculum

Tourism impacts on broad aspects of both visitor and host societies. In Zimbabwe, the tourism and hospitality industry is the third largest foreign currency earner after agricultural produce mainly, tobacco and cotton exports and mining products. The curriculum being the sum of all the formal and informal teaching and learning experiences provided by a school, should include tourism as it is the fastest growing and third largest contributor to the GDP in Zimbabwe. The tourism syllabus prepares learners to appreciate their environment, preserves and protects biodiversity today for themselves and for their visitors in a sustainable manner that will enable future generations to enjoy the same environment. The syllabus should ensure that pupils scrutinise issues dealing with hospitality, customer care, culture, dance, music, art, sport, wildlife management, renewable energies and maintenance of a pristine environment.
Tourism and hospitality management is a cross cutting discipline involving all the other key aspects of the primary school curriculum such as the major one of literacy, language and communication involving the learning of English as well as the indigenous languages: Shona, Ndebele, Kalanga, Venda, Tonga, Tschangana, Sesotho and Nambya as illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.

**Figure 3.2:** The Tourism and Hospitality curriculum encompasses a broad spectrum of social aspects and practical subjects.

**Source:** Compiled by the researcher

According to Wang (2000), tourism occurs within societies, and therefore like any social phenomenon should be subject to examination in terms of human interaction, or in relation to other social phenomena, the widercontext of social trends, social structures, or social demography. Page (2009) reiterates and emphasises that tourism is about people and how people as tourists interact with other locations and peoples, engaging in experiences that may influence their own or the host community attitudes, expectations...
opinions and lifestyles. As far as language and culture are concerned, it is critical that primary school pupils learn in their mother tongues to enable them to learn indigenous positive value systems that will give them an identity and pride. Local languages enhance learning and ensure the preservation of local culture. Clearly, when locals prefer to use foreign languages at the expense of their own, negative impacts on the host cultures follow.

Tourism and hospitality education also cuts across numeracy and the learning of mathematics. Learners are exposed at an early age to the collection, classification and analysis of data as well as interpreting statistical inferences.

The subject of environmental science and technology carries many issues related to tourism and hospitality regarding the learning of the scientific relationships between people and the environment. Pupils and communities learn to apply scientific concepts and skills to improve and protect the environment, deal with health and pollution issues, appreciate use of renewable energies and the presence of tourists and how they interact with the environment to guarantee sustainable development. Home economics, music, art and crafts are directly part of tourism and hospitality. Physical education and sport also fall under the realm of tourism and hospitality and if incorporated as part of tourism, they will gain better recognition as core learning areas rather than being relegated to the extra curricula activities section. A learner interested in sport and physical education will find it challenging and ultimately rewarding to take up these subject areas.

3.5 Interdisciplinary teaching and learning
The primary school curriculum in Zimbabwe comprises the following academic subjects:

- Mathematics;
- English;
- Local languages such as Shona / Ndebele / Kalanga/ Venda/ Tonga/ Tschangana/ Sesotho/ Nambya;
- Social Studies;
- Environmental Science;
At the end of grade seven, the last year of primary education, students sit for an examination in four subjects:

i. Mathematics;

ii. English;

iii. Local language; and

iv. General Paper.

It should be noted that General Paper is an integration of many subjects which are grouped together into one subject for examination purposes. Incorporated into General Paper are the following subjects:

- Environmental Science;
- Social Studies;
- Religious and Moral Education;
- Home Economics; and
- HIV Aids and Life skills.

The following practical subjects also form part of the curriculum:

- Art and Craft;
- Music;
- Drama;
- Physical Education;
- Agriculture; and
- Computers.

The practical subjects are not examined under the current curriculum.

As it is the curriculum’s objective to achieve meaningful learning with the aim of solving society’s problems, students need to integrate ideas from many different subject areas. Interdisciplinary teaching and learning provides a means to put together and integrate knowledge across subjects. By introducing tourism and hospitality as a subject many
cross cutting issues in other subject areas will be brought under one roof and as a result, a curriculum overload is reduced. As already alluded to earlier, large sections of art and craft, physical education, drama, music, computers and home economics, can be housed under tourism and hospitality. With the exception of Home Economics, these are practical subjects that are not examined at the end of primary school education, but will revert to be part of the examinable core curriculum once housed under tourism and hospitality management. In addition to the practical aspects, tourism will enhance education into attitudes and values relating to customer care for tourists, visitors, the environment and the community, respect for the beliefs and opinions of others, tolerance and a culture of peace. Maintaining a clean environment always calls for responsibility and individual discipline. Learners will be groomed so as to present themselves professionally and express themselves with an open mind. Tourism encourages the upholding of national costumes, national dresses and smart natural physical appearances. Through community work allied to the tourism subject’s practical aspects, learners also gain knowledge of collaboration with others and develop social skills involving individual and group responsibilities. This enhances peace, tolerance and understanding among communities. Tourism and hospitality operations are heavily depended on information technologies across the board from reservations, bookings and ticketing, to meet and greet, tour guiding and management functions. Information technology skills can be enhanced through research, collecting information, use of data banks, playing games, social networking and use of computers.

3.5.1 Community education as an integral part of sustainable Tourism Development

Aitchison (2001) argues that, tourism needs to be considered not just as a type of business or industry, but as a powerful cultural arena and process that both shape and are shaped by gendered presentations of places, people, nations and cultures. It is imperative that teachers and school administrators identify and prioritise the need to involve local people in helping schools to improve the curriculum. Platforms need to be created for schools to work in partnership with parents, children and local volunteers to develop a curriculum that relates to local, individual and societal needs. Performance indicators might include
assessments relating to improvements in students’ achievements, levels of tourism developments and enhancement of the environment.

3.5.2 Tourism education website
The model (Figure 3.1) integrates websites which offer teachers, pupils and communities a broad supply of teaching and learning materials that enhance the curriculum and classroom efforts. Through collaborative filtering, teachers and communities can share resources, knowledge and ideas and improve the curriculum. Video conferencing can enhance the teaching and learning of environmental and other scientific issues. Websites can also compliment networking linkages, exchange and interaction among teachers, learners and the parent Ministry of Education who need to update the Websites on a regular basis. Social platforms can also be integrated into these Websites to enhance communication and feedback from learners, parents and the communities.

3.6 Curriculum and sports development
One of the major reasons why the government promotes tourism is to create employment. Sport tourism can be a major employer if encouraged. Meaningful sport can be developed when it is promoted from an early age. By incorporating sport education under tourism, learners will develop an appreciation and get encouraged to choose sport as a career. Moreover, girls in Zimbabwe would be encouraged to develop local, indigenous and natural hair styles that allow them to engage in sporting activities like swimming, athletics, tennis, football, rugby, boxing and handball among others, without having to worry about effects on their costly hair styles. Activities such as swimming destroy the trendy hairstyles since the artificial extensions that they use cannot invariably be washed under water because extensions may only be shampooed using expensive chemicals. Zimbabwean natural hair can be easily washed under water as it dries up without problems.

When sport is taken seriously as a mainstream subject under tourism, it can become a vehicle which drives peace among Zimbabweans and other nations. People of different nationalities come together to compete or watch sporting events. Indigenous sporting
events such as *nhodo* can be afforded a chance to be revitalized or taken to the international area. Zimbabweans have been hunters for centuries, but why is it that they do not engage in sporting activities like javelin throwing or bow and arrow shooting, although such activities seem natural to a renowned hunter and have been practised by Zimbabweans for centuries.

Schools provide a platform to reach out to all children and introduce sport to them. It is also possible to identify talent early and be able to develop it if sport is taken seriously in schools. Sports academies countrywide can draw from and collaborate with primary schools when developing sporting programmes. Communities would also have the opportunity to engage in ‘rare’ sports such as tennis, handball, badminton, shooting, golf polo, bungee jumping and athletics among others.

3.7 Curriculum and wildlife management

There is a wealth of traditional knowledge that needs to be researched, documented and integrated into wildlife management best practices. This information however needs to be built-in into the curriculum. Subsequently, teachers and communities ought to link up and develop those crucial issues that ought to be included in the tourism curriculum. The same goes for traditional medicine and herbs. A coherent approach to healthcare is required if tourists and hosts are going to use the same facilities when they seek treatment. As soon as separate facilities are availed for locals and visitors alike, resentment against the tourists’ presence starts brewing up. The curriculum can help to close the gap between hosts and visitors perceptions. The curriculum can be modelled to encourage development of facilities first and foremost with the local population in mind. Such a move would boost domestic tourism. A thriving domestic tourism industry is a good stepping stone for viable international tourism developments. Although tourism is regarded as an export industry, it is the consumer who comes to the destination to consume the product warranting that the visitors’ role in the destination be considered fundamental to tourism development and the development of the tourism curriculum itself.
A large part of the tourism curriculum involves practical work. Learners can carry out research on problem animals to mitigate loss of agricultural produce and human attacks by these animals. Research can be extended to include best practices in the protection of endangered species, handling and prevention of snake bites, as well as dealing with crocodiles and other predators such as hyenas, leopards and lions. Responsible consumptive tourism especially relating to fishing and hunting and sustainable ways of honey collection, is a prerequisite for sustainable development as the old practices are destructive when one considers fish poisoning as a form of fishing or the burning of bees to collect honey. Basically, the curriculum should inculcate a mind-set geared to sound environmental management and responsible tourism developments. The training of teachers therefore, needs to take this aspect of the learners’ psychological developments into consideration to ensure the grooming of the proper mind-set in the learners.

3.8 The subject “Tourism and Hospitality”

Clearly, in order for the subject tourism and hospitality to be taken seriously, it must be an examinable subject at the end of grade seven just like the other core subjects English, Mathematics, Local Languages and General Paper.

The model proposes that all those practical subjects that are normally not examined, be incorporated into tourism and be examined. The majority of the practical subjects such as, music, dance, drama, physical education, computers, art and crafts will be affected.

Although Home Economics is already being examined under General Paper, it can be drafted into tourism as it belongs more to tourism. These subjects will then be examined under tourism and hospitality as shown in Figure 3.3 on the next page.
Tourism and Hospitality comprises a variety of practical subject areas

Source: Compiled by the researcher

The rest of the subjects such as Environmental Science, Social Studies and agriculture can be examined under General Paper, although many sections of Environmental Science and Social studies will also be captured under tourism and hospitality. Figure 3-3 also highlights the individual areas of concentration for each subject that needs to be branded into the curriculum.

3.9 Conclusion
This chapter presented a model on the development of an education curriculum for primary schools on the one hand and development of sustainable tourism in communities on the other hand. Education and training of tourism in schools and communities surrounding tourism resorts will enhance the development of sound, responsible practices of tourism management at the same time producing environmentally conscious citizens who are empowered to develop their tourism and hospitality industry viably. Therefore, the development of a tourism curriculum for primary school learners and significant
tourism training for local communities are a prerequisite for further sustainable development.

The next Chapter four presents the research methodology, the quantitative and qualitative approaches used in the study and their advantages and disadvantages. The population, sample, and sampling techniques used are stated and the methods used in data gathering for the current study are specified. Data collection instruments are specified together with an explanation on how the collected data are analysed.
4 Introduction
This chapter describes the research design and the methodology that will be used to conduct this study. The chapter also specifies the instruments to be used in data gathering and states the population and sample of the study. The methods for data collection are presented identifying the subjects that will be involved in the data collection and the sample size. Furthermore as a justification for the use of the chosen methodology is presented the data collection instruments are described, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of the methodology / approach to be used, at the same time indicating the relevance of the selected research instruments. A discussion on how data are to be analysed is ultimately presented.

