



TOURISM'S CONTRIBUTION TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION: A COMMUNITY PERSPECTIVE FROM ZIMBABWE

Sipho Sibanda¹ⁱ,

Christopher Ndlovu²

¹Department of Mathematics,
Solusi University, Zimbabwe

²Department of Educational Foundations
Lupane State University, Zimbabwe

Abstract:

Taking a micro-level approach, this study questions whether the positive impacts of tourism often claimed at the macro level do indeed trickle down to the grassroots level to lift local people out of poverty. A case study of the local community in Victoria Falls urban area compares the perspectives of local residents and key decision-makers in the community. The extent to which tourism development has affected seven signifiers of poverty alleviation are examined: accessibility improvement (transport and communication), prices of goods and services, entrepreneurial training, income-generating projects, employment opportunities, general quality of life and household income. Most of the local community felt tourism development is having a positive impact and contributing to poverty alleviation, especially in terms of improving local facilities. However, there are variations, with entrepreneurial training and the prices of goods and services.

Keywords: community participation; tourism impacts; poverty alleviation

1. Introduction

Tourism is an increasingly popular component of development strategy in Southern Africa and the least developed countries (LDCs) more generally, with the potential to boost the economy and alleviate poverty. Macro-level studies dominate (e.g. Chok et al., 2007; Hall, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007; Honeck, 2008), but there is a need to take a grassroots

ⁱ Correspondence: email siphosibanda2011@gmail.com, chrisndlovu47@gmail.com

perspective as well and investigate poverty alleviation at the community level. The creation of a stand-alone Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry in Zimbabwe is a demonstration of the potential that this sector has in changing the economy and livelihoods of many local people in the country. This paper discusses the contribution of tourism development to poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe using a case study of the local community in Victoria Falls. The paper examines the extent to which tourism provides a means of socioeconomic development and poverty reduction in relation to seven key factors identified from the literature.

2. Background of the study

There is an increasing recognition that tourism is one of the better placed tools for poverty alleviation, which is a major concern for many LDCs, such as Zimbabwe (Wilkerson, 1996; Chok et al., 2007; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007, 2008; Honeck, 2008). LDCs have abundant tourist assets, both natural and cultural, which can attract tourists, and tourism has become a growth economic sector (Scheyvens, 2007; United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], 2007). The impact of tourism on socioeconomic development and poverty alleviation can be felt in three key areas. First, since it can serve as a substantial source of foreign exchange earnings and public revenues, tourism contributes to economic development (Scheyvens, 2007; UNCTAD, 2007; Honeck, 2008). Second, tourism activities are generally labour intensive, so expansion of these activities creates more employment opportunities for people of varying skills, including women (Chok et al., 2007; Nowak & Sahli, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007; UNCTAD, 2007). Third, tourism development generates better opportunities for local residents to gain larger and more balanced benefits when they participate fully in decision-making and ownership of tourism activities (Akama, 2002; Ryan, 2002; Kibicho, 2004; Tosun, 2000, 2006; Simpson, 2008). In these ways, tourism can play an important role in the economic and socio-cultural developments that are critical for poverty alleviation.

Until recently, the case for tourism development as a tool for bringing about economic development in LDCs has predominantly been assessed according to its macroeconomic contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP), employment, tax revenues and total foreign exchange earnings rather than by measuring its specific impacts on poverty at the community level). A belief is that as long as the whole country (region) gets wealthier due to tourism development, the benefits brought by economic growth will eventually trickle down to the local poor through multiple channels, such as employment, public welfare and family networks (Zeng et al., 2005; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Thus, policy-makers usually pay considerable attention to the

expansion of the tourism sector, but much less to how far tourism development contributes to poverty alleviation in practice (Christie, 2002). As a result, the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation has been indirect and thus unremarkable.

