



Community Based Tourism ventures apt for communities around the Save Valley Conservancy in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

In Zimbabwe, tourism contributed about 10.4% to the GDP in 2014 making it one of the most important economic contributors. However, tourism development in that country is heavily skewed towards traditional and already developed tourism destinations such as the famous Victoria Falls, Hwange National Park and Kariba for example, with little effort directed towards community-based tourism (CBT) to achieve sustainable tourism development in remote rural areas where wildlife tourism is the main attraction. In areas such as the Save Valley (SV) tourism sustainability is threatened by conflict, tension, and hostility which originated from the colonial period following the passing of the Land Apportionment Act of 1930. The situation has been worsened by the lack of a framework for facilitating (CBT) as a strategy to reduce poverty in local communities while also promoting sustainable wildlife conservation. Properly planned CBT is believed to be capable of enabling local communities to participate in tourism development and derive meaningful and sustainable socio-economic benefits while contributing to wildlife conservation. The study adopted a non-positivist paradigm within a case study, and a cross-sectional design aimed at collaborative construction of multiple realities through dialogue and observation. The study found that there were numerous possible CBT ventures suitable for the communities bordering the SVC. These included, in order of preference by the respondents, vegetable outgrowing to supply established tourism accommodation establishments, jewelry-making, cultural dance and music, accommodation, fruit and wild berries and pottery and embroidery. Armed with this information, the government, NGOs and community-based organisations (CBOs) can develop capacity, provide market spaces, find markets and package the products properly to promote sustainable CBT ventures within the rural communities bordering the SVC.

Keywords: Community based tourism, business ventures, participation, sustainability, conflict.

Introduction

CBT has become increasingly relevant in less economically developed countries (LEDCs) because it endorses strategies that favour greater benefits and control by local communities (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Goh, 2015; Dangi and Jamal, 2016, Mnguni and Giampiccoli, 2017). Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2017: 2) further posit that CBT should be promoted and supported to aid environmental protection, community development and poverty reduction through local control and ownership of business ventures. There is a popular view that for CBT to be acceptable to local communities and thus sustainable, it has to be properly planned



to include local communities from the decision-making phase, incorporate their opinions (Mak, Cheung and Hui, 2017; Hlengwa and Mazibuko, 2018) to participation in tourism business ventures to benefit them financially and socially (Kreuter, Peel and Warner, 2010; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012).

Concerns have also been raised that the community benefits of CBT are exaggerated, with the benefits that tend to be irregular, quite modest, tokenistic, neo-liberal and supportive of inequalities that it was meant to offset (Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2016; 2017). Proper planning using a framework developed for the purposes of involving local communities would have to be adopted, monitored and controlled in order to align CBT activities to its mission. Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2014) and Mnguni and Giampiccoli (2017) highlight the significance of planning and development of the criteria that would ensure sustainability of CBT ventures. In Caprivi, Namibia, legislation was passed in 1996 giving the communities rights to wildlife and other natural resources prompting the formation of CBT ventures based on community conservancies within the national vision which proposed the use of tourism as a vehicle for Namibians to transform from natural resource exporters to foreign currency earners (Nyakunu and Rogerson, 2014), but this failed to deliver due to a lack of a facilitation framework.

In Zimbabwe, very little effort has been made in recent years by the tourism authorities in the country to make CBT part of the national tourism growth agenda (Nyaruwata, 2011: 236). The Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry's (MTHI) tourism blueprint, called 2013-2015 Strategic Plan, scantily highlights CBT and acknowledges neglect of this sub-sector (MTHI, n.d.: 23). Similarly, the Zimbabwe Tourism Development Master Plan (ZTDMP) (2017) also targets traditional destinations as tourism development zones (TDZ) to attract investment (Kawadza, 2017: 2). Regrettably, according to the tourism blueprint (of MTHI) CBT will solely obtain fiscal support from development and co-operating partners (MTHI, n.d.: 26).

The Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry's (MTHI) tourism blueprint, called 2013-2015 Strategic Plan, scantily highlights CBT and acknowledges neglect of this sub-sector (MTHI, n.d.: 23). Similarly, the Zimbabwe Tourism Development Master Plan (ZTDMP) (2017) also targets traditional destinations for preferential treatment as tourism development zones (TDZ) to attract investment (Kawadza, 2017: 2). Yet worldwide, CBT is regarded as one form of sustainable tourism suitable for poor and remote rural areas where it has been used as an alternative development approach for empowerment and self-reliance of the impoverished local communities (Telfer, 2009). A case in point is Save Valley where wildlife tourism is the major attraction.

Studies in Save Valley reveal unprecedented lack of active participation in any form of tourism by the local population in this wildlife area and subsequent destructive practices such as human-animal conflict, bushmeat poaching and, land invasions by poor residents (Wolmer, Chaumba and Scoones, 2004; Lindsey, du Toit, Pole and Stephanie, 2008; Kreuter, Peel and Warner, 2010). Local populations have not reaped any meaningful benefits from the industry (Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012: 127). The situation has been worsened by Rural District Councils that are not keen on equitable distribution of the financial returns (Lindsey, du Toit, Pole and Stephanie, 2008; Nyaruwata, 2011; Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012). Mutanga, Vengesayi, Gandiwa, and Muboko (2015: 564) in their study of protected areas in Zimbabwe also concluded that these wildlife areas had not fully involved local people in their management and that benefits were not fairly shared among the stakeholders.



Literature review

Since pre-historic times human beings have depended on natural ecosystems for the provision of valuable goods, food, water, cultural and recreational benefits, and many more (Narain and Orfei, 2012: 1; FAO,). More importantly, the increase in human population pressure and economic activity accentuated loss of wildlife habitats which gradually cascaded into biodiversity losses (UNWTO, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012). Ecotourism and CBT would be some of the strategies to diversify sources of livelihoods for rural communities living adjacent to wildlife rich regions are located in LEDCs.

These countries often lack the capacity to enforce conservation of these nature reserves such as national parks and conservancies. Moreover, the local people living next to the protected areas are often very poor, and bear the largest share of the opportunity cost of the establishment of the wildlife conservation areas in the form of restricted access to land and natural resources, crop damage due to straying wildlife, or inadequate compensation for losses (Frost and Bond, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012). In this study nature-based tourism is taken to mean tourism whose main aim is the viewing or enjoyment of the natural environment's provisions such as hiking, photography, bird-watching, or safaris (Frost and Bond, 2007; Narain and Orfei, 2012). For this reason, it has been argued that nature-based tourism could be an effective approach to enable local communities to receive sufficient economic benefits that could act as incentives to discontinue degradative land uses such as habitat conversion into croplands, forest harvesting, and bushmeat poaching (Narain and Orfei, 2012).

For communities proximate to natural environments such as national parks or conservancies, wildlife-based CBT ventures and facilitation have been modelled differently and motivated to reduce the exploitation of plants and animal species and poaching. When communities realise sufficient and widespread benefits to make up for the loss of agricultural land and hunting and consultation and participation takes place on a continuous basis (Narain and Orfei, 2012; Mugenyi *et al.*, 2014; Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015), they tend to support tourism and the conservation efforts. Sebele (2010); Alemu (2012); Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2014); Nyawo and Mubangizi (2015); Jaka and Shava (2018) argue that rural communities depend on biodiversity resources in their neighbourhoods for livelihoods through the production and sales of items such as agricultural produce, poultry, handicrafts, traditional mats, hand brooms, wood or stone carvings, marula beer and others. Thus, if land is taken and earmarked for conservation sustainable alternative sources of livelihood have to be provided in order to prevent conflict and destitution.