4.1 Research Design
The research design is the overall grand plan unfolding the procedures of data collection, interpretation and analysis of the same. Kerlinger (1986: 300) describes the research design as the blueprint for collection, measurement and analysis of data made up of the plan, structure and strategy of the investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to the research questions and to control variance. The plan provides the schedule of what the research process entails and the implications to the final analysis of the data. The structure is the configuration of relationships among variables of the study, whilst the strategy spells out methods to be used to gather and analyse the data. Emory (1985: 58) expands on this definition and explains that the research design articulates the type of a study and encompasses the methodology and procedure employed to conduct scientific research for that study. He notes that the process for developing the research design is as follows:

- major concepts or constructs to be used in the study are defined;
investigative questions are reviewed and broken down into second and third level questions;
the general direction of the research is made clear as to whether it is a survey, an experiment, or some other design that is chosen;
the methodology is articulated;
data collection instruments are constructed;
a test is needed to assure that the design and measurement specifics are feasible for the purposes intended;
a plan for the analysis of data needs to be drawn up; and
the final stage is made up of preparations of specific instructions and other arrangements to assure that data are collected efficiently.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007: 135) make reference to a variety of relevant different types of research designs which comprise, experimental, ex post facto, survey, observation, case study, statistical, grounded theory, ethnography, action research, exploratory, causal, descriptive, simulation, cross sectional and longitudinal designs.

4.2 Research Approaches / Methodologies
Methodology is merely a research approach forming an operational framework within which the facts are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly. Research methodology is defined in two forms:
- It is identical to a research model employed by the researcher in a particular project (Lather, 1992: 87); and
- It relates to the nature of the approach to a theoretical and more abstract content and perceives it in distinctive theoretical principles (Sarantakos, 1998: 33).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007: 117) identify two approaches to research based on either a deductive (quantitative) or an inductive (qualitative) approach. In deductive research, the researcher develops a hypothesis and then designs the research in such a way as to be able to test the theory. In inductive research, the researcher first collects the data and then, from the data analysis, develops a theory. These two approaches form frameworks with which a research can be concluded, the qualitative approach which
utilises descriptive mode and the quantitative approach which applies statistical inferences (Hammersley, 1992: 163). A third approach (critical methodology), entailing Marxist and feminist research has been practised among social scientists for some time but has not been fully accepted in the social sciences as a distinct, clear and independent methodology of the level of the other two (Sarantakos, 1998: 6). Since there are two major research approaches, it is necessary to take a closer examination of these two approaches to enable the researcher to adopt an approach for the current research.

4.2.1 Quantitative Approach

Duffy (1985: 225-232) describes quantitative research by the term positivism or neopositivism that is derived from the early forms of research with origins in the natural sciences such as biology, chemistry or physics that was concerned with investigating things the researcher could observe and measure in some way. Cormack (1991: 140) adds that the quantitative research approach is based on the scientific method as applied in the physical sciences fundamentally as a formal, objective and systematic process in which numerical data are utilized to obtain information about the world. Burns and Grove (2001: 26) reiterate also that this research approach is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain information about the world. The approach is employed to describe variables, examine relationships among variables and determine cause-and-effect interactions between variables. Basically, it constitutes a formal, systematic process in which numerical data are statistically analysed. It describes, tests, and examines cause and effect relationships, using a deductive process to test theory from existing knowledge. The research process can be made objective and may be repeated by other researchers being restricted to purely positive phenomena. It attempts to answer the what, when, where and how questions. The logical form of the theory is deductive and the research results are either accepted rejected or modified.

4.2.2 Advantages of the Quantitative Approach

Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992: 227) summarise the advantages of the quantitative approach as:
the approach has strengths in its precision obtained through quantitative and reliable measurement stating the research problem in very specific and set terms;

- it is easier to control the approach through sampling and design;
- statistical techniques employed by the approach allow for sophisticated analyses;
- the quantitative approach is easily replicable;
- the approach helps in stating the research problem in very specific and set terms clearly and precisely specifying both the independent and the dependent variables under investigation;
- through the approach the researcher may follow firmly the original set of research goals, arriving at more objective conclusions, testing hypothesis and determining the issues of causality;
- it is possible to achieve high levels of reliability of gathered data due to controlled observations, mass surveys and other forms of research manipulations; and
- the approach leaves room which allows for longitudinal measures of subsequent performance of research subjects.

4.2.3 Disadvantages of the Quantitative Approach

Sarantakos (1998: 42) argues that although the vast majority of publications in the leading peer reviewed journals worldwide employ the quantitative methodology and the positivist or neopositivist approach, there are a number of disadvantages emanating from its use. He highlights that the quantitative approach:

- fails to recognise that social phenomena exist not ‘out there’ but in the minds of people and their interpretations;
- assumes that reality can be defined objectively but it is subjective;
- places a lot of emphasis on quantitative measurement which fails to capture the meaning behind social behaviour;
- employs the use of hypotheses that determine the course of study at the outset thereby restricting the options of questions and responses at the same time blocking initiative and motivation of the researcher;
restricts experience by directing research to what is perceived by the senses and employing only standardised tools based on quantifiable data to test hypotheses;

neglects the distinction between appearance and essence of social events, whilst assuming that appearance is reality;

employs a theoretical perspective and a form of research that supports the status quo and existing power structures;

recognises that the research methods are more important than the research object and what is not approachable through quantitative techniques is insignificant as quantity becomes more important than quality;

perceives reality as a sum of measured or measurable attributes; and

employs a technocratic perspective which sees the researcher as an expert who aims at discovering law-like generalisations, that bracket out experiences and views of the researcher.

4.3 Qualitative Approach

Marvasti (2004: 7) notes that researchers working in the social sciences such as psychology, sociology and anthropology, are interested in studying human behaviour including the social world inhabited by human beings and stand guided by certain ideas, perspectives or hunches regarding the subject to be investigated. Benoliel (1985: 1-8) extended on this aspect and described qualitative research as modes of systematic enquiry concerned with understanding human beings and the nature of their transactions with themselves. Duffy (1987: 130-33) however, describes the qualitative approach as a vehicle for studying the empirical world from the perspective of the subject, not the researcher. Qualitative research develops theory inductively. Explaining human behaviour in measureable terms can be very difficult, because measurements give information on how often or how many people behave in a certain way but such measurements do not adequately answer the “why” question. Qualitative research attempts to answer the question “why?” Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 3) using such terms as interpretive, naturalistic, constructivist and ethnographic, contend that qualitative
researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of social and cultural phenomena.

4.3.1 Features of the Qualitative Approach
Patton (1990: 40) explains the features of qualitative research as:
- a naturalistic inquiry which studies real world situations as they unfold;
- an inductive analysis in which the evaluator is immersed in the details;
- a collection of qualitative data for detailed descriptions;
- a dynamic system with attention to process and change;
- one that assumes each case as special and unique;
- having context sensitivity, placing findings in a social, historical and temporary context;
- involving empathetic neutrality with the researcher seeking understanding of the world rather than ephemeral objectivity; and
- grounded on design flexibility with the evaluator open to adopting inquiry as understanding deepens.

4.3.2 Advantages of the Qualitative Approach
A number of advantages emanate out of Patton’s features (1990: 40) of the qualitative approach as follows:
- that of affording the researcher a more realistic feel of the world that cannot be experienced in the numerical data and statistical analysis used in quantitative research;
- since researchers do not have a predetermined conceptual framework, the qualitative approach provides an inductive and interactive process of inquiry between the researchers and the data enabling the uncovering of phenomena of interest as they emerge from informants;
- the approach provides a holistic view of the phenomena under investigation;
the qualitative approach gives the researcher room to interact with the research subjects in their own language and on their own terms;

- it offers some descriptive capability based on primary and unstructured data that can play an important role of suggesting possible relationships, causes, effects and dynamic processes;

- it becomes easier to gain insight into new forms of knowledge facilitated by the more descriptive, narrative style employed by qualitative approaches;

- because of close researcher involvement, the researcher gains an insider's view of the field enabling him or her to find subtleties and complexities that are often missed by the scientific, more positivistic enquiries; and

- the researcher’s involvement also means that data are mediated through the human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines.

### 4.3.3 Disadvantages of the Qualitative Approach

Chadwick, Bahr and Albrecht (1984: 215) summarise the disadvantages of the qualitative approach as follows:

- there is always the danger of departing from the original objectives of the research in response to the changing nature of the context causing problems of representativeness and generalizability of findings;

- issues concerned with validity or reliability caused by extreme subjectivity and lack of consistency, arise because the researcher can employ different probing techniques as the respondent can choose to tell some particular stories whilst ignoring others;

- the approach can result in the collection of meaningless and useless information, which cannot be replicated nor generalised to any extent in a wider context than the one under study with any confidence;

- the approach is very time consuming since the time required for data collection, analysis and interpretation is comparatively lengthy;

- due to nature of the approach where the researcher enters the personal sphere of subjects, problems of ethics arise;
the researcher’s presence, has a profound effect on the subjects of study and can trigger problems of objectivity and detachment;

issues of anonymity and confidentiality present problems, when selecting findings derived from the qualitative approach;

the viewpoints of both the researcher and participants, have to be identified and elucidated because of issues of bias;

there is a danger of drawing different conclusions based on the same information, depending on the personal characteristics of the researcher; and

investigations of causality between different research phenomena, become difficult.

Having looked at the basic features of the research approaches, it becomes imperative to spell out the major differences between the respective approaches.

4.4 Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches

Hammersley (1992: 160-72) identified seven differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches exhibited in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Perceived differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Qualitative approach</th>
<th>Quantitative approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative vs. quantitative data</td>
<td>Qualitative data with less emphasis on statistics; verbal and qualitative analysis; feelings, values and attitudes.</td>
<td>Quantitative data; mathematical; extensive use of statistics and emphasise quantification in the collection and analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural vs. artificial settings</td>
<td>Subjective; problematic; holistic; a social construct.</td>
<td>Objective; simple; single; tangible sense impressions; Nomological.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on meanings rather than behaviour</td>
<td>Normativism; value-bound inquiry.</td>
<td>Value neutral; value free inquiry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoption or rejection of natural science as a model, An inductive vs. a deductive approach</td>
<td>Inductive; rejection of the natural sciences model; ideographic; no strict rules; interpretivist.</td>
<td>Deductive; model of natural sciences; nomothetic; based on strict rules; objectivist; positivism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying cultural patterns vs. seeking scientific laws</td>
<td>Analytical or conceptual generalisations; time-and-context specific; ideographic (understanding, by doing in-depth research on a few cases).</td>
<td>Inductive generalisations; nomothetic statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher’s role during data collection</td>
<td>Active; knower and known are interactive and inseparable; Researcher actively involved in data collection process.</td>
<td>Rather passive researcher role; knower is separate from subject; dualism; dichotomies, culture vs. nature, subject vs. object, masculine vs. feminine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealism vs. realism</td>
<td>Non-deterministic; mutual shaping; no cause-effect linkages.</td>
<td>Nomological thinking; cause-effect linkages.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be noted that whereas the quantitative approach is based on positivism which perceives reality as everything that can be perceived through the senses, the qualitative approach is everything that is not quantitative viewed by some as a supplement to quantitative research and by others as its opposite or alternative. In essence, the two methodologies are extreme positions of the same continuum which have developed distinct research techniques and modes of operation. Sarantakos (1998: 47) emphasises that whilst on the one hand the quantitative approach allows quantification, hypotheses measurement, operationalisation as well as the use of statistical techniques of data analysis and computers, the qualitative approach on the other hand, draws on less structured techniques of data collection and analysis, making use of participant observation as the most common method of research. In essence, both approaches borrow from and support one another.