In contrast, contemporary approaches such as pro-poor tourism and the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty project have been seen to greatly enhance poor people's chances of benefiting from tourism (Ashley et al., 2001; UNWTO, 2002). These new approaches aim to establish a direct link between tourism and poverty alleviation and to speak for the poor in tourism development (e.g. Ashley et al., 2000; Ashley & Roe, 2002; Reid, 2003; Ashley & Mitchell, 2005; Scheyvens, 2002, 2007; Schilcher, 2007; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Ashley et al. (2000), for instance, claim that poverty has not been part of the tourism agenda in the past, but that it is possible to make tourism more pro-poor, and increase earnings from tourism for the poorest sections of communities in developing countries. They also argue that poorly planned and managed tourism can damage social and cultural values of the local communities. As such, community involvement in tourism is essential if tourism development in LDCs like Zimbabwe is to be sustainable and beneficial to the local communities.

Community involvement should be encouraged because it makes the planning process more effective, equitable and legitimate, as long as those who participate are representative of the whole community and capable of looking after collective interests as well as those of their own group. Zhao & Ritchie (2007) present an integrative framework for anti-poverty tourism research which contextualizes tourism as a vital tool for poverty alleviation and identifies stakeholders, processes and mechanisms through which tourism development can help alleviate poverty.

The framework emphasizes the need for active local participation to ensure, if proper planning is in place, that the various economic opportunities arising from tourism development can reach the poor. The importance of community involvement in planning and managing tourism development has been emphasized elsewhere (Tosun, 2000; Ashley & Roe, 2002; Rogerson, 2002; Simpson, 2008; Sebele, 2010). For example, in research at the micro level, two studies of community tourism in Kenya found that the higher the level of community involvement, the bigger the benefits from tourism. A local community's dependence on tourism thus strongly influences their evaluation of its benefits and costs and their attitudes towards it (Kibicho, 2004).

People involved in tourism activities have a better perception of its socioeconomic impacts than those who are not. Manyara and Jones (2007) found that although some community-based tourism enterprises have been successful according to some parameters (such as occupancy rates and income generation), their impact on poverty alleviation was still insignificant. Nevertheless, they see community-based

tourism enterprises as having potential for, or having already contributed to, the development of local economies, which is particularly important in rural and marginal areas with few economic alternatives. Kibicho's (2004) study reports impacts from tourism on socioeconomic issues, such as employment opportunities, personal income, standard of living, prices of goods and services, attitudes to work, crimes, honesty in any commercial exchange, and quality of life in general. In Indonesia, Timothy (1999) found that entrepreneurial training and income generating projects among local people had increased as a result of tourism development. In South Africa, Muhanna (2007) calls for a community-based tourism that has the capacity of safe guarding sustainable development and preserving the natural and the man-made landscapes in the LDCs,

Overall, seven poverty alleviation factors have emerged from these and other micro studies as areas where tourism could be a vehicle for socioeconomic development and poverty reduction within the communities (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000, 2006; Mahony & Van Zyl, 2002; Kibicho, 2004; Cole, 2006; Manyara & Jones, 2007). These are: accessibility improvement (transport and communication), prices of goods and services (from both producer and consumer perspectives), entrepreneurial training, income-generating projects, employment opportunities, general quality of life and household incomes.

Zimbabwe, especially Victoria Falls has been known as an important tourist destination in the Southern African Development Community for a long time, yet the benefits of this lucrative industry are not known to majority of the local people. The country has been marketed internationally as a quality nature tourism destination and tourism is identified as a key economic driver. In 2014, 1 880 028 international arrivals were recorded in Zimbabwe, (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority 2014). The emphasis on the tourism sector must be viewed as part of the fundamental restructuring of the Zimbabwean economy away from one dominated by primary production (agriculture and mining), towards a more diverse economy in which the travel and tourism industry contributes increasingly to the GDP (UNCTAD, 2008).

As mentioned above, tourism's impact on poverty alleviation has predominantly been studied at a macro level. This paper contributes to the growing understanding of impacts at the micro level. It presents a case study of the local community in Victoria Falls, in Zimbabwe. The study made investigations at the community level to explore local people's views on the extent to which tourism has contributed to improving socioeconomic issues. The aim was to broaden the understanding of tourism as a poverty alleviation tool in Victoria Falls and, more importantly, to gain an impression of whether the positive achievements often claimed for tourism at the macro level do indeed trickle down to the community level and improve the livelihoods of local people.