In Amboseli, Kenya, competing and conflicting land-uses as well as human-wildlife conflicts were causing biodiversity loss thereby necessitating adoption of community-based conservation through the Wildlife Act, 2014, in which local people derive economic benefits from lodges and camp sites (Kipleu, Mwangi, and Njogu, 2014:78). Bwindi Impenetrable National Park in Uganda, provides another interesting case study of CBT programmes facilitated by government in a top-down approach. Originally, Bwindi Impenetrable Forest was the source of livelihoods for local people providing them with resources such as bushmeat, honey, basketry materials and building materials (Mugenyi, Amumpiire, and Namujuzi, 2014: 1). In 1994, an incentive scheme of sharing revenue with adjacent communities was muted as an intervention strategy to improve the welfare of the local people and resolve resentment and conflicts. In Botswana, the Khama Rhino Sanctuary operated by a CBO called the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) set up to promote rural development based on a bottom-up approach through CBT and wildlife conservation



(Sebele, 2010: 138). However, the only benefits that accrue to the local communities are in the form of jobs as guides, cleaners, drivers, or casual labourers (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Sebele, 2010) and not as owners and operators of CBT ventures.

In Zimbabwe, community-based tourism is casually subsumed under the Communal Areas Management Programme For Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme, a top-down approach, which promotes tokenism to people living in villages next to wildlife and protected areas managed by Rural District Councils (Frost and Bond, 2007; Muzvidziwa, 2013) which is in direct contradiction of its enabling act, the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act. The CAMPFIRE was designed to promote long-term development, management and use of natural resources such as wildlife resources in communal lands to support livelihoods. In the programme the principle was that 50% of proceeds from the sales would be paid to the local communities to build new schools, wells and health clinics (Frost and Bond, 2007; Nyaruwata, 2011; Muzvidziwa, 2013) which have not happened to date as rural communities continue to be passive recipients of trickle-down proceeds of tourism activities in areas that they are custodians of Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012; Dragulanescu and Drutu-Ivan, 2012; Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2014; Dangji and Jamal, 2016).

Literature has also revealed that in Save Valley and other wildlife areas in Zimbabwe, that are managed for game viewing, hunting and photographic safaris and no typical CBT SMME models used in other counties such as homestays (Salley *et al.*, 2014; Kontogeorgopoulos *et al.*, 2015; Mapjabil, Ismail, Rahman, Masron, and Ismail, 2015: 2), curio carving and selling, traditional music and dance, vegetable outgrowing and others were ever implemented on any meaningful scale (du Toit, 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2008; Muzvidziwa, 2013) due to the lack of a facilitation framework. The collaboration tradition and inherent local community participation, sustainability, empowerment, and self-reliance as the pillars of community development (Sebele, 2010; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012) would serve to promote compliance and commitment to long-term conservation strategies due to the needed integration of indigenous knowledge into decision making processes, with power delegated to them (Frost and Bond, 2007, Kreuter *et al.*, 2010; Wyman, Barborak, Inamdar and Stein, 2011; Mugenyi *et al.*, 2014). Neighbouring communities need to be the focal points of long-term planning and management of CBT aimed at contributing to community development at village level (Kreuter *et al.*, 2010; Giampiccoli and Kali, 2012).