4.5 Population of the study
Cooper and Schindler (2003: 69) define the population of study as the totality of all elements under study. Meredith (1998: 441) argues that the population in any study is very important as it determines how sampling is going to be done and drives the whole research methodology. The population of this study is encompassing the following:

- Curriculum Development Unit in Harare subject specialists (20);
- Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture (Moesac) Head Office (15);
- Moesac provincial offices in Mutare and Bulawayo (10);
- Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry in Harare (35);
- Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources in Harare (5);
- Environmental Management Agency in Harare (5);
- Zimbabwe Tourism Authority in Harare Training Division (10);
- Zimbabwe Council for Tourism in Harare (2);
- National Parks and Wildlife Authority in Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls (25);
- Confederation of Zimbabwe Industry in Harare (3);
The education sector consists of mainly officers from the Curriculum Development Unit twenty in all, who are fundamentally subject specialists engaged in drafting syllabuses for the schools’ curriculum. Also targeted are senior officers in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education housed at the Headquarters in Harare and provincial centres of Mutare and Bulawayo. The rest are educationists from university and teacher education colleges in Harare and Bulawayo. The tourism and hospitality sector are made up of senior employees coming from the state organs, the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, National Parks and Wildlife Management Authority, Civil Aviation Authority and Air Zimbabwe. Coming from the private sector representatives, are senior officers with the Zimbabwe Council for Tourism, Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries, Zimbabwe Hunters Association, local community leaders, tour operators and accommodation providers in Nyanga, Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls.

The first cluster of the population is made up of stakeholders out of the Capital City Harare, comprising the Ministries of education and tourism, their related parastatals and business council. Harare is the gateway to the country with attractions that includes a city tour where one can visit the National Museum, parliament buildings, Snake Park,
Mukuvisi Woodlands, Lake Chivero, Botanic gardens, Tengenenge Sculpture Center, MbareMusika and the National Heroes Acre among others. It has the biggest of the three international airports in the country the other two being in Bulawayo and Victoria Falls.

The second batch of the population comes out of the Nyanga District, tourism service providers in the Nyanga region and the surrounding schools and communities. Nyanga lies in the northernmost part of the Eastern Highlands region of Zimbabwe along the border with Mozambique. Much of Nyanga is within the Nyanga National Park, an enchanting expanse of rugged hills, pine forests, waterfalls and clear-water rivers. It boasts of the highest mountain in the country (Mt. Inyangani) standing at 2593 meters above sea level and the Ziwa National Monument which is being considered for the world heritage site status for its historical significance as it bears evidence of human habitation since the Stone Age era. The district also boasts of Zimbabwe’s highest waterfall the Mtarazi Falls, the spectacular Pungwe Gorge and the Nyazengu Nature Reserve known for its proteas and other wild flowers as well as its wildlife that includes waterbuck, steenbok, kudu, wildebeest and occasionally two of the big five, lion and leopard. Tourist activities include hiking, birding, mountain climbing, horse riding, playing golf, trout and bass fishing among others. White water rafting is offered on the Pungwe River. The National Park is surrounded by communal lands including Honde Valley with its tea, coffee and fruit estates making the region an ideal place to research into local communities and tourism development within and around the national park.

The third cluster comes out of Bulawayo, the industrial and business capital of the country. It is the second largest city in Zimbabwe and is a well-developed tourist destination. Attractions include the National Bulawayo Railways Museum, Natural History Museum of Zimbabwe, Matobo Hills, Chipangali Wildlife Orphanage, Nswatugi Caves, Khamiruins and the National Gallery, buttressed by an abundance of middle class hotels and lodges. It is the nearest large city to Hwange National Park. The Park is home to the ‘big five’ which are the African lion, the African elephant, the Cape buffalo, the African leopard, and the white/black rhinoceros.
The fourth cluster comes out of Victoria Falls or Mosi-oa-Tunya (The smoke that thunders), one of two world heritage sites, arguably the world’s largest waterfall on the Zambezi River at the border of Zambia and Zimbabwe. It is one of the seven Natural Wonders of the world.

The target population of this study is totalling 250 made up of respondents working mainly within the tourism and education sectors and are believed to fully understand the dynamics of the tourism and hospitality industry and education.

4.6 Sampling techniques for the study

A sample is a smaller, more manageable set of elements or subset of a population of interest under investigation intended to represent the population under study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007: 206). In contrast, a census is the total count of all elements in a population. Sampling is preferred to a census because it costs less, produces greater accuracy and results in greater speed of data collection (Emory, 1985: 276). Emory adds that some elements of the population might not be available for investigation, due to their geographical location. Sometimes embarking on a census might result in the destruction of the population itself such as the testing of material strength through pulling the product or verifying the taste of a beverage by drinking. Sampling is the process of selecting individuals from the population to be studied in such a way that the chosen elements represent the larger group and provide useful information on the population from which they were selected (Emory, 1985: 276).

Probability sampling uses a randomisation process of element selection to minimise on bias and sampling error whereas non-probability sampling methods are convenient and purposive. Quantitative research uses more probability sampling techniques as statistical processes favour randomisation though qualitative research objectives are normally satisfied by non-probability sampling techniques. Where there is no desire to generalise findings to a population parameter, it is not imperative that the sample be representative of the population.
This research will involve purposive judgemental sampling on the one hand to select respondents for the qualitative data collection. Cluster and systematic random sampling will be used on the other hand to select respondents for the quantitative data collection. Factors influencing the choice of the sampling techniques are cost and time in respect of qualitative data and representativeness of the results in respect of the quantitative data.

The sample size of the study will be 152 obtained from the sample size tables available in most statistics books (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). The formula used for calculating sample size as given in the tables is as follows:

\[
\frac{X^2 \cdot N \cdot P \cdot (1-P)}{ME^2 \cdot (N-1) + (X^2 \cdot P \cdot (1-P))}
\]

Where:
- \( n \) = sample size
- \( X^2 \) = Chi-square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom
- \( N \) = Population Size
- \( P \) = population proportion (.50 in this table)
- \( ME \) = desired Margin of Error (expressed as a proportion)

The desired confidence level is 95% with a margin of error of 5%. According to this formula, having settled for an estimated population of 250 the calculated desired sample size will be 152.

4.6.1 Data collection instruments

Research instruments are tools used for collecting data (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2007). Examples include observation forms, interview schedules, questionnaires and interview guides.

The primary method of data collection for the current research will be in-depth and semi-structured face-to-face interviews which involve asking open-ended questions, listening to and recording the answers and then following up with additional relevant questions. Interviews happen to be among the most challenging and rewarding forms of measurement. They require a personal sensitivity and adaptability as well as the ability to
stay within the bounds of the designed interview protocol. Face-to-face interviews have long been the dominant data collection technique in the field of qualitative research. In-depth interviewing helps to probe beneath the surface, provides a means for soliciting feedback and ensures a more holistic understanding of the interviewee’s point of view. The researcher is close to the respondent and can probe to get wider responses out of the respondents. The researcher also observed the respondents and their environment. The collected data will be qualitative in nature. A pilot test interview was carried out with colleagues to test the design of the interview guide and necessary amendments were made to ensure the smooth sailing of the interviews.

4.6.2 Data analysis
Content analysis will be used to analyse qualitative data. Several attempts have been made at defining content analysis from as far back as Berelson (1952: 18) who published it as a versatile tool for social science and media researchers. Nachmias and Nachmias (1976: 136) describe content analysis as a tool where the content of the message forms the basis for drawing inferences and conclusions about the content. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 95) define content analysis as a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes or biases. The data will be collected into an inventory, sampled for purposes of analysis, coded, weighted and conclusions drawn in the narration of results. The advantage of using content analysis is that, it enables a more objective evaluation made on the impressions of the listener or researcher. Content analysis is therefore, also considered as an unobtrusive or non-reactive method of social research.

Although qualitative data will be sought, any quantitative aspects of data collection or analysis that might arise during the process will be analysed using statistical techniques and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The relationships between the different variables under investigation will be determined and studied. Predictions can be derived and conclusions drawn from the analysis of the collected data.
4.7 Delimitation of the study
The study will take place in Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls. Harare first cluster is where all the stakeholders’ head offices are housed. The Nyanga district and Bulawayo have also been chosen because they are regions with great tourism potential. Nyanga and Vumba form part of the Eastern Highlands that have been declared as some of Zimbabwe’s Wonders and will be developed further as a tourist destination in the near future. Both are easily accessible by road from either Harare or Mutare and enjoy an excellent climate. Bulawayo and Victoria Falls are well developed tourism resorts already enjoying visitation by international tourists.

4.8 Conclusion
This chapter presented the research design and the research approaches that will be used to conduct the study. The advantages and disadvantages of the different research approaches were highlighted. It is noted that although principally qualitative data will be sought, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches will be used to conduct the study. This enables the researcher to capitalise on methodological triangulation which mixes qualitative and quantitative methodologies to allow the limitations of each approach to be transcended by comparing findings from different perspectives.
Four clusters were identified, Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls which form the population of the study. The sample for the study will be derived from this population and face to face interviews will be carried out and self-administered questionnaires will be distributed to the respondents. Collected data will be organised and coded for further analysis.
The next chapter (Five) presents the research findings of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND FINDINGS

5Introduction
The previous chapter concentrated on methodological issues based on the research design and the research approaches for the study. In this chapter raw data collected from the field is presented so as to provide the empirical evidence and findings from the fieldwork. The hypothesis ‘a holistic approach to tourism education at primary school level coupled with tourism training for communities would empower learners with the necessary skills and zeal to formulate and implement an economically sustainable tourism development in the school communities and later on as adults in their own local communities in Zimbabwe’, is tested and discussed. Data presented here were collected in the pursuit of answers to the aforesaid hypothesis.

5.1 Data Collection
Both primary and secondary data were collected for this study. This section presents an overview of the data that were used, their collection and a summary of the findings. The collected data were organised and coded for further analysis through the SPSS Statistics data editor. The investigated sample of 145 respondents makes up 95% of the targeted sample of 152 or 58% of the total population which is generally considered to be representative of the targeted population as the margin of error remains very small and insignificant.

5.1.1 Resort areas under study from where the data were collected
About 145 respondents were interviewed, whereby 44 of those respondents were from Harare, 33 from the Eastern Highlands in Nyanga, Mutare and Vumba, 30 from Bulawayo and Matopos and 38 from Hwange and Victoria Falls. The data were collected
through observation, face to face interviews, telephone interviews, emails, unstructured questionnaires where respondents remained unavailable for interviews or any combination of the aforesaid instruments as presented in the previous chapter on methodologies. It can be noted that most respondents constituting 30% were from Harare which is conveniently poised for the researcher who also resides in the same city. The Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo, Hwange and Victoria Falls are major tourist resorts in Zimbabwe where the rest of the research was carried out. Figure 5.1 below presents the resort areas where raw data were collected and the distribution of the respondents from whom the data were collected.