3. Methodology

The case study approach was used this made it possible to bring together and compare the perspectives of the local community, community decision-makers and other tourism stakeholders. The study triangulated primary and secondary sources, drawing on semi-structured interviews with the decision-makers and stakeholders, an interviewer-administered household survey of local residents, field observations and official documentation. It investigated community participation in the tourism development decision-making processes, the sharing of tourism benefits in Victoria Falls and the contribution of tourism development to poverty alleviation, the focus of this paper.

Males made up 54.7 per cent of the participants while females contributed 45.3 per cent. Participants were highly diverse in terms of their ages, with age groups 25 to 34 years, 35 to 44 years and 45 to 59 years being equally represented (27.3 per cent each), and 9.5 per cent of participants were between 16 and 24 years while 7.9 per cent were 60 years or above.

Other profile variables, including length of residence, education and employment status, showed more homogeneity. Fifty-nine per cent had lived in the village since birth while 32.4 per cent had been resident for 10 or more years; only 8.6 per cent had lived in that area for less than a decade. Thus, participants were long-time members of the local community. A majority of participants had a low level of formal education: 59 per cent had completed primary school education while 10.1 per cent had no formal education. In contrast, 29.5 per cent had secondary school education and a very small number (1.4 percent), had a college or university education. In employment terms, the sample was dominated by small-scale business people (64 per cent), of which 6.5 per cent of participants were full-time employees and the remainder (29.5 per cent) were unemployed.

Using the seven factors identified in the literature review, participants were first asked to indicate how much tourism had helped them, using a five-point Likert scale. Data were analysed using mean scores, standard deviations (SDs) and collapsed percentages, where findings were grouped together into positive (improved/significantly improved), neutral (did not make a difference), and negative (worse/significantly worse) response categories. The independent profile variables were then used to investigate differences on the basis of location, gender, occupation and education. Survey participants were also asked to provide comments or reasons for their responses on each of the seven factors.

4. Data Presentation Interpretation and Analysis

4.1 Demographic characteristics of the participants in terms of:

- a) Gender;
- b) Age;
- c) Educational level;
- d) Monthly Income;
- e) Ethnicity;
- f) Residential Area;
- g) Occupation;
- h) Length of stay in Victoria Falls;

Table 1: Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	20	40.8	43.5	43.5
	male	26	53.1	56.5	100.0
	Total	46	93.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	6.1		

The table above indicated that about 41% of the population was female and 53% male. Thus, the results may be biased to male views.

Table 2: Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	16-25years	20	40.8	40.8	40.8
	26-35 years	20	40.8	40.8	81.6
	36-45years	9	18.4	18.4	100.0
	Total	49	100.0	100.0	

In table 2 above the respondents ranged from 16-45years. About 82% fell in the range of between 16 and 35. Thus, the views were more representative of the youth to young adults. This was seen as appropriate since this was the economically active group and was largely affected by the existing policies. Only just above 18% were above 35years.

Table 3: Educational level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid O' level	3	6.1	6.1	6.1
A' level	24	49.0	49.0	55.1
Diploma	9	18.4	18.4	73.5
University	13	26.5	26.5	100.0
Total	49	100.0	100.0	

According to table 13 about 6% had ordinary level or below. The rest had A Level, diploma or they went up to University level. 49% had A' level, 26% went up to University and about 18% had a diploma. Overall, about 94% of the respondents were educated, indicating that the responses obtained were coming from informed participants.

Table 4: Monthly income

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid \$0-300	16	32.7	36.4	36.4
\$301-600	19	38.8	43.2	79.5
\$601-1000	7	14.3	15.9	95.5
\$1001+	2	4.1	4.5	100.0
Total	44	89.8	100.0	
Missing System	5	10.2		
Total	49	100.0		

Table 4 indicated that 43% of the participants earned between \$300 and \$600, about 36% earned below \$300. This is to say that a total of about 80% of the participants earned below \$600. According to The Herald (September 15, 2015) the country's poverty datum line for July for an average family stood at \$495.12. It ranged from \$439 in Midlands to \$583 in Matabeleland North of which Victoria Falls is located. ZIMSTAT said this is explained by the difference in average prices in the provinces. Thus, the prices in Victoria Falls are generally higher compared to other provinces. This means that only about 20% of the participants lived above the poverty datum line. It is evident that the Victoria Falls local populace falls on the low economic class yet their town brought in a lot of revenue for the country.