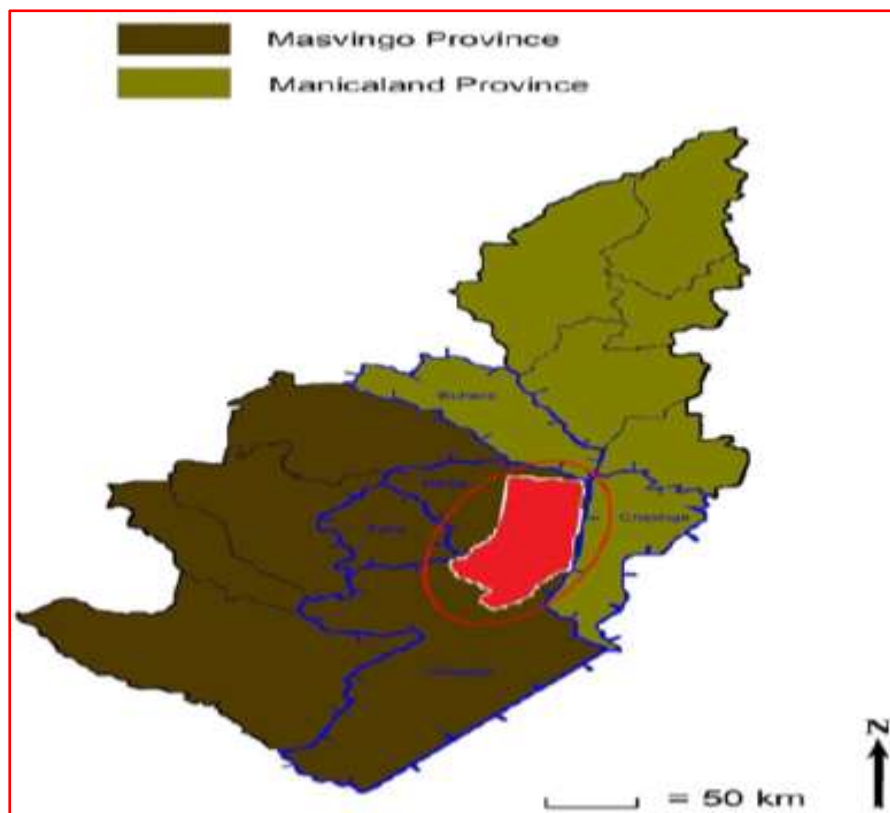
The Department of Tourism (DT), Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2011: 22) in its blueprint: the *National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS)*, identifies community participation through bottom-up actions or collaboration or partnerships as a critical success factor as the basis for implementing sustainable tourism. This widely shared viewpoint in the literature conforms to the sixth rung of Arnstein's theory, where partnership is the main attribute that fosters negotiation between the local residents of an area targeted for development, government and developers. Mak *et al.* (2017: 1) reiterate that community participation is inherently essential for sustainable development of tourism, as the industry has close links with the livelihoods of the local community.

Community beneficiation is a term widely used in sustainable tourism development to describe the extent to which the community realises socio-economic development and poverty alleviation through job creation and local business opportunities from tourism initiatives in the area (DT, 2011; Sibeko, 2013; Kayat, 2014) using either the bottom-up or collaboration approach and measured by the number of jobs and business opportunities that are generated by the tourism initiatives in the area (DT (SA), 2011; Kayat, 2014).

Methodology

The study was non-positivist, using a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods in order to allow for social interaction to get a good understanding of the CBT ventures deemed suitable for the communities resident in the vicinity of the Save Valley Conservancy (Figure 1) through a cross-sectional case study design. The data collection methods were interviews with 8 key informants and surveys with 54 household heads as well as by means of general observation. Data were collected from 3 of the 8 wards of Bikita District purposively selected due to their proximity to relatively good road networks (Figure 2), a pre-condition for CBT, and because they share a long boundary fence with the conservancy where there is recognisable tourism traffic. The study area had an estimated population of 5,522 households living across all the 8 wards of Bikita District (ZimStat, 2012: 100) as shown on Figure 1. On average, the 3 selected wards would have approximately 2070 households. The selected 54 households then formed 2.6% of the study population. The researcher also included Ward 27, which is the Save Valley Conservancy itself because the Safari Operators were crucial stakeholders to CBT around the SVC.

Figure 1: Map showing the Save Valley Conservancy
Source: Researchgate.net



To protect the identities of the key informants, a code system was used instead of their positions which would make it easy to link responses to individuals. Data were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques.



Figure 2: Main entrance into SVC Source: Researcher's own

Findings

The results of the interviews were used to develop the survey questionnaire used to collect data from community members sampled from the earmarked 3 wards (24, 25, and 26) due to proximity to the SVC (Ward 27), accessibility and feasibility for CBT enterprises.

Questionnaire

The questionnaires were distributed to 54 households in the three villages, Village 3 in Ward 24, Village 10 in Ward 25, and Village 20 in Ward 26 were carefully selected using a stratified convenience sampling technique to try and distribute sample selection equitably across all three wards and villages. Households were selected due to accessibility as well as location close to the SVC from all the three wards. All 54 questionnaires were returned, constituting 100% of the sample. Research assistants were trained and used to deliver and collect or administer questionnaires containing structured and semi-structured question items. A total of 63.0% of the respondents were women while men constituted 37.0%. Respondents participated voluntarily and ethical protocols were observed.

