

A critical assessment of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness

M.C. Gukushu

 orcid.org/0000-0002-1803-9646

Thesis submitted for the degree *Doctor of Philosophy* in
Tourism Management at the North-West University

Promoter: Prof. E. du Plessis

Co-Promoter: Prof. Dr. M. Saayman

Graduation May 2018

Student number: 24880302 ₁

DECLARATION TO INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Molline C. Mwando, identity number 80- 042166 D 50 (Passport no. DN057908) and Student No. 2488302, hereby declare that this research, submitted to the North-West University, for the PhD in Tourism Management: A critical assessment of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness, is my own work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North-West University and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification. The study was also submitted to Turn-it-in and complies with the prescribed guidelines regarding similarity index.



Ms Molline Chiedza Mwando

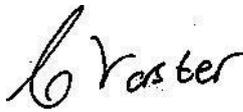
30 November 2017

DATE

PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

I, C Vorster (ID: 710924 0034 084), Language editor and Translator and member of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI member number 1003172), herewith declare that I did the language and technical editing of a thesis written by Ms M Mwando from the North-West University (student number 24880302).

Title of the thesis: A critical assessment of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness



C Vorster

30 November 2017

DATE

PO Box 2692, Potchefstroom, 2520
082 440 4102
cvlanguage.editing@gmail.com

DEDICATION

I do hereby dedicate this study to my dad, husband and children Lorraine and Laura. You were my pillars of inspiration through-out the study. Dad and Joe my love, I wish you could see the finality of the journey you always wished me to embark on. May your souls, rest in eternal peace.

To Lorraine and Laura, education is the only weapon you can keep to yourselves no one can take it from you. Mum loves you, be blessed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- My utmost acknowledgement goes to the one and Almighty God for seeing me through the journey of my pursuit of this PhD qualification. It was not an easy task but with God's grace I sailed through.
- The successful completion of the study was made also possible by a myriad of people, some being family members who were there to offer me unconditional love and at times financial assistance and work mates who provided me with the academic guidance which I sought for.
- Members from my church, who offered me spiritual guidance, moral support and divine protection through their prayers.
- My profound gratitude also goes to Prof E. Du Plessis, my supervisor, for her unwavering professional support, words of wisdom and commitment she showed as she mentored me in my career.
- I am also indebted to Prof M Saayman my co-supervisor for the advice and assistance he offered to make the study a success.
- I also want to thank all members of the Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society particularly Mrs Hanneri Bostlap for the administrative assistance she offered to me.
- Many thanks also go to North West University for the financial support I received which lessened the financial burden of pursuing this study.
- Injustice would be made if I leave behind all my study participants who agreed to participate in the study.
- I also want to acknowledge the mentorship I received from Dr Sithole who offered with some technical assistance of Nvivo for qualitative data.
- Special mention also goes to Ms C Vorster for the editing services she provided to me.
- Finally, special mention goes to the members of my family; my daughters Lorraine and Laura, my mum, my siblings and spouses, my uncle Cliff, Rura and John; friends Simbarashe, Clotildah, Charity and Tiisetso for the emotional and moral support rendered to make this work a success. Your patience over the period of this research has been my source of inspiration.

ABSTRACT

Innovation is increasingly being regarded as the life blood of growth in any economy. However, the role of innovation as a determinant of destination competitiveness is largely neglected in the majority of models on destination competitiveness. This is despite the pivotal role that innovation can play in enhancing tourism competitiveness of destinations especially those experiencing myriad of challenges like Zimbabwe. Therefore, with reference to Zimbabwe, the goal of the study was to critically assess how innovation can be used as a determinant of tourism competitiveness from a stakeholder perspective.

To achieve the main goal of the study five objectives were formulated. First objective was to establish the link between management and tourism competitiveness which was achieved in Chapter two (2) by conducting a review of literature. Objective two (2) was to critically assess the role of innovation in the tourism industry and it was fulfilled in Chapter three (3) through a review of literature. The third objective was to establish the determinants of tourism competitiveness from a stakeholders' perspective. The objective was answered in Chapter five (5) together with objective four (4) through gathering empirical data. Objective four (4) sought to determine the stakeholders' perceptions on how innovation can be used to enhance tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe. The last objective was to develop guidelines to be used by tourism managers and the government on how to embrace innovation to improve tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe and it was responded to in Chapter six (6) of the study.