Table 5: Ethnicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Ndebele	22	44.9	45.8	45.8
	Shona	14	28.6	29.2	75.0
	Tonga	8	16.3	16.7	91.7
	Nambiya	2	4.1	4.2	95.8
	Other	2	4.1	4.2	100.0
	Total	48	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.0		
Total		49	100.0		

According to the table above the Ndebele were dominating ethnic group with about 46% representation, followed by the Shona ethnic group with 29%. Thus, a total of 75% were 'foreign' at Victoria Falls. The traditional occupants were only 25% that is the Tonga and the Nambiya. This is an indication that since 'foreigners' dominate Victoria Falls, it is a sure case that the locals may not have a say in decision making issues. Thus, tourism is likely to be run or done more against their culture. As a result, tourism is also largely 'foreign' to the Victoria Falls locals.

Table 6: Residential area

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Chinotimba	17	34.7	35.4	35.4
	Mukhosana	24	49.0	50.0	85.4
	Suburbs	7	14.3	14.6	100.0
	Total	48	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.0		
Total		49	100.0		

The table above indicated that about 35% of the participants lived in Chinotimba and about 50% lived in Mukhosana. Thus, a total of about 85% of the respondents lived in high density locations. This was also in agreement with their average monthly income, previously alluded to according to table 4. Since about 70% of the participants lived below the poverty datum line, they would not afford the expensive accommodation in low density suburbs.

About 53% of the participants were either civil servants or self-employed. An additional percentage of about 26% had dual jobs, as both civil servants and self-

employed or other tourist related job. This also was in agreement with table 4 which had about 80% of the participants earning a monthly income of below \$600. Thus for this group to survive meaningfully they have to run some small private business as supplement income. Generally, these jobs would not enable them to make meaningful decisions. Although many have brilliant ideas on tourism such as boat businesses, sculpturing and the like, their income limits them to small scale projects which are not viable at all.

Table 7: Occupation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	civil servant	14	28.6	29.8	29.8
	self-employed	11	22.4	23.4	53.2
	tourist operator	1	2.0	2.1	55.3
	driver	1	2.0	2.1	57.4
	hotel worker	8	16.3	17.0	74.5
	dual	12	24.5	25.5	100.0
	Total	47	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	4.1		
Total		49	100.0		

Table 8 indicated that about 40% of the participants had stayed in Victoria Falls for fewer years than 10. Thus for anyone to have witnessed some development it was assumed that any time above 10 years was fairly reasonable time. Thus, about 60% of the participants had stayed in Victoria Falls for more than 10 years and had adequate information on what goes on in the town.

Table 8: Length of stay in Victoria Falls

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<10years	19	38.8	39.6	39.6
	>10but<15years	10	20.4	20.8	60.4
	>15years	19	38.8	39.6	100.0
	Total	48	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.0		
Total		49	100.0		

4.2 Participants' ratings of the following:

- a) Infrastructure and roads;
- b) Communication system;
- c) Availability of goods and services;
- d) Affordability of accommodation;
- e) Availability of stands and housing accessories;
- f) Standard of living;
- g) Equipping locals with relevant skills for the tourism industry;
- h) Tourist income generating projects for locals.

Table 9a: Facilities and Services Interpretation

Scale	Response	Ratings	Verbal Interpretation
1	Strongly agree	4.5-5.0	Very good
2	Agree	3.5-4.4	Good
3	Undecided	2.5-3.4	Satisfactory
4	Disagree	1.5-2.4	Poor
5	Strongly disagree	0.0-1.4	Very poor

Table 9a showed the meanings attached to the facilities and services average ratings.