The survey results on gender are indicative of the predominance of female-headed households in Save Valley, a factor that has negative implications on access to resources such as land or livestock. Data revealed that was primary level with 44.4% of the respondents, most of whom 31.5% were female household heads while 37.0% of the respondents had secondary education. The respondents who reported having never attended school comprised 14.8%, and the majority of them were female. The fairly high literacy rate of 85.2% is also an indicator of high versatility in taking up new livelihoods such as CBT with appropriate facilitation.



Table 1: Highest education attained and CBT choice

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

The survey explored the most suitable types of CBT ventures the respondents would choose to adopt willingly as a means to diversify their sources of household income, mindful of the fact that they lived next to or within an active tourist attraction, the SVC. Table 1 correlates the level of educational attained by a respondent household head and the preferred CBT venture. This study argues that there is a direct correlation between a respondent's level of educational attainment and the CBT venture preference.

Relating the two variables brought about an understanding of the respondents' CBT preferences and current level of participation in tourism, which would inform the formulation of a facilitation framework to enhance participation in and improve sustainability of CBT ventures. Table 1 illustrates that vegetable outgrowing was preferred as the modal CBT venture to 63.0% of the respondents, the majority of whom (46.3%), were lowly educated with only primary schooling or none.

These respondents regarded vegetable outgrowing as a low skill activity and felt that they already had the requisite skills to produce the vegetables on contract with established tourism businesses. They also assumed the existence of a ready market for vegetables at the tourism business establishments in SVC such as lodges, hotels and compounds.



Table 2: Gender and choice of CBT venture

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

The number does not add up to 54 households because each respondent was allowed to select more than one option. Respondents with higher levels of education accounting for 40.0% of the total such as secondary and tertiary were more versatile in their preference for CBT ventures, and were prepared to venture into new businesses such as offering tourist accommodation, cultural dance and music, handicrafts making, and wildlife conservation.

Therefore, basing on the low skill levels shown in Table 1 (14.8% no formal education at all and 44.3% with only primary level of education totaling to 59.1%), it would be naïve to ignore the precarious economic situation in Save Valley if wildlife conservation in SVC has to be sustainable. Table 5.15 shows a clear gender bias of CBT choices as most of the respondents amounting to 53.7% who selected vegetable outgrowing were female respondents. More so, 62.9% of all respondents preferred vegetable outgrowing despite recurrent droughts and crop vandalism by wild animals escaping the SVC due to poorly maintained fence. The majority of the respondents (82.0%) preferred co-operative ownership and joint ventures of CBT ventures because they promote sharing of ideas, improve chances of business success, attract sponsorships, promote transfer of skills and enhance access to markets. Individual family ownership was selected by 30.0% of respondents citing reasons such as the ease of management and discipline.

Table 3: CBT initiation responsibility as a percentage (%)

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

The majority of respondents (39.0%) felt that CBT venture initiation should be the responsibility of local people together with support groups, followed by government at 27.8% and donor agencies at 20.4%.

Interviews

In this study interviews were conducted with 8 respondents purposively selected who included district administrator (DA), Bikita Rural District Council (RDC), the overall chief of sampled wards who is the overall traditional authority of the sampled wards (C), 2 safari operators in Ward 27, and 3 village heads of the participating wards: 24, 25, and 26 purposively sampled due to close proximity to the SVC (Ward 27).

Respondents shared that local participation in tourism was essentially non-existent, manipulation, or mere tokenism involving employment of some local members in SCV in menial tasks such as being security guards. As such the respondents cited a number of CBT projects the local people would prefer according to their current capacity level. It is therefore evident that vegetable growing was the most popular to suit groups such as women; including other possible CBT projects such as making of handicrafts, wildlife tourism, accommodation, irrigation, cultural dances and employment in the conservancy.