5.1.2 Demographics of respondents

Figure 5.2 on the next page reveals that out of the total of 145 respondents interviewed for this study, there were only slightly more males than females 75 and 70 respectively. Although at most workplaces in Zimbabwe, men greatly outnumber women especially in the fields of management, this does not seem to be the case in the tourism, hospitality and
education sectors. As a result the study responses demonstrate a good gender balance. In terms of percentages this means that 52% of the respondents were male as opposed to 48% who were female.

5.1.3 Distribution of respondents by work experience

In order to secure interviews in the various targeted companies and government ministries, the researcher had to rely on prior appointments with the interviewees and as a result more success was achieved with the more experienced workers who comprised the prime target segment as shown in figure 5.3 on the next page. Over half (52%) of the respondents had served their organisations for more than five years with 23% having worked for two to five years and 26% constituting workers who had been with their organisations for less than two years. The majority of the respondents therefore are experienced workers within their organisational frameworks.
5.1.4 Distribution of interviewees by their level of education

Figure 5.4 below shows the distribution of the respondents by their level of education.
The targeted population comprised a lot of public sector officials and as a result the education levels of the respondents were very high with very few interviewees not holding university degrees. As a matter of fact, quite a substantial number of them, 34% of the respondents had accomplished Graduate training or completed higher degrees whereas just over 52% had first degrees with the rest, 14% having attained education levels of up to secondary education or higher.

5.1.5 Positions of respondents in their organisations

The distribution of respondents by their position in their organisations is shown in figure 5.5 below. The figure shows that 28% of the respondents belong to the top executives’ level in their organisations. These are also the people with higher levels of education in the same organisations. About half of them, (48%) were from the middle management level while the rest, (24%) were from the administrator or shop-floor level.

![Figure 5.5 Distribution of respondents by their position in their organisation](image)
5.1.6 Industry sectors of the interviewees

Figure 5.6 below shows a third of the respondents constituting 32% from the education sector, whereas just over 23% were picked from the hospitality sector with the remainder having been chosen from tourism related organisations, 17% tourism authorities, the tour operations sector 20% while 8% came from communities.

5.2 Areas of research study

In order to meet the objectives of this study the research sought to find answers to four major questions:

- How are schools and local communities sanctioned so that they reap maximum socio-economic and cultural benefits out of the integrated and multiple uses of natural resources within their locality?
What brainstorming needs to be done to arrive at viable institutionalisation and regulatory guidelines in respect of contracts and working relationships among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities?

How should the eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities be identified and how must the resultant negative impacts be minimised?

How should local communities on issues of environmental management and marketing of local tourism products strengthen and protect their cultural roots?

5.2.1 Socio economic and socio cultural benefits to be reaped out of tourism

As asked about the local communities possibilities for reaping maximum benefits out of their natural resources without damaging or depleting the resources themselves, respondents emphasised as presented in figure 5.7 below the need for strengthening tourism education and awareness 25%, reinforcing the use of renewable energies in

![Figure 5.7 Possible community benefits to be reaped out using natural resources for tourism](image)
tourism investments 20%, underpinning the need to earn revenues through tourism operations 17%, laying emphasis on appropriate legislation 17% and highlighting issues related to environmental conservation, protection and preservation 14% as well as participation and involvement 13%. However, some 4% of the respondents were contended that there were no benefits to be reaped out of tourism by local communities because they felt that ‘communities are never meaningfully involved in tourism while tourism itself is not an industry and earnings from sporting activities, business meetings or conventions should not be credited to tourism developments’.

5.2.2 Quality of primary school education in Zimbabwe in respect to tourism
Respondents were asked to express their opinion on the quality of primary education in Zimbabwe in as far as tourism developments were concerned. They were supposed to base their responses on the availability and use of a coherent sustainable education policy. Figure 5.8 below shows that 50% of the respondents were agreed that Zimbabwe does not have a viable long term policy framework on education and training which addresses the current socio-cultural, economic political and environmental concerns of the country. The rest were divided fifty-fifty with one quarter of the
respondents (25%) expressing satisfaction with a number of aspects relating to the education policy albeit advocating for a belated curriculum review and the other quarter (25%) expressing satisfaction with the primary education provision.

5.2.3 Suggestions for the primary school curriculum subjects
According to the current primary school curriculum, learners are examined in the core subjects, (English, Shona, Mathematics and Content) at the seventh grade. Figure 5.9 below shows respondents’ suggestions regarding those subjects they felt should be included in the primary school curriculum in addition to the existing aforementioned four core subjects. A number of these subjects are already included in the General Paper or Content mentioned above. A third of the respondents (30%) wanted to see Environmental Science included as a subject for primary schools. Geography got support from 20% of the respondents while Social Studies, Art and Culture and Wildlife Management received relative support from 7% to 10% of the respondents. Other subjects trailed behind with
Religious and Moral Education getting 4%, Home Economics 3% and Physical Education incorporating Sport 3% of the support.

5.3 Institutionalisation and regulatory guidelines of contracts
In order to arrive at some viable institutionalisation and regulatory guidelines in respect of contracts and working relationships among the public sector, private sector, the tourism and hospitality industry operators, local government, schools and local communities, the researcher engaged himself in some brainstorming sessions with the respondents to enable him formulate some worthwhile guidelines. These hinged upon examining investment opportunities in industry and the working relationships among these players. The researcher also relied on his observation of the prevailing conditions in the resort areas where the research work was carried out along the Harare, Mutare, Nyanga highway and the Harare, Bulawayo, Victoria Falls highway.

5.3.1 Investment opportunities for communities in the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe
Asked to say what they perceived as areas with a potential for investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe, respondents came up with a wide assortment of possibilities as presented in figure 5.10 on the next page. About a quarter (24%) of the respondents professed that investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry lay within the management of conservancies in the country. Over 21% presupposed that opportunities were in tour operations. Prospects
in the accommodation sector were avowed by 17% of the respondents even though 10% buttressed investments catering for Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE). Sport was supported by 7% of the respondents and Music, Art and Drama were propped by 6%. Surprisingly, some 4% of the respondents believed that there were no investment opportunities at all existing within the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe.

5.3.2 Working relationships between the rural communities and the tourism and hospitality industry operators

Respondents were dared to describe the kind of working relationship between the rural communities and tourism operators that could enhance and promote responsible tourism. Figure 5.11 on the next page presents the types of relationships between the communities and the operators that would enhance a viable development of the industry.
A third of the respondents (32%) would like to see relationships with locals within the vicinity of the tourism resorts favourably employed in tourism operations. Education for communities took up second place with 23%. Following close behind at 19% was sponsorship and corporate responsibility on the part of tourism operators. Public private sector partnerships got thumbs up from 14% of the respondents with the rest proposing arrangements based on consultations 9% and community ownership of resources as the last resort coming from 4% of the suggestions.

5.4 Eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities and how the negative impacts can be minimised.
Questions were also asked as presented in the following section with a view to establishing and identifying eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities.
communities and how the resultant negative impacts emanating thereon could be minimised.

5.4.1 Focus of primary school curriculum
At the outset a question was asked whether the curriculum laid too much emphasis on academic or manual and industrial education. The idea was to ascertain the level of emphasis on manual and practical subjects which have a greater bearing on eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities. As shown in figure 5.12 below, a large percentage (58%) of the respondents agreed that the primary school curriculum laid far too much emphasis on academic education even as 37% viewed the curriculum as balanced covering both academic and industrial education. Only 5% regarded the curriculum as having a practical bias.

5.4.2 Traditional ways of management and preservation of biodiversity
Asked to cite any traditional forms of wildlife management and biodiversity protection that can be incorporated into a primary school curriculum to enhance the development of eco-tourism, 35 of the respondents chose the use of totems as an effective tool for wildlife protection and preservation as shown in figure 5.13 below. Some 24 respondents cited the traditionally recommended ways of protecting wildlife areas and preservation of
virgin land as an effective tool. The idea of forbidding the hunting of calving animals was cited by 20 of the respondents. Methods of collecting wild fruit were another tool used to protect plant life as highlighted by 13 of the respondents. Some 12 members of the respondents argued in favour of respecting and preserving wetlands which are traditionally considered to be sacred. Eleven respondents quoted traditional

![Graph](image)

**Figure 5.13 Traditional norms that enhance protection and preservation of fauna and flora**

permaculture and conservation farming while eight respondents stated non-destructive fishing methods traditionally practised by communities. Seven respondents appraised traditional honey collection methods at the same time as five who recommended revisiting religious beliefs mentioning in particular, that snakes suffered human attacks or being killed as a result of the biblical ruling that Adam was advised to crush the snake’s head at every encounter as punishment for coning Eve into devouring the forbidden fruit.
5.4.3 Challenges facing local communities in implementing tourism

Respondents were asked to highlight the challenges facing local communities when they manage their environment vis. a vis. tourism development and the preservation of their culture. In response, a large percentage of the respondents (23%) as revealed in figure 5.14 below, showed concern about the imminent commoditisation of the host communities’ culture triggered by the advent of tourism. They feared that the social fabric faced the danger of being destroyed by tourists and operators in their quest to make money out of observing and staging cultural activities.

![Figure 5.14 Local communities challenges in implementing tourism and hospitality operations in their vicinities](image)

Over 17% were more worried about the lack of renewable energy resources and how this could adversely affect the development of tourism when communities cut down trees to provide wood energy for cooking. In addition wood carvings for sale to tourists encouraged the cutting down of trees, a practice which calls for the immediate implementation of tree planting programmes to avert a catastrophic degradation of the environment.
A decrease in environmental quality and land degradation was also a major apprehension for 13% of the respondents even though the same percentage worried more about the development of an appropriate curriculum which addressed tourism and environmental issues whilst 12% cited the intermittent lack of finance and capital resources as serious challenges. Poorly defined titles to ownership of land and other resources of fauna and flora was cited by 7% of the respondents as a major challenge although the same percentage feared the demonstration effect which would be the leading factor causing moral decay of the social fabric within the communities. The demonstration effect would set in when the youth copy consumption patterns of visitors and emulate the tourists as role models. The rest of the respondents brought up the issue of unbalanced and exploitative partnerships (4%) and coping with natural disasters (2%) or mixing tourism and religion (2%) as further challenges facing communities in tourism prone regions.

5.5 Empowerment to enable environmental management and marketing of products so as to strengthen cultural roots.

Questions were also asked in an attempt to establish a way forward in terms of environmental management by communities and how they could be empowered to be more effective in their endeavours. To enable communities to fully exploit economic benefits derived from tourism, they needed to market their wares effectively.

5.5.1 Creation of a responsive curriculum for tourism and hospitality management

Respondents were asked to explain what needed to be done to ensure that the primary school curriculum was responsive to the needs of the labour market and prepared learners for the world of work in the tourism and hospitality industry. At least 27% of them advocated for introducing Tourism and Hospitality as a separate subject at primary school level. Some 12% wanted to introduce subjects that were related to tourism while 10% suggested that primary school teachers be trained in the teaching of Tourism and Hospitality as a subject. Almost an equal number of respondents (9%) wanted to see an active interface between industry and schools through student and learner excursions to
Resort areas. There was also a suggestion that emanated mostly from respondents attached to the CDU in Harare, to merge Tourism and Hospitality with a new subject under review called Design and Technology. Some 6% suggested that there was need for a curriculum review and with that having been instituted, things would fall into place. It is however clear from figure 5.15, that quite a large percentage of the respondents (21%) said that no Tourism and Hospitality subject should be introduced to students at primary level as they should concentrate on learning the basic core subjects of English, another language, Mathematics and Content at this level.