Table 9: Facilities and Services

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
We have good infrastructure and roads	48	3.1667	.85883
Communication system is good	49	3.4082	.73367
Goods and services are readily available	49	3.2857	.84163
Prices are affordable	49	2.8776	1.11117
Accommodation for renting is affordable	49	2.4694	1.13838
Housing accessories or stands are available	49	1.9184	.93177
Standard of living is high	49	2.3878	.88545
Locals are adequately equipped with skills	49	3.0000	1.17260
Locals have their own income generating projects	49	2.8776	1.05342
Facilities and services average	48	2.8148	.43869

a. Infrastructure and roads

According to table 9 the respondents were undecided on the state of the infrastructure and roads, with a mean of 3.1667. The respondents were homogeneous with a standard deviation of 0.85883. The local authority is doing what it can to enable residents to maintain roads to the growing tourist industry. The obtaining state of infrastructure and roads may mean that there is not enough income coming through to enable the

building of better infrastructure and roads. Normally, whatever income earned through tourism is also meant to spill-over to investments on roads and other infrastructure but however according to the respondents very little is spent on the development of roads and related infrastructure.

b. Communication system

According to table 9 on communication, the respondents scored a mean of 3.4082 and the respondents were homogeneous with a standard deviation of 0.73367. Thus, the respondents were generally undecided on whether communication was good or not. Since communication such as internet and phones plays a vital role in tourism, this could have meant that important appointments were missed by potential customers and intended beneficiaries. As a result, business was lost and thus some income which could have been earned by Victoria Falls was channeled elsewhere due to loss of clients. Thus, not much benefit from tourism spilled over to attract any communication investments.

c. Availability and affordability of goods and services

According to table 9 the respondents were also undecided on the availability of goods and services and on affordability of prices with a mean of 3.2857 and 2.8776 respectively. They were homogeneous with a standard deviation of 0.84163 and heterogeneous with a standard deviation of 1.11117 respectively. Thus, the respondents were not so sure, whether the goods and services were available and affordable or not. Thus either the goods are available but very expensive or affordable but not available or else the goods are fairly scarce regardless of the price. This implied that the respondents had no option except to buy the available goods and survive.

d. Affordability of accommodation

According to table 9 on affordability of accommodation for renting the respondents were undecided with a mean of 2.4694. The respondents were heterogeneous with a standard deviation of 1.13838. This may mean that very few can build and hence very limited accommodation as has already been alluded to before. Thus, locals spend a lot of money on rentals instead of focusing on other investments. As a result, there are very few people staying in low density suburbs because they cannot afford. Thus it concurs with table 6 which indicated that most residents are either staying at Mkhosana or Chinotimba.

e. Availability of stands and housing accessories

According to table 9 on stands or housing accessories the respondents were also undecided with a mean of 1.9184. They were heterogeneous with a standard deviation of 0.93177. Thus, the respondents felt that housing stands and related accessories were expensive. While land for development and individual stands may have been there, they may not have been able to buy them let alone to develop them since such enabling accessories were not affordable too.

f. Standard of living

According to table 9 the respondents were undecided with a mean score of 2.3878 on standard of living. The respondents were homogeneous with a standard deviation of 0.88545. Thus, the respondents felt that the standard of living at Victoria Falls was neither low nor high. This is so because everything seems to be above their incomes and there are struggling for survival as implied by prior discussions.

g. Equipping of locals with relevant skills for the tourism industry

According to table 9 respondents were undecided with a mean score of 3.000 on adequate equipping of locals for the tourism industry. They were heterogeneous with a standard deviation of 1.17260. This was largely due to the absence of training institutions specializing in tourism. Only a few institutions offered some form of training only to a chosen few for special skills in that institution such as tea waiters, chefs and the like. So as a result, most of the people engaged in tourism came from areas outside Victoria Falls.

h. Income generating projects

According to table 9 respondents were undecided with a mean score of 2.8776 on locals having their own income generating projects. They were heterogeneous with a standard deviation of 1.05342. This meant that locals were not actively involved in income generating projects especially those linked to tourism due to unfavourable conditions prevailing in Victoria-falls.

4.3 Participants' ratings on business and job opportunities in Victoria Falls in terms of:

Table 10: Business Ownership and Opportunities in Victoria Falls

	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Ownership of business by locals	75.00	5.00	80.00	22.4894	16.75640	280.777
Managerial posts held by locals	87.00	3.00	90.00	20.4451	21.21395	450.032
Skilled labor-force from locals	78.00	2.00	80.00	33.0851	22.43428	503.297
General hand workers by locals	80.00	10.00	90.00	53.7447	22.43587	503.368
Availability of job or employment opportunities	63.00	2.00	65.00	23.5532	17.53482	307.470
Availability of tertiary institutions for training locals	60.00	.00	60.00	9.9787	14.95426	223.630
Valid N (list-wise)						

a. Ownership of business by locals

Table 10 showed that ownership of businesses by the locals was very low with a mean score of about 22.5%. The range was 75 from a very low minimum of 5 to a maximum of 80%. The low mean was an indication that the ownership was negatively skewed.