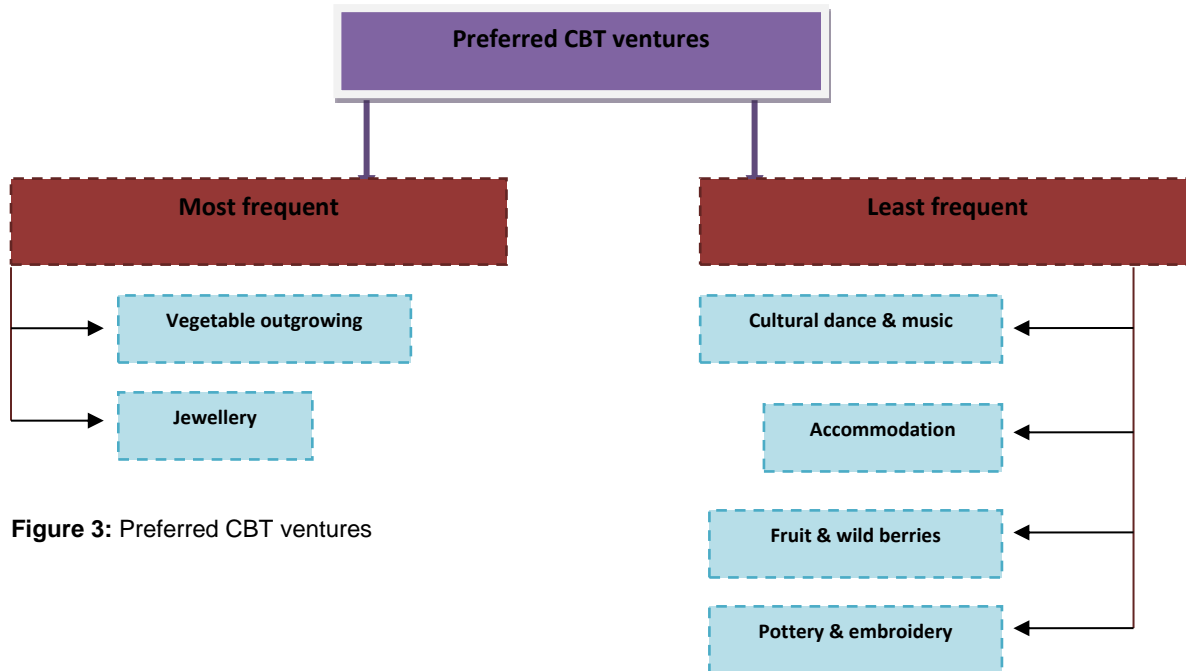


Figure 3: Preferred CBT ventures



It is noteworthy that the preferred CBT ventures mentioned tended to be common between household heads (survey) and key informants (interviews). Vegetable outgrowing and jewellery making and selling were the most frequent choices followed by cultural dances and music, accommodation, supply of fruit and wild berries and pottery and embroidery. Local authorities should therefore focus on skills development and opportunity creation to facilitate the development and sustainability of these preferred CBT ventures in order to reduce poverty and dependency on government aid (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). Areas such as those shown in Figure 2 should be developed as CBT cites with proper signage and facilities to support CBT ventures.

Essentially, the complementarity of research results about CBT preferences and what the literature says about the projects, should ultimately guide the formulation of a facilitation framework for CBT projects in and around SVC with the aim of reducing poverty while also promoting conservation of wildlife in the region. In addition, the interview results presented a complex scenario for local community participation in tourism, particularly wildlife CBT ventures.

Most respondents could not say with certainty, the extent to which people would appreciate and adopt wildlife conservation CBT as a livelihood because of the chilling encounters they have had with stray game, and their apparent limited knowledge of the whole business enterprise. Some respondents did not even appreciate wildlife conservation CBT and viewed it with indignation, and expressed hostility and resistance to its introduction. Weak links with neighbouring communities along CAMPFIRE using top-down approach was observed. Furthermore, in and around SVC tokenism or mere manipulation (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 2008) was apparent with participants reporting that rural communities were treated as passive recipients of the consequences of wildlife tourism development, something that has been widely reported in studies conducted elsewhere (Sebele, 2010) while the official position emphasised a top-down tradition which seemed to disenfranchise local communities (Andrade and Rhodes, 2012; Giampiccoli and Saayman, 2015). Figure 3 shows that the most preferred CBT around the SVC was vegetable outgrowing having been mentioned by 5 of the 8 respondents. The second most preferred CBT venture appearing 4 times was jewellery. The implication is that the key role players should focus mainly on these CBT ventures developing capacity, providing market places, marketing, fine tuning the products and packaging them to be more appealing to prospective buyers both regionally and internationally.