5.5.2 Marketing tools for communities’ tourism and hospitality products
Respondents were asked to suggest ways that would enable local communities to market their wares and artefacts effectively. Figure 5.16 on the next page shows over 29% of the respondents advocating for the use of electronic and print media for the marketing of artifacts and wares targeted at the tourist market while 26% of the respondents preferred localised fairs and exhibitions. Government assisted programmes at marketing were proposed by 21% of the respondents as 14% of the respondents suggested use of the internet and connectivity. This obviously poses a serious challenge as connectivity is still low in the resorts and tourist zones of Zimbabwe. The rest of the respondents
recommended working together with partners or some forms of linkages arising out of franchising and contracting services to boost product marketing within the communities.

**5.5.3 Incorporating Information and Communications Technologies in tourism and hospitality**

Respondents were asked how information technologies could be used to support effective education in computers, music, dance, home economics, sport, arts and culture. The responses presented in figure 5.17 on the next page show that nearly a third of the respondents (32%) granted that information technologies could be used to back up e-learning of tourism and other subjects with just over 23% of the respondents saying that they enhanced sharing and development of ideas especially through social networks. Some 14% of the respondents named the use of emails and enhancement of performance as a major benefit to be derived from information technologies while 9% of the respondents alluded to the idea of the popularity of information technologies backing up popular play tools for learners. Some respondents (5%) identified the role of information technologies in promoting music and preserving cultures. The rest of the respondents
(4%) mentioned the help of information technologies for adapting to new markets. Another 4% of the respondents declared that information technologies buttressed further the research and internet use while another 4% of the respondents talked about information technologies’ support for stimulating investment in computer hardware. The last 4% brought up the issue of information technologies’ aid in the provision of new payment methods for services offered.

Figure 5.17 Implications of incorporating information and computer technologies into the tourism curriculum
5.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the research findings that were compiled from the raw data collected from the four research clusters of Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls which constituted the population of the study. Although data were coded and their frequencies presented in the graphical presentations in this chapter, a lot of qualitative data were also collected and would be used in the next chapter on data analysis. The next chapter (six) will present an analysis and discussion of the presented findings from the primary data sources.
CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6Introduction
The previous chapter (five) concentrated on the presentation of the research findings that were compiled from the raw data collected in four research clusters of Harare, Eastern Highlands, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls which constituted the population of the study. This chapter provides an interpretation, analysis and discussion of the findings and the build-up to the recommendations from the study. In a bid to reinforce the quality of the presentation, content analysis was carried out using the Atlas.ti qualitative analysis software.

The greater part of the analysis covers four major areas of investigation namely:
- how schools and local communities could be institutionalised so that they reap maximum socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits out of the integrated and multiple uses of natural resources within their localities;
- the identification of informal and regulatory guidelines in respect of contracts and working relationships among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities;
- the establishment of the eco-tourism and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities and how the resultant negative impacts could be mitigated; and
- brainstorming on issues related to environmental management and marketing of local tourism products within communities.

6.1 Ways of maximising socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits out of tourism for schools and local communities
One of the major objectives of the researcher was to find out how schools and local communities could reap maximum socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits out of the
integrated and multiple uses of natural resources within their locality. Literature reviewed established that genuine proprietorship of natural resources is necessary if communities are to effectively manage these resources. Nevertheless, in order to facilitate and enable communities to take up ownership of community projects, it is essential to empower the communities, allowing them to reach a position that enables them to manage their resources optimally.

6.1.1 Education and awareness campaigns
There is need to educate and train communities so that they can perform efficiently and effectively. Respondents emphasised the need for strengthening tourism education and awareness. Through tourism education and conservation awareness campaigns, communities can be encouraged to employ best practices which include use of renewable energies, judiciously investing into tourism ventures, cautiously participating in the drafting of tourism legislation and protecting, preserving and conserving the environment. Even those respondents who argued that communities were never meaningfully involved in the running of tourism ventures were in a subtle way admitting that there is need to educate the local communities. Measures identified through respondents include:

- community education on tree planting ventures to enable regeneration of forests and vegetation;
- the use of totems within communities as an effective tool for wildlife protection and preservation;
- the employment of traditionally recommended ways of protecting wildlife areas and preserving of virgin land;
- forbidding the hunting and killing of calving animals;
- encouraging non-destructive methods of collecting wild fruit;
- raising awareness towards respecting and preserving wetlands traditionally considered to be sacred;
- practising permaculture and conservation farming throughout communal lands;
- employing non-destructive fishing methods in lakes, dams and rivers;
- bee-keeping while engaging sustainable honey-collection methods;
o revisiting some controversial religious teachings that might lead to adverse effects on biodiversity like the killing of snakes; and
o exploiting upcoming events and new forms of tourism such as religious tourism to invest in accommodation and conference facilities.

All the above are issues that should be incorporated into the primary school curriculum in the syllabus for the subject (Tourism and Hospitality) to ensure that socio-economic benefits are reaped out of engaging tourism developments.

### 6.1.2 Ownership of natural resources

Besides the issue of education and awareness, reviewed literature also brought up the challenge of ownership of resources (Figure 5.11) and distribution of benefits (Figure 5.7) out of tourism ventures. Respondents on the other hand came out strongly advocating for measures that mitigate on environmental degradation raised through education as well as through economic incentives such as local employment sponsorship of projects that empower communities and public, private and community partnerships.

The respondents argued that considering locals for lucrative positions of employment could instil a sense of responsibility towards tourism ventures and ultimately translate into responsible behaviour towards the environment. The strong emerging feeling was that the communities themselves ought to encourage acclaimed ways of handling trees and forests that do not cause harm or degrade the trees, for instance fruit collection methods that leave the trees intact as cited in section 5.4.2 probing traditional ways of management and preservation of biodiversity. Some people cut fruit trees when collecting fruits or others use stones to fell the wild fruits.

It emerged from the interviews that respondents also believed that ownership of resources by communities could be enhanced through the setting up of breeding conservatories for wild animals that are consumed by human beings. A given percentage of those animals would then be released into the wild once established to be able to survive on their own. Some of the animals could be kept in sanctuaries close to schools for education purposes.
Respondents advance that instead of attracting high volumes of low spending tourists through the implementation of the “Look East Policy” on tourism, it would help to boost domestic tourism by making it a policy that companies sanction a given number of days to be taken as holidays by their employees and schools encourage that school fees include an allowance for taking out a compulsory number of days of holidaying for learners at places of tourist interest in Zimbabwe. There were propositions (Figure 5.13) encouraging schools and communities to plant trees in general and to adopt environmental slogans such as ‘for every tree cut, one needs to plant two trees and water them until they can survive on their own’. Others even went further to propose that at every home, school, church and workplace learners and communities ought to assume a culture of planting both wild fruit trees and contemporary fruit trees, ordinarily grown in orchards to boost the environment and routine nutritional needs. Projects could be invigorated that encourage multiple wildlife conservation by schools and communities, encompassing chicken raring combining guinea fowls and ostrich, fish and crocodile breeding, bee-keeping, rabbit raring among others.

6.1.3 Curriculum review
Respondents were of the view that the current curriculum review should give the education fraternity, an opportunity to realise that sectors of the economy contributing strongly to the GDP like agriculture, mining, manufacturing and tourism should all be introduced from primary school level through the teaching of related subjects. In this way communities would be geared to tackle any empowerment issues related to socio economic development.

Responding to questions related to the quality of primary education in Zimbabwe insofar as tourism developments were concerned as shown on figure 5.8, the respondents were agreed that Zimbabwe does not have a viable long term policy framework on education and training which addresses the current socio-cultural, economic, political and environmental concerns of the country. This position supports the idea expressed elsewhere by respondents that they would like to see more locals within the vicinity of
the tourism resorts favourably employed in tourism operations. The position further echoes the notion shown on figure 5.12 that the Zimbabwe school curriculum laid far too much emphasis on academic education. Consequently, respondents were backing up a school curriculum with more emphasis on manual and practical subjects which have a greater bearing on eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities. They raised the concern that the curriculum does not provide for in-depth coverage of tourism and hospitality issues except for skeletal content on historical sites. Practical oriented subjects such as Environmental Science, Geography, Social Studies, Art and Culture, Wildlife Management, Home Economics and Physical Education integrating Sport also found favour with the respondents who contended that the content on the subjects could be refined to show their practical relevance to jobs in the tourism and hospitality sector. Moreover in the current setup, there is very little by way of practical skills included in the existing curricula that are tested at Grade 7 and respondents believe that such a stance shows a general disregard for industrial training and job creation.

According to the current primary school curriculum, learners are examined in the core subjects, (English, Shona, Mathematics and Content) at Grade 7. The practical subjects (Environmental Science, Geography, Social Studies, Art and Culture, Wildlife Management, Home Economics and Physical Education (figure 3.3) could be examined under Tourism and Hospitality. Incidentally, respondents suggested that areas with a potential for investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe included the management of conservancies in the country, tour operations, prospects in the accommodation sector and investments catering for Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE). Other sectors albeit receiving less support were sport, music, art and drama.

Although some respondents did not recognise sport tourism as part of the tourism and hospitality industry, reviewed literature identified three domains of sport tourism and these are:

- active sport tourism, which refers to people who travel to take part in sport (Hall, 1992);
• event sport tourism, which refers to travel to watch sporting events; and
• nostalgia sport tourism, which includes visits to sports museums, famous sports venues and sports themed tours (Weed and Bull, 2004).

Physical education and sports in primary schools would render the following twofold advantages to the learners and communities:
• health benefits for those who take part; and
• research and development for various forms of sports especially the indigenous varieties.

Making reference to the introduction of subjects with a practical orientation, examples of the National Foundation Courses written at “O” Level were cited with a recommendation to emphasise the importance of sport, music, dance, arts and culture in the primary school. It was further mentioned alongside this reference that the current National Foundation Courses should be given an “O” level status in order to enable one to use it to eventually pursue a higher qualification: diploma; higher national diploma; or degree in technical vocational, business / commercial studies.

Further comments on curriculum review dwelt on recommendations encouraging developing e-learning software (figure 5.17) to cater for education using computers on music, dance, home economics, sport, arts and culture. Respondents expressed the need to resuscitate the Zimbabwe Literature Bureau to rope in local publishers to write and print education materials locally. The Literature Bureau is credited with promoting indigenous languages development which constitute the pillars of basic learning and positive cultural development. Once revived, the Bureaux could also spearhead the development of drama, visual and performing arts. Emphasis was also given to the grooming of budding artists in practical areas with special emphasis on tourism teaching and learning materials. What the authors would need to do would be to collaborate with the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) to enable them to use the CDU syllabuses to guide them in their writing and publications.
6.1.4 Incorporating the learning domains of Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives and Possibilities

Reviewed literature reveals that Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is widely used to develop schools curricula, normally incorporating aims commonly written in the form of (Bloom et al., 1956):

- affective domain which refers to aspects of human development embracing non-cognitive, emotions, aesthetic sense, attitudes, values, beliefs and the spectrum of value systems;
- cognitive domain which refers to the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities categorised into Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation; and
- psychomotor domain which contains aspects of learning associated with movement and skill demonstration and integrates the cognitive and affective consequences with physical performances.