Table 11 revealed that this was mainly caused by capital and economic related reasons which contributed 34.1%. The participants claimed that the locals by and large lack capital to start tourist related businesses since these usually demand a lot of money.

Table 11: Reason of percentages in Table 10

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Education reasons/skills	8	16.3	18.2	18.2
Foreign	8	16.3	18.2	36.4
Capital/economy/tariff	15	30.6	34.1	70.5
Lack of diversity/interest	1	2.0	2.3	72.7
Tribalism and corruption	12	24.5	27.3	100.0
Total	44	89.8	100.0	
Missing System	5	10.2		
Total	49	100.0		

It is basically the poor economy that contributes to their failure to secure even loans from banks. Second on the list was tribalism and corruption related reasons which have contributed 27.3%. Thus, the participants claimed that those who happen to have

businesses and are locals would have gotten them by unscrupulous ways. To a lesser extent foreigners and education related reasons have contributed about 18% each.

b. Managerial posts held by locals

Table 10 revealed that managerial posts held by locals are also as low as 20.4%. The range was 87% from a very low minimum of 3% to a maximum of 90%. The low mean was an indication that the posts held were negatively skewed. Several reasons have been put forward as indicated in table 12 below.

Table 12: Reason of percentages in Table 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Education /skills/qualification	25	51.0	55.6	55.6
	Foreign	15	30.6	33.3	88.9
	Lack of diversity/interest	1	2.0	2.2	91.1
	Tribalism and corruption	2	4.1	4.4	95.6
	Other	2	4.1	4.4	100.0
	Total	45	91.8	100.0	
Missing	System	4	8.2		
Total		49	100.0		

According to table 12, managerial posts held by locals are few because of mainly education related reasons which contributed a total of 55.6%. The respondents claim that the locals are usually unqualified or are uneducated at all to take up the posts. If they do qualify then they do not get the jobs because 'foreigners' take up their jobs. Thus, the companies are generally owned by 'foreigners' who usually bring their own people for these top posts. As long as managerial posts are dominated by 'foreigners' then the locals are not at decisional making advantage and as a result will never enjoy the benefits of tourism.

c. Skilled labor-force from locals

Table 10 revealed that skilled labor force from by locals was low with a average mean of 33.1%. The range was 78% from a very low minimum of 2% to a maximum of 80%. The low mean was an indication that the posts held were negatively skewed.

According to table 13, about 90.7% of the participants claimed that this was so because of education related reasons. Thus, they said that locals are not trained for most of the skill related jobs, and for the few local who are, they did it on the job training or else they have to go to other places far from the town to learn and train for such skills.

Table 13: Reason of percentages in Table 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Education reasons/skills/qualifications	39	79.6	90.7	90.7
	Foreign	1	2.0	2.3	93.0
	Lack of diversity/interest	1	2.0	2.3	95.3
	Tribalism and corruption	1	2.0	2.3	97.7
	Dual jobs	1	2.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	43	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	6	12.2		
Total		49	100.0		

d. General hand workers by locals

Table 10 revealed that over half of the locals did general hand labor with a total percentage of 53.74%. The range was 80% from a very low minimum of 10% to a maximum of 90%. The higher mean was an indication that the ownership was approximately normally distributed. Thus, the general hand workers were quite better represented though these are jobs of low rank.