Preferred CBT ownership arrangement

During the interviews the respondents interrogated the ownership arrangement they perceived as most appropriate for CBT projects in Save Valley. Table 4 provides a summary of the results of the question about ownership. Ownership was interrogated which respondents believed to be a critical factor in resource mobilisation and success of any business venture.

As illustrated on Table 4 any form partnership or collaborative ownership was more preferable than family/individual ownership such as co-operative or joint venture. The respondents argued that either cooperative or joint venture in CBT project in which safari operators were part was very critical for any success to be realised for the following reasons:



- There would be skills transfer as safari operators already had the technical know-how and managerial skills as people who were already in tourism business.
- The local community residents had the land, which could be integrated into the mainstream SVC by extension of the boundary fence to incorporate more communal land.
- Government was already present on the ground in the form of Council and ZimParks to monitor and advise the two groups.

Table 4: Preferred CBT ownership arrangement

DA

Cooperative ownership is the best because it will be difficult to start a project as an individual.

RDC

Local people to form and register cooperatives legally so that they can be assisted with training and resources.

VH 3

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

SO 1

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

Preferred
CBT
ownership
arrangement

SO 2

People should form co-operatives. It is the best for doing business to share risks.

Safari operators should take part in joint ventures with residents in the villages where they will provide marketing of jewelry or works of art and running of the safari business on behalf of the community.

VH 1

Individual or family owned business is better. Family projects are well controlled.

VH 2

Our people should enter into joint ventures with those already in the business that have money.

C

If people start co-operatives, it will help them. They can get funding from the government.

Table 4 demonstrates the significance respondents attached to the collaboration between local community members and safari operators in SVC, which they described as the most important step in the strategy for promoting active local community participation in tourism while also rebuilding good relations in Save Valley region.

A similar research result was found in South Africa, where handicrafts have been promoted as part of the local economic development Initiative (LDEI) (a bottom-up approach) designed to



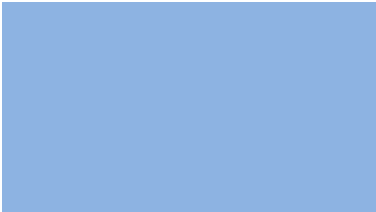
counter the failure of top-down government approaches to combat unemployment and poverty by providing inclusivity and cooperation between local communities and various stakeholders (Nyawo and Mubangizi, 2015:2).

As shown in the literature chapter the goal of collaboration in business projects such as CBT is to afford empowerment to those who have less economic and political power, such as women and youths, and to lessen their dependency on the government and NGOs by transferring to them new technical, leadership, entrepreneurship, and problem-solving skills (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). Cooperatives were the most preferred form of CBT ownership around the SVC with the frequency of 62.5% (n=5 of 8). The least preferred ownership CBT arrangement were joint ventures and individual ownership. Flipping the reasons given for the most favoured ownership arrangement would lack of skills transfer, lack of monitoring, funding issues, risk and the issue of land ownership.

Facilitators of CBT projects in the SV

During the interviews, the facilitation role of government was emphasised by the participants such as passing laws that legalised CBT operations and guaranteed security of tenure for all residents in the Save Valley, training of CBT entrepreneurs through its various arms, and development of infrastructure such as a good road networks.