Basing on Bloom et al (1956)’s cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains, schools prepare learners and educate them to accept their social responsibilities as members of a democratic society. Furthermore, learners acquire knowledge and develop skills, values and attitudes which will enable them to contribute to society as active, informed and confident citizens. When asked to explain what needs to be done to the primary school curriculum to be responsive to the needs of the labour market and to prepare learners for the world of work in the tourism and hospitality industry, respondents advocated for the introduction of *Tourism and Hospitality* as a separate subject at primary school level or settle for subjects related to tourism in practical form. They even went on to suggest that primary school teachers be trained in the teaching of *Tourism and Hospitality* or its related disciplines to be taken as examinable subjects. They were adamant about the inevitable active interface between industry and schools through pupil, learner or student excursions to resort areas. Another demonstration of the importance of incorporating the psychomotor domain in the primary school curriculum is the proposed assimilation of Tourism and Hospitality with a new subject under review called ‘*Design and Technology*’.
Respondents reiterated that a learner-centred curriculum provides a basis for personal fulfillment and prepares learners for coping with today’s dynamic changing environment. Such a curriculum also provides a basis for enhancing the learners’ future employability. As a result, respondents agree with Castles and Rossiter (1983) that, it will not be appropriate to presume that a subject should have a place in the school curriculum simply because it represents a traditional academic discipline, imparts specific knowledge and skills or develops a set of key employment related competencies. Rather, the justification of its place requires a clarification of how it contributes in both general and distinctive ways to the personal development of learners and society.

If the apparent concern of a school is to develop language, mathematical, scientific and other academic and vocational abilities, and if there is no comparable study of culture, language, art, music, traditional customs, tourism and hospitality, then the absence of attention to these areas can alert young people that there is no educational interest in the way they perceive their environment, their heritage and ultimately their visitors. The perception is that the environment, heritage and visitors management can take care of itself, or it will happen incidentally while the 'real' education goes on.

6.2 Informal and regulatory guidelines among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities

One of the major objectives of sustainable tourism is to ensure that tourism development brings a positive experience for local people, captains of industry and the tourists themselves (Wight, 1993; Honey and Gilpin, 2009; Mawere and Mubaya, 2012). These scholars postulate that sustainable tourism implies responsible tourism that is sensitive to its environment or surroundings. As a result they coined the term ecotourism to this kind of development. The researcher established that respondents supported tourism and hospitality industry developments that are sensitive not only to the tourism environment and biodiversity but also to the local culture and traditional norms and ways of living. They hailed the use of information and computer technologies (figure 5.17) as the panacea for advanced e-learning, investments into computer hardware and internet use although
they had serious concerns related to the use of social networks and unfettered access to classified or unsuitable information by young learners.

Reviewed literature revealed that way back in 1966, the Rhodesian government introduced what they designated F2 secondary schools to provide selected learners who had failed to make it to the traditional secondary school, with an education supporting largely the practical oriented semi-skilled labour in the economy. In contrast the normal secondary F1 schools were more academically oriented. During interviews, the researcher probed the idea of introducing F2 schools at primary level. In their responses interviewees raised the problem of stigmatization likely to emerge besides arguing that learners at primary school level are too young and small to cope with the challenges brought about by the practical work.

Ministry of Education records show that an attempt to reintroduce practical subjects at secondary level was made after independence in 1980 when the Zimbabwe government introduced a pilot project known as the Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production (ZIMFEP). The much advertised programme was dubbed ‘Education with Production’ but it inadvertently failed to garner support apparently due to stigmatisation. Resistance to this system of education also came from pressure groups lobbying against the perceived exploitation of learners through child labour as well as the widespread teachers attitudes against the practice which tend to frustrate the idea. The notion of ‘Education with Production’ was perceived to be appropriate for developing specialised skills but it proved to be too expensive to undertake viably.

Although there was repeated allusion of the need to guard against specialisation at primary school level under the pretext that, learners should be exposed to the general education as a base for future specialised training, paradoxically it became apparent that it is at this level where technical/vocational subjects ought to be introduced. Learners at primary education level should be able to choose or be streamlined among availed technical, vocational, business/commercial and academic career paths. It should not be policy that technical or vocational education is offered to those who have failed Grade 7
or Form 4 only, because this leads to stigmatisation which became the case with the previously introduced F2 stream resulting in this strategy being regarded as a ploy to keep the black child down and uneducated.

It would be prudent for Zimbabwe to introduce practical oriented subjects at primary level but such a move calls for the involvement of parents and their traditional leadership in crafting the curriculum. The local leadership should be drawn into planning the use of resources, the cutting down of trees for use by wood sculptures in schools and communities and the use of stones for stone sculptures together with the digging up of clay for pottery and cutting of reeds for weaving. The parents have to support the preparations for the assessments and streaming of their children in their choice of subjects and career paths.

Respondents stressed the importance of education on the use of sustainable energy sources (figure 5.7 and 5.14) that curb the indiscriminate cutting down of trees, soil erosion, air pollution and hunting of wild animals. They voiced their wish that everybody should play a role in ensuring the prevention of veld fires which destroy tourist resorts, wildlife and biodiversity.

Probed further, respondents supported a national shared vision on tourism development and green issues that allow incorporation of a teacher’s guide which could be reliably developed to empower the subjects’ resource persons. Having noted the prominence of primary education as the key foundation of any person, respondents proceeded to advocate for a second level involving the curriculum development by colleges for those teachers (figure 5.15) who would develop an effective educational methodology for practical education at primary level. They pointed out that the significance of coming up with an education curriculum at this delicate level must not be taken lightly as a lot of ‘experts’ can come up with glaring course contents and still fail to implement their writings effectively.
Quite a number of respondents reiterated the challenges that led to the failure of the policy of education with production which revolved around mostly, stigmatisation and limitations on the number of available resource persons or the number of experts with experience to deliver effective content from the curriculum at primary level. Throughout the education system most experts on tourism and green issues are found at post-secondary school or college level which identifies a big gap on primary school teachers.

Literature reveals that a lot of the rhetoric around tourism is linked to conservationist agendas that view subsistence land use on communal land as insufficient and harmful to the environment. People and animals should be segregated to live in communal lands and national parks consecutively. There seems to be a perception that tourism and wildlife should to a large extent replace current subsistence land uses because tourism and hospitality uses are more efficient and environmentally friendly. This however, ignores the fact that access to land and subsistence agriculture play an important role in providing a social safety net for the poor and marginalized. It also ignores the importance of diversified forms of livelihood in uncertain economic and environmental conditions.

Asked to say what they perceived as areas with a potential for investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry in Zimbabwe, as alluded to earlier, respondents professed that investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry lay within the management of conservancies, tour operations, accommodation provision, business travel, sport, music, art and drama, (figure 5.10) seemingly areas that could be incorporated into the primary school curriculum as part of the subject ‘tourism and hospitality’.

Respondents confirmed that they would like to see locals within the vicinity of tourism resorts favourably employed in tourism operations. Realising that inevitably those locals might otherwise end up taking menial and unskilled jobs because of their lower levels of education and apparent lack of skills, respondents went on to add that education for communities is paramount. This education ought to be followed up by sponsorship programmes and corporate responsibility on the part of tourism operators. Relationships can be built on the basis of public private sector partnerships. Sustainable tourism
development in Zimbabwe requires this type of cooperation as it brings together tour operators, hoteliers and transport providers and their state partners’ interests and concerns towards achieving a common goal of responsible tourism development. Akintoye et al (2003) define a public private partnership as a ‘long-term contractual arrangement between a public sector agency and a private sector concern, whereby resources and risks are shared for the purpose of developing a public facility’. Miyamoto and Biouss (2013) view public private partnership in terms of a ‘long term contractual arrangement between a public authority and a private partner whereby the private partner finances and delivers public services using capital assets and sharing associated risks’. There is therefore a need for the state, schools, communities and tourism and hospitality industry operators to come together and forge public, private partnership arrangements to steer sustainable, viable tourism developments. Share ownership alone in the tourism and hospitality facilities is not enough as this form of relationship assures benefits in the form of dividend payments but these are only payable when the enterprises realise profits. There is need for communities to actively participate in the management of enterprises in their counties rather than be inactive partners through share ownership.

6.3 Eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities
Ecotourism was described in the literature as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people (Ceballos-Lascuran, 1983; TIES, 1990; Honey, 2008). Ecotourism is about uniting conservation, communities and sustainable travel. This means that those who implement and participate in ecotourism activities should endeavour to minimise the impact of tourism on the environment by building environmental and cultural awareness and respect.

Respondents cited the use of totems (figure 5.13) as an effective traditional tool for wildlife protection and preservation. Traditionally, communities do not hunt animals belonging to their totems instead, they protect and preserve them. This safeguards the thriving of a variety of animal species that might otherwise be endangered. Such a traditional practice also augments the provision of constructive quality experiences for
both visitors and hosts in respect of non-consumptive tourism or photographic safaris. What's more, such provisions when carried out through public private partnerships would stimulate and trigger the setting up of financial resources for conservation at the same time availing economic benefits and avenues of empowerment for local people. Likewise, the profile of conservation issues would be raised across the board and sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental and social climate would be heightened.

Respondents were not against hunting. Instead they cited specific traditionally recommended ways of protecting wildlife areas and preservation of virgin land with hunting amongst them as an effective tool. The traditional idea of forbidding the hunting and killing of calving animals (figure 5.13) was given special attention. Environmentally friendly methods of collecting wild fruits were another specified tool used to protect plant life. Some respondents argued in favour of respecting and preserving wetlands which are traditionally considered to be sacred. In terms of land uses, respondents quoted traditional permaculture and conservation farming alongside controlled mining, responsible tourism and traditional fishing as means of sustainable development. Respondents stated non-destructive fishing methods traditionally practised by communities as particularly important and effective. They emphasised that fish breeding through artificial means ought to be part of the curriculum. Communities should constantly replenish water reservoirs through fish hatcheries which are facilities that release juvenile fish into the wild for recreational fishing or to supplement numbers of existing species. Fish breeding techniques could form part of the curriculum in schools.

Respondents applauded traditional honey collection methods while others endorsed revisiting religious beliefs pointing out in particular, that snakes suffered stigmatisation notwithstanding human attacks or being killed as a result of the biblical ruling that Adam was advised to kill the snake as punishment for coning Eve into consuming the forbidden fruit. Snake and reptile lovers could then enjoy tours into the wildlife under the direction of professional tour guides who are well versed with the local habitat.
There were arguments raised by respondents to the effect that environmental sustainability must not be restricted to tourism developments in isolation, but must be extended to include other majors sectors of the economy like agriculture, manufacturing and mining ventures. It is imperative for communities to asses Zimbabwe’s mineral wealth before embarking on mining and restrict it to ventures that which meet the basic necessities of the country and preserve the rest of the reserves for future generations. This inadvertently gives the environment room to regenerate and be consequently available for a mix of other land uses like agriculture and mining.

Tourism guidelines like the ‘low volume high value’ tourism policy were recommended by respondents as a means of conserving the environment. This strategy aims at attracting low numbers of high spending visitors who basically travel individually or in small groups of up to ten persons each. This suggests that in order to viably steer the ‘Look East Policy’ adopted by Zimbabwe in 2003, only the up-market high ends of the Chinese, Japanese, Singaporean and South Korean markets would need to be targeted. Such a policy however needs to be buttressed by a sound flourishing domestic tourism development through making it policy among other measures that companies contribute payments towards a given number of days making up part of employees time off and that schools encourage that school fees include at least two days of holidaying for learners at places of interest in Zimbabwe.