Table 14: Reason of percentages in Table 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Education/skills/qualifications	23	46.9	53.5	53.5
	Foreign	2	4.1	4.7	58.1
	Capital/economy/tariffs	2	4.1	4.7	62.8
	Lack of diversity/interest	1	2.0	2.3	65.1
	Tribalism and corruption	14	28.6	32.6	97.7
	Other	1	2.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	43	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	6	12.2		
Total		49	100.0		

Table 14 supported this by indicating that this was so because most locals were not educated with 53.5% of the participants saying so. As a result they have no option except to just do those low paying jobs so as just to earn a living. However some respondents at 32.6% claimed that this was so because of tribalism and corruption

related reasons meaning even if some locals did qualify, they were relegated to lower jobs still.

e. Availability of job or employment opportunities

Table 10 revealed Availability of job or employment opportunities for locals are also as low as 23.6%. The range was a bit lower with 63% from a very low minimum of 2% to a maximum of 65%. The low mean was an indication that the posts held were negatively skewed hence very poor job and employment opportunities.

Table 15: Reason of percentages in Table 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Education /skills/qualifications	2	4.1	4.5	4.5
	Foreign	9	18.4	20.5	25.0
	Capital/economy/tariffs	9	18.4	20.5	45.5
	Voluntary /tribalism/nepotism	10	20.4	22.7	68.2
	Immigration for better jobs	4	8.2	9.1	77.3
	No new industries/ retrenching	10	20.4	22.7	100.0
	Total	44	89.8	100.0	
Missing	System	5	10.2		
Total		49	100.0		

Table 15 revealed that the voluntary, tribalism and corruption related reasons and retrenching and lack of new industries are the major causes both with 22.7%. To a lesser extent 'foreigners' and economy and capital related reasons contributed 20.5% each. The respondents claimed that while there is tribalism and corruption and no new industries or else some industries are closing, off-course because of our poor economy, there is still a greater percentage of foreigners who still come to take their jobs.

f. Availability of tertiary institutions for training locals

Table 10 revealed Availability for tertiary institutions for training was quite very low with 9.98%. The range was the lowest with 60% from a very lowest minimum of 0% to a maximum of 60%. The low mean was an indication that the responses were negatively skewed hence indicating that the tertiary institutions were a very scarce commodity in Victoria Falls.

Table 16 revealed that there were no training or higher learning institutions or if there were there, they had very limited facilities to cater for the population in need with 52.4% and 41.9% respectively. Thus, it is clear therefore that most of the locals are not

employed in higher posts but are generally occupying the very least jobs available which are generally not paying. Lack of tertiary institutions also implies that people here will continue doing substandard tourism. As a result, they may be able to sell one or two sculptures but will fail to attract the bulk of the tourists since they still lack such basic skills as customer care, marketing and pricing skills. As a result, they only manage to sell enough to make a living.

Table 16: Reason of percentages in Table10

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
No training institutions	22	44.9	52.4	52.4
Limited facilities for training	18	36.7	42.9	95.2
People do not meet basic requirements	1	2.0	2.4	97.6
Other	1	2.0	2.4	100.0
Total	42	85.7	100.0	
Missing				
System	7	14.3		
Total	49	100.0		

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

From the study, it can be seen that the local community in Victoria Falls is not benefitting much from the tourist industry taking place in their town. According to the participants, locals should as a priority be equipped with skills and armed with relevant qualifications. The town should invite more tertiary institutions to invest in skills training of locals and increase their knowledge. This would in turn put the locals at a competitive edge. A community based tourism model should be encouraged because it makes the planning process more effective, equitable and legitimate, as long as those who participate are representative of the whole community and capable of looking after collective interests as well as those of their own group. An integrative framework for anti-poverty tourism research which contextualizes tourism as a vital tool for poverty alleviation and identifies stakeholders, processes and mechanisms through which tourism development can help alleviate poverty in Victoria Falls as it has proved to work well in other similar cases in the developing countries.

References

1. Akama, JS, 2002. The role of government in the development of tourism in Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 4(1), 1–13.