Table 5: Initiators of CBT projects according to respondents

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| DA | SO 1 | VH 2 |
| <i>Community based tourism projects must be initiated by the local authority which should also involve the local community.</i> | <i>Local people should themselves initiate their own businesses.</i> | <i>Donors and safari operators should initiate CBT for local people. Government should also play a role.</i> |
| RDC | SO 2 | VH 3 |
| <i>Initiation of the projects must come from the safari operators so that they build a good relationship with the local people because the lack of such a relationship is the cause of the current conflict.</i> | <i>Local people are responsible for initiating CBT projects.</i> | <i>The government should initiate CBT projects.</i> |
| C | VH 1 |  |
| <i>The people themselves should initiate CBT projects but they also need assistance from donors or government.</i> | <i>NGOs should initiate CBT projects</i> | |

Respondents also picked on NGOs specifically for capacity building of local communities through funding and training so that they could easily take up CBT initiatives on a sustainable basis. For instance, some respondents suggested that NGOs could build standard thatched traditional huts or chalets, which they could then handover to some local CBT entrepreneurs keen on offering tourism accommodation. Other interviewees proposed that NGOs could provide funding for erecting electric fences around community conservancies which would be run by the local residents themselves with technical assistance from safari operators.

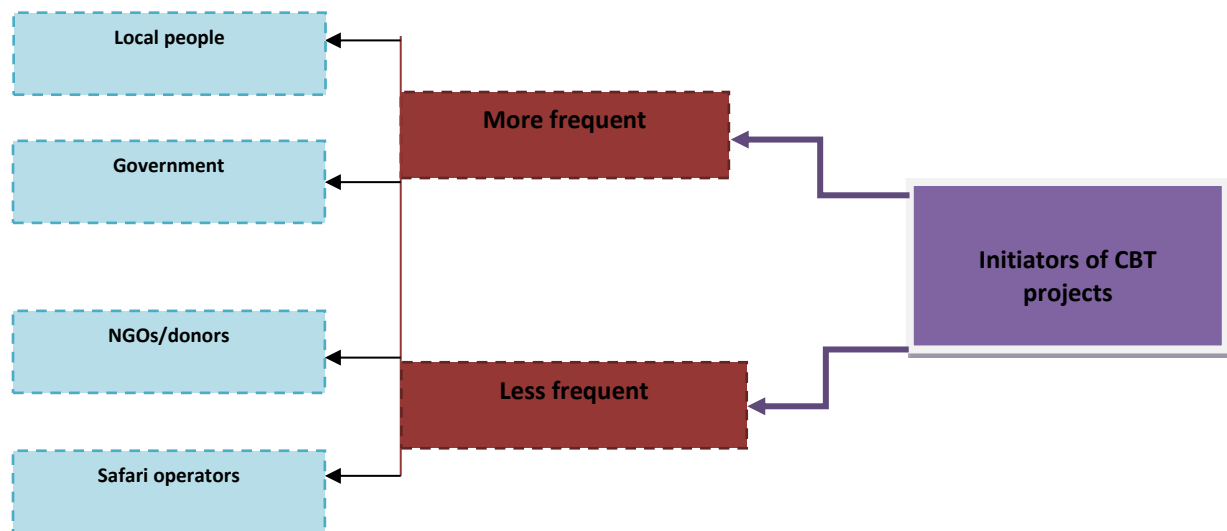


Figure 4: Initiators of CBT projects around the SVC

The response that came up most frequently was that local people should be the initiators of CBT projects. The idea of local people themselves being initiators of CBT ventures is in line with Arnstein's 1969 participation and power redistribution theory which highlights the importance of involvement of local people from the conception phase of local projects and scorns tokenism, top down tradition and non-participation as the root causes of dissatisfaction, non-support and vandalism of local projects.

Conclusion

This study proposes that a framework for the facilitation of CBT around the SVC (subsequent paper) takes seriously and incorporates the preferred CBT ventures as highlighted by the respondents, and also shifts from the top-down model as promoted by the CAMPFIRE programme which has failed to achieve its objectives as local communities continue to be sidelined in CBT development and reduced to passive recipients trickle-down effects from tourism (Sebele, 2010: 143), to the one where all role players' capabilities, skills and resources are 'stitched together' to form a natural flows 'between heterogeneous elements' found in one location (Hlengwa and Mazibuko, 2018) such as the Save Valley. The bottom-up and collaborations traditions of community participation and power redistribution are not difficult to achieve where



there is local government commitment to deliver on their mandate of improving the lives of local people, where corruption is dealt with as an adversary to democracy and desired sustainable development.

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