Tourism developments are largely dependent on information and computer technologies. Respondents pointed out that today’s learners use computers as play tools. By introducing e-learning in schools, a horde of other opportunities would be opened up for primary school learners and communities. Investments into computer hardware would be enhanced and computer literate service providers would offer visitors more varied and improved services.

6.4 Environmental management and marketing of local tourism products

The tourism and hospitality is dogged by the following five major problem areas:
• the hospitality sector is a huge energy consumer for heating, cooling, electricity, transportation and imports over long distances;
• tourists are high consumers of water for baths, showers, swimming pools, laundry, maintaining green and garden areas and sports facilities;
• large amounts of liquid and solid waste are produced mainly through kitchens, ablutions, boating and transportation only regularly left to flow into rivers, lakes, seas and oceans;
• accommodation provision such as safari lodges in fragile or sensitive environments can cause serious damage to flora and fauna; and
• lack of, limited or absence of employee education and Community Development, affect the willingness of the local populations to accept the impacts and influences of the visitors.

A closer look at Zimbabwe’s economy reveals that the country’s tourism is grounded on its unique cultural and natural heritage which is made up of sensitive ecosystems encompassing national parks and wildlife. United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development shows usage of energy in Zimbabwe as largely reliant on non-renewable wood fuel, liquid fuel and electricity. The situation is exacerbated by the sale of wood carvings to tourists which encourages the cutting down of trees, a practice which demands the immediate implementation of tree planting programmes to guarantee regeneration of the resource. Coupled with that is the sale of stone sculptures which are dependent on stone extractions again a non-renewable resource. When people consume more energy resources that provide tourism attractions and habitat to tourism wildlife, bio-diversity is removed. As more bio-diversity is removed tourism becomes untenable leading to unsustainable development.

Respondents recognised that in order to avert a catastrophic degradation of the environment and sustain the use of wood fuels there is need for more support for the Schools and Colleges Tree Growing and Tree Care Programmes as part of the National Tree Planting Programme. Further aspects advanced to bolster this programme were increasing production of tree seedlings at community based nurseries in line with the
strategies to decentralize this activity and to involve communities in reforestation. Schools and communities also need to collaborate expansively with the non-governmental organisations-based working groups on woodlands who meet periodically to discuss woodland management issues in Zimbabwe. To effectively deal with problems related to the use of wood fuels consultations to formulate a woodland management policy for the country, need to involve schools and communities at all levels.

In order for the country to enjoy a viable tourism development and enable communities to fully exploit economic benefits derived from tourism, there is need to promote the tourism products locally and internationally (figure 5.16), but promotion is a capital intensive venture. A sound tourism base can however be heightened through established local markets braced by communities or government geared on domestic tourism growths. Established local markets make it possible for communities to easily promote tourism and hospitality products and be motivated to invest more through the local available materials. Respondents advocated for the creation of community groups that can exhibit their products at district, provincial or national level, aided by government and corporate sponsorship. They recommended that computers be availed to pupils / learners at an early age. They said that learners would develop an appetite for information technologies and discover information in most of the areas on their own and possibly improve their own performance. The challenge is that of low or no connectivity in remote areas of the country when it comes to the use of the internet.

Information technologies can however be efficiently used to support effective education in computers, music, dance, home economics, sport, arts and culture. Respondents said that information technologies could be used to back up tourism e-leaning and other subjects thereby enhancing development of ideas especially through social networks. Benefits include the use of emails, enhancement of performance, back-up of popular play tools for learners and promotion of music and drama, thereby helping in preserving cultures. Respondents even suggested the creation of a website with a dedicated tourist menu that gives all the details about availability and use of renewable energy sources in
the country and the policies relating to it as well as codes and conduct and best practices for communities, operators and tourists alike.

Besides the use of computers to reinforce the marketing and promotion of tourism products, respondents came up with the use of electronic and print media as possible vehicles for marketing their tourism artefacts and wares. Promotion through the electronic and print media being costly, respondents recommended that schools and communities work together with partners or engage some forms of linkages arising out of franchising and contracting services to boost product marketing and promotion locally and abroad.

6.5 Challenges facing schools and rural communities in tourism development

Reviewed literature showed that since local communities play a distinctive role in the maintenance of the tourism product itself, the need to educate the communities on environmental conservation is paramount. Given the complexity, sensitivity and diversity of players involved in the tourist experience, there are challenges related to local community involvement in tourism developments as highlighted by the respondents, which revolve around effects on culture, shortages of capital and human resources and lack of interest among the rural members.

The influence of tourism can lead locals to lose respect for their own culture as they interact with foreigners and assimilate foreign practices. Respondents showed concern about the imminent commoditisation of the host communities’ culture (figure 5.14) triggered by the advent of tourism. They feared that the social fabric faced the danger of being destroyed by tourists and operators in their quest to make money out of observing and staging cultural activities. The young people especially, fall victim to the demonstration effect which would be the leading factor causing moral decay resulting from youth behaviour that sets in when the youth copy consumption patterns of visitors and emulate the tourists as role models.
Engaging in tourism can also lead to the dire need to earn money, an exercise which subsequently brings about the commoditisation of culture, thus stimulating the loss of real cultural values. While some respondents expressed the view that there was no relationship between tourism and religion, others felt that religion had a strong impact on tourism developments poignant of negative attitudes on cultural issues. Communities are however dogged by the apparent lack of knowledge on how to preserve and protect their cultural environment. There was widespread agreement that if tourism would be practised by indigenous business people there would be less value on the protection and preservation of societal and cultural norms and values. This impression presupposes changing the mind-set of local business persons in their view of and participation in domestic tourism.

A decrease in environmental quality and land degradation was also a major apprehension for the respondents. Respondents alluded to problems emanating from climate change and natural disasters citing them as critical, but identifying poverty as the biggest challenge. There is need for favouring land uses that sustain communities in competition with fauna and flora. The problems related to cutting down of trees for heating, cooking and sculpturing, can be alleviated through educating communities on tree planting and preservation of woodlands and forests.

Murphree (1991), Petersen (1991) and McIvor (1994) among others focused primarily on CAMPFIRE projects and their contribution to sustainable development in Zimbabwe. They did not adequately deal with the challenges facing communities with respect to project management which is not done by the communities but is taken care of by central or local government authorities in conjunction with non-governmental organisations. Respondents advocated for educating the communities to equip them with project planning skills and elevate them to a position of proactive participation in the community development projects. This situation presupposes equipping communities with project management skills and entrepreneurial skills. As far as drought is concerned, educating communities in permaculture and conservation farming coupled with rain water
harvesting techniques would guarantee good harvests and ultimately help curb the menace of poaching.

A serious challenge facing schools and local communities is lack of financial and capital resources for education and ownership of resources. Without a school curriculum that ensures effective education in the practical tourism and hospitality arena, learners and communities will suffer from lack of skills, a situation which ultimately degenerates into unbalanced and exploitative relationships developing between operators and communities. The relationship between hosts and tourists is also adversely affected. Failure to acquire capital resources and finance is a manifestation of lack of education. Communities need to be empowered through education to enable them to become entrepreneurs and participate implicitly in tourism and hospitality developments in their localities. Respondents believe that the challenge of poorly defined titles to ownership of land and other resources of fauna and flora can be tackled equally through education empowerment. Communities need to be able to understand legal issues related to land tenure, share ownership of resources, the question of consumptive tourism and environmental assessment and auditing of which education is the answer.

6.6 Conclusion
This chapter presented an analysis of the data that were collected and presented in a quantitative manner in chapter five. Content analysis was carried out in this chapter (six) with a comparative analysis and in-depth discussion of the major issues raised during interviews, data collection and those presented in the literature review section (Chapter two).

The next chapter (seven) is to present the recommendations and conclusion drawn from the study. Areas for further research are discussed and recommended in this last chapter.
CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7 Introduction
The previous chapter provided an analysis, discussion and interpretation of the findings addressing the following research questions driving this study:

- How can schools and local communities be empowered to get the maximum socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits from the integrated and multiple uses of their natural resources?
- What forms of contracts can institutionalised and regulatory guidelines take among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities?
- What are the eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities and how the negative impacts be minimised?
- How can schools and local communities be empowered to manage their environment and market their products so as to strengthen their cultural roots?

In this chapter recommendations from the study are presented and a conclusion drawn from the analysis and discussion of the collected data. Also presented in this chapter are the related areas for further research emanating from the research findings.

7.1 Conclusion
The objectives of this study were summarised in chapter one as follows:

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 as well as protection and preservation of biodiversity.

The first objective is intended to identify a curriculum to teach tourism and hospitality management to learners at primary school level in Zimbabwe. This objective was realised. The study has proffered a realistic and practical framework for the development of a primary school curriculum in Zimbabwe. *Tourism and Hospitality* as a subject encompasses largely practical learning areas comprising music, dance, drama, home economics, physical education, computers, history, geography, environmental science, languages, art and crafts. All these disciplines can be offered under the banner of tourism and hospitality management. Learners can be given the freedom to choose areas of specialisation as they progress through various levels of primary education.

Care should however be exercised when implementing the above, since there is need to guard against specialisation at primary school level, as learners should essentially be exposed to the general education as a base for future specialised training.
The second objective aimed at identifying a curriculum to teach tourism and hospitality management to rural communities to enable them to develop skills to promote sustainable tourism in their regions. The recommended primary school curriculum can be used for rural communities’ adult-education-programmes for those in a position to attend primary school or through non-formal education channels for school leavers and those unable to attend normal day classes. Communities can also use the curriculum as part of their in-service training programmes when they venture into tourism and hospitality employment.

The third objective was intended to develop a model or framework that would link education at primary school level and community training to benefit sustainable tourism development in Zimbabwe. This objective was realised as a model linking a primary school level curriculum and community training was successfully developed and presented.

The fourth objective was to establish the challenges facing local communities when they manage their environment vis. a vis. tourism development and the preservation of their culture. Challenges facing local communities were identified as possible acculturation, commoditisation of community culture, environmental degradation, ill-defined ownership of resources, inadequate project management skills, and lack of finance. Possible solutions to these challenges were presented most of which were linked to a suitable education curriculum.

The fifth objective was to determine the negative impacts of eco- and cultural tourism on schools and local communities and how they can be minimised. This objective was achieved as likely negative impacts from the development of eco- and cultural tourism were identified and solutions on their mitigation successfully tendered.

The sixth objective was geared towards the development of policy and regulatory guidelines for public-private-sector rural communities working contracts which guarantee community benefits and sustained tourism development as well as protection
and preservation of biodiversity. Proposals on public-private-sector partnerships were tendered covering contract arrangements, franchises and share ownership plans. The fundamental assumption is that literate communities should participate and contribute to tourism and hospitality developments in their regions.

Another assumption is that government and the corporate sector are prepared to sponsor community involvement and ownership of tourism and hospitality ventures, besides supporting peoples’ education, environmental management and community development. Schools also need to be capitalised to enable them initiate the teaching of practical subjects which require heavy infrastructural investments in the form of animal sanctuaries, fish ponds and dams, botanic gardens, museums, musical instruments, theatres, sport infrastructures and events among others.