2. Ashley, C & Mitchell, J, 2005. *Can Tourism Accelerate Pro-poor Growth in Africa?* Overseas Development Institute, London.
3. Ashley, C & Roe, D, 2002. Making tourism work for the poor: Strategies and challenges in southern Africa. *Development Southern Africa* 19(1), 61–82.
4. Ashley, C, Boyd, C & Goodwin, H, 2000. *Pro-poor Tourism: Putting Poverty at the Heart of the Tourism Agenda*. Natural Resource Perspectives 51. Overseas Development Institute, London.
5. Ashley, C, Roe, D & Goodwin, H, 2001. *Pro-poor Tourism Strategies: Making Tourism Work for the Poor: A Review of Experience*. Overseas Development Institute, London.
6. Chok, S, Macbeth, J & Carol, W, 2007. Tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation: A critical analysis of 'pro-poor tourism' and implications for sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism* 10(2/3),144–64.
7. Christie, IT, 2002. Tourism, growth and poverty: Framework conditions for tourism in developing counties. *Tourism Review* 57(1/4), 35–41.
8. Honeck, D, 2008. LDC poverty alleviation and the Doha development agenda: Is tourism being neglected? Staff Working Paper ERSD-2008-03. World Trade Organization, Geneva.
9. Kibicho, W, 2004. Community tourism: A lesson from Kenya's coastal region. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 10(1), 33–42.
10. Manyara, G & Jones, E, 2007. Community-based tourism enterprises development in Kenya: An exploration of their potential as avenues of poverty reduction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 15(6), 628–44.
11. Moser, CA & Kalton, G, 1993. *Survey Methods in Social Investigation*. Second edition. Heinemann, London.
12. Nowak, J-J & Sahli, M, 2007. Coastal tourism and 'Dutch disease' in a small island economy. *Tourism Economics* 13(1), 49–65.
13. Reid, DG, 2003. *Tourism, Globalization and Development: Responsible Tourism Planning*. Pluto Press, London.
14. Rogerson, CM, 2002. Tourism and local economic development: The case of the Highlands Meander. *Development Southern Africa* 19(1), 143–67.
15. Ryan, C, 2002. Equity, management, power sharing and sustainability-issues of the 'new tourism'. *Tourism Management* 23, 17–26.
16. Scheyvens, R, 2007. Exploring the tourism–poverty nexus. *Current Issues in Tourism* 10(2/3), 231–54.
17. Scheyvens, R, 2008. Tourism and poverty reduction: Issues for small island states. *Tourism Geographies* 10(1), 22–41.

18. Schilcher, D, 2007. Growth versus equity: The continuum of pro-poor tourism and neoliberal governance. *Current Issues in Tourism* 10(2/3), 166–93.
19. Sebele, LS, 2010. Community based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama Rhimo Sanctuary Trust, Central District, Botswana. *Tourism Management* 31(1), 136–46.
20. Simpson, MC, 2008. Communities benefit tourism initiatives: A conceptual oxymoron? *Tourism Management* 29(1), 1–18.
21. Tosun, C, 2000. Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management* 21, 613–33.
22. Tosun, C, 2006. Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management* 27, 493–504.
23. UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development), 2007. FDI in tourism: The development dimension. UNCTAD Current Studies on FDI and Development No. 4. United Nations, New York and Geneva.
24. UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization), 2002. Tourism and Poverty Alleviation. *Tourism's contribution to poverty alleviation* 645
25. UNWTO, Madrid.
26. Zeng, B, Carter, RW, Lacy, T & Bauer, J, 2005. Effects of tourism development on the local poor people: Case study in Taibai Region, China. *Journal of Services Research* 5, 131–48.
27. Zhao, W & Ritchie, JRB, 2007. Tourism and poverty alleviation: An integrative research framework. *Current Issues in Tourism* 10(2&3), 119–43.

Creative Commons licensing terms

Author(s) will retain the copyright of their published articles agreeing that a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0) terms will be applied to their work. Under the terms of this license, no permission is required from the author(s) or publisher for members of the community to copy, distribute, transmit or adapt the article content, providing a proper, prominent and unambiguous attribution to the authors in a manner that makes clear that the materials are being reused under permission of a Creative Commons License. Views, opinions and conclusions expressed in this research article are views, opinions and conclusions of the author(s). Open Access Publishing Group and European Journal of Social Sciences Studies shall not be responsible or answerable for any loss, damage or liability caused in relation to/arising out of conflicts of interest, copyright violations and inappropriate or inaccurate use of any kind content related or integrated into the research work. All the published works are meeting the Open Access Publishing requirements and can be freely accessed, shared, modified, distributed and used in educational, commercial and non-commercial purposes under a [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License \(CC BY 4.0\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).