The curriculum development resulting from the study goes a long way in proposing best practices for the preservation and protection of the environment. Schools and communities are being asked to play a part in vigorous tree-planting programmes, contour and conservation farming, energy saving programmes, professional tour guiding, use of totems, biodiversity preservation and protection, in a nutshell “Education with Leisure and Production”.

7.2 Recommendations

7.2.1 Inclusion of practical subjects in the school curricula

The research indicated that the Zimbabwe school curriculum laid far too much emphasis on academic education. Tourism and hospitality content is more practically oriented. A school curriculum with more emphasis on manual and practical subjects which have a greater bearing on eco- and cultural tourism developments is therefore strongly recommended. Practical subjects such as music, dance, drama, physical education, computers, home economics, art and crafts need to be drafted into the primary school curriculum and examined at Grade 7 level together with English, Mathematics another language and General Paper or Content. The options are:
• to examine these subjects as individual subjects in their own right;
• to incorporate them into the new proposed subject “Design and Technology”; or
• to have them be under the banner of “Tourism and Hospitality” as a separate subject.

This incorporation of academic and practical subjects can be buttressed by an active interface between industry, schools and communities through organised, sponsored and regular pupil, learner or student excursions to major tourist resort areas.

### 7.2.2 Use of ICT in schools and communities

Tourism and hospitality developments are largely dependent on the use of information and computer technologies. It is therefore essential that computers and connectivity are availed to all primary schools and rural communities. In order to curb the negative effects of social networks, there is need to develop locally based e-learning software on the learning of music, dance, computers, home economics, sport, arts and culture.

### 7.2.3 Tourism and hospitality promotion

It is prudent for the government to avail computers to learners at an early age. Learners will develop an appetite for information technologies and discover information in most of the areas on their own and possibly improve their own performance. Incentives can be put in place to allow schools and communities to source computers and accessories at rebated customs duties.

There is need to gazette legislation encouraging companies to sanction a given number of days to be taken as holidays by their employees and for schools to encourage taking out a compulsory number of days of holidaying for learners at places of tourist interest in and around Zimbabwe.
The creation of a website with a dedicated tourist menu that supplies details about use of renewable energy sources in the country and policies encompassing codes of conduct and best practices for communities, operators and tourists alike, will go a long way in promoting sustainable tourism.

7.2.4 Protection and preservation of culture through the Tourism and Hospitality curriculum for primary schools
In a bid to protect and preserve culture, there is a need to resuscitate the writing and publishing of indigenous languages and literature. This can be achieved through the reopening of the Zimbabwe Literature Bureau together with the grooming of budding artists in other areas to promote local languages. A special emphasis on tourism teaching and use of tourism and hospitality learning materials can be employed to support the introduction and teaching of practical subjects in schools and communities.

7.2.5 Tourism and Hospitality curriculum for schools and communities
There is a need to come up with a code of conduct to be channelled through the curriculum that takes cognisance of traditional conservation methods:

- community education on tree planting ventures to enable regeneration of forests and vegetation;
- the use of totems within communities as an effective tool for wildlife protection and preservation;
- the employment of traditionally recommended ways of protecting wildlife areas and preserving of virgin land;
- forbidding the hunting and killing of young or calving animals;
- encouraging non-destructive methods of collecting wild fruit;
- raising awareness towards respecting and preserving wetlands traditionally considered to be sacred;
- practising contour ploughing, permaculture and conservation farming throughout communal lands and in schools;
o employing non-destructive fishing methods in lakes, dams and rivers;

- bee-keeping while engaging sustainable honey-collection methods;

- revisiting some controversial religious teachings that might lead to adverse effects on biodiversity like the killing of snakes; and

- exploiting upcoming events and new forms of tourism such as religious tourism to invest in accommodation and conference facilities.

7.2.6 Partnerships between schools, communities, tourism operators and government public service providers

According to the indigenisation and empowerment law, foreign-owned mining companies operating in Zimbabwe are compelled to dispose 51% shareholding to locals and at least 10% of this equity is supposed to be ceded towards community share ownership schemes which are reserved for the local community in which the firm operates. Forging partnerships between communities, tourism operators and government, boosts the flow of capital subsidies into eco-tourism ventures thereby enhancing environmental conservation efforts. It is therefore imperative that legislation be enacted that cedes substantial community share ownership (much more than the 10%) of tourism and hospitality enterprises to communities in order to protect them against the problems of lack of capital and their insecure weak titles to wildlife and conservation areas as well as the unequal, unbalanced and potentially exploitative relationships. Furthermore, the education provided to communities ought to address the communities’ apparent limited technical expertise in environmental issues. The curriculum should therefore cover topics dealing with entrepreneurship, environmental management, transportation, music, art, home economics, tour guiding and tour packaging.

Furthermore, there is need to introduce legislation that guarantees local employment for all positions including lucrative senior positions in all tourism enterprises. This kind of employment could instil a sense of responsibility towards tourism ventures and ultimately translate into responsible behaviour towards the environment.
7.2.7 Sustainable Tourism and hospitality development through education

There is a need to set up breeding conservatories for wild animals that are consumed by human beings at rural primary schools and community animal sanctuaries for education purposes. A given percentage of those animals would then be released into the wildlife once established to be able to survive on their own.

Education authorities should advocate for a situation where at every home, school, church and workplace, learners and communities assume a culture of planting both wild fruit trees and contemporary fruit trees ordinarily grown in orchards to boost the environment and routine nutritional needs for individuals and society at large.

In order to curb the indiscriminate cutting down of trees, soil erosion, air pollution and hunting of wild animals, there is a need to encourage the use of sustainable energy sources such as solar and wind technologies to generate power. The curriculum should include the following measures to preserve and protect the environment:

- education on continued tree planting by learners and communities;
- techniques on responsible honey and food extraction;
- lessons on cultivation of medicinal herbs;
- management of conservancies and wildlife; and
- contour and conservation farming methods.

7.3 Areas for further research

7.3.1 Value of benefits to local communities

The benefits of tourism development to a destination have been articulated in so many forms but those accruing to the local communities have hardly been identified. There is need to carry out further research within local communities to ascertain exactly how far the local communities are benefiting from tourism and hospitality developments in their regions. In this way the contribution of tourism to an economy can be determined.
7.3.2 Introduction of tourism and hospitality to the secondary education curriculum
Tourism and Hospitality is currently being offered as a subject at A-level in colleges and in universities. This research has probed specifically the possibilities of introducing tourism and hospitality in the primary education curriculum. There is now a gap as to the enhancement of further education in the field of tourism and hospitality at secondary school level of education. Further research needs to be carried out to establish how tourism can be supported for secondary school learners.

7.3.3 Spatial developments in the creation of national parks and wildlife sanctuaries
The establishment of the Yellowstone National Park in USA in 1872, triggered a global national park programme creating over 1200 national parks worldwide to help preserve local history and create close-to-home recreational opportunities for many countries. Zimbabwe followed suite with the founding as far back as 1928 of Hwange National Park which today is Zimbabwe's largest national park and one of the world’s last elephant sanctuaries. The concept behind the creation of these national parks saw to a large extend the movement of local communities to make way for animal habitat. There is a need for further research to establish if it is a prerequisite for sustainable tourism development for communities to live separately from wildlife or for humans and animals to share the same habitat as was the case before the creation of national parks. Research should also extend to probing issues relating to ownership and title to natural resources and wildlife. Who owns the mountains, rivers, plains, monuments, forests and the Victoria Falls? Who should champion the further developments of tourism and hospitality and how far should the traditional norms and customs be incorporated into these developments?
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Interview Guide

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE
FACULTY OF COMMERCE

The objective of this study is to enhance the Zimbabwean primary school curriculum and training programmes to accommodate tourism and hospitality education effectively. You are kindly asked to tick in the appropriate box and fill in the blanks. Your responses will be used solely for the purposes of this research and will be treated in strict confidence. The research is academic and names will not be mentioned. It will benefit the tourism and hospitality industry, learners and communities living around national parks and wildlife estates.

A. Demographic details
   i. Please indicate your gender
      Male □   Female □

   ii. How long have you worked in your organisation?
      Less than 2 years □   2-5 Years □   6 Years or more □

   iii. Please indicate your level of Education
      Up to O-Level □   Diploma Level □
      Degree Level □   Masters / PhD Level □

   iv. Please indicate your employment position in your organisation
      Administrator □   Supervisor □   Manager □
      Director □   School Head □   Chief Executive □
      Lecturer □   Tour Guide □
      Other, Specify..............................,,

B. Organisation Details
   v. In what business are you?
      Tourism □   Hospitality □   Education □
      National Monuments □   Business Council □   Environment □
      Aviation □   Government □
      Other, Specify.................................

C. Schools and local community empowerment to enable maximum socio- economic and cultural benefits to be reaped out of the integrated and multiple uses of natural resources.
1) How can Zimbabweans reap benefits from their natural resources without damaging or depleting the resources themselves?

2) In your own opinion do you think Zimbabwe has a viable long term policy framework on Education and Training? Kindly explain.

3) How satisfied are you with the quality of education offered at primary level in Zimbabwe? Kindly rate.

4) Does the curriculum at primary level sufficiently prepare learners for the challenges faced in the tourism and hospitality industry workplace? Please explain your response.
5) How can the primary schools’ curriculum be improved to prepare learners and put them in a position to reap maximum benefits out of the tourism and hospitality industry?

6) In 1966, the Rhodesian government introduced F2 secondary schools to provide selected learners who had failed to make it to secondary school, with an education more suited to their largely rural environment supporting semi-skilled labour in the economy. Would this system be applicable to primary education in Zimbabwe today? Kindly comment.

7) Describe any subjects you would consider critical at primary level that would invariably provide valuable education for people living in and around National Parks and Wildlife Estates in Zimbabwe today?

D. Institutionalisation and regulatory guidelines of contracts among the public sector, private operators, local government, schools and local communities.
8) What do you see as investment opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industry?

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9) Describe the kind of working relationship between the rural communities and tourism operators that can enhance and promote responsible tourism.

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E. Eco- and cultural tourism’s impacts on schools and local communities and how the negative impacts can be minimised.

10) ‘The primary school curriculum in Zimbabwe lays far too much emphasis on academic education rather than manual or industrial training’. Is this true? Kindly give comments.

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11) In 1980 the Zimbabwe government introduced a pilot project known as the Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production (ZIMFEP). Discuss the implementation of such a project today, “Education with Production”. 

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12) Can you comment on the Zimbabwe National Craft Certificate or the National Foundation Certificate, and their possible contribution at primary and secondary levels in education in tourism, hospitality, sport, music, dance, arts and culture?

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13) Kindly cite any traditional forms of wildlife management and biodiversity protection that can be incorporated into a primary school curriculum to enhance the development of eco-tourism.

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F. Empowerment to enable environmental management and marketing of products so as to strengthen cultural roots.

14) Describe the challenges facing local communities when they manage their environment vis. a vis. tourism development and the preservation of their culture?

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15) Can you explain what needs to be done to ensure the primary school curriculum is responsive to the needs of the labour market preparing learners for the world of work in the tourism and hospitality industry?

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16) Kindly suggest ways that would enable local communities to market their wares and artefacts effectively.

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17) What incentives can be provided to encourage writing and printing of educational materials for tourism education in Zimbabwe?

18) How can information technologies be used to promote effective education in computers, music, dance, home economics, sport, arts and culture?

Please give us any other comments that you feel may be relevant to the topic at the back of this paper.

Thank you, and God bless you. Have a nice day.