To a greater extent the competitiveness of a destination is a product of the concerted efforts from individual organisations that make up the tourism industry. Consequently, this justifies the use of stakeholders in the study. The study adopted a qualitative research methodology and used a semi-structured interview guide to collect data from eighteen (18) participants who comprised of policy makers, entrepreneurs and managers of tourism organisations. Thematic data analysis was used to analyse collected data. Creswell's six steps of data analysis were used to guide the data analysis.

Main findings which emerged from the study were: While the participants showed an appreciation of what innovation is, there is still an indication that some participants have not yet realised the value that innovation has in an organisation. This has been professed by the failure of participants to mention innovation as one of the determinants of tourism competitiveness. Resultantly, this raises pertinent questions on the capacity, capability, readiness and competence of the country's tourism stakeholders to come up with innovative solutions for the betterment of the country's tourism product. The economic challenges coupled with a poor political will being faced by

Zimbabwe have crippled the capacity of tourism organisations to innovate according to the opinion of the majority of the respondents. However, it has also emerged that study participants have a misconception that a lot of funds are needed for innovation to take place yet innovation can still happen with small budgets and challenges can even provide the impetus to develop innovative solutions. The instability in the economic environment has affected some systems such as maintenance of tourism superstructure and provision of good access to a destination which are key aspects in bringing competitiveness to a destination. There was general consensus among participants that the above challenges have weakened the competitiveness of Zimbabwe.

In light of the findings which emerged from the study, a set of guidelines were developed which can be used as basis of using innovation as a strategy in Zimbabwe, despite the tumultuous phase which the tourism industry is experiencing. The study is expected to benefit policy makers, entrepreneurs and managers of tourism organisations by providing them with knowledge on effective and efficient utilisation of innovation to improve the competitiveness of Zimbabwe.

Key words: innovation; tourism competitiveness; an assessment, stakeholders' perspectives, Zimbabwe

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION TO INDEPENDENT WORK	i
PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	v
LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
LIST OF ACRONYMS	1
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND METHOD OF RESEARCH	2
1.1 INTRODUCTION	2
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	3
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT	15
1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY	16
1.5 OBJECTIVES	16
1.5.1 Objective 1	17
1.5.2 Objective 2	17
1.5.3 Objective 3	17
1.5.4 Objective 4	17
1.5.5 Objective 5	17
1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH	17
1.6.1 Literature study	18
1.6.2 Empirical survey.....	18
1.7 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS	20
1.7.1 Innovation	20
1.7.2 Competitiveness	21
1.7.3 Zimbabwe	21
1.7.4 Critical assessment.....	22
1.7.5 Tourism.....	23
1.7.6 Guidelines.....	23
1.7.7 Determinants.....	24
1.8 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATIONS	24
CHAPTER 2: AN ANALYSIS OF THE NEXUS BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND TOURISM COMPETITIVENESS	26
2.1 INTRODUCTION	26
2.2 DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT	26
2.3 EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT	29

2.4 UNDERSTANDING COMPETITIVENESS AND THE LINK TO MANAGEMENT	36
2.5 DEFINITION OF TOURISM.....	42
2.5.1 Tourism competitiveness.....	44
2.5.2 Models of measuring tourism competitiveness	46
2.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	58
CHAPTER 3: LINKING TOURISM COMPETITIVENESS TO INNOVATION	59
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	59
3.2 INNOVATION AS A CONCEPT	59
3.2.1 Definitions of innovation	60
3.3 INNOVATION THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS	61
3.3.1 Resource based view	62
3.3.2 Knowledge based theory/view/ resource	62
3.3.3 The organisational learning theory	63
3.3.4 Stakeholders' theory	64
3.4 DETERMINANTS OF INNOVATION PROCESS.....	66
3.4.1 External factors	69
3.5 TYPES OF INNOVATION	72
3.5.1 Classification according to the nature of innovation	72
3.6 INNOVATION IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY	77
3.7 MOTIVES FOR AN INNOVATION DRIVE IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY.....	80
3.8 BARRIERS TO INNOVATION	81
3.9 STRATEGIES WHICH ADVANCE THE USE OF INNOVATION IN TOURISM BUSINESSES.....	82
3.9.1 Strategies to be adopted by the government.....	82
3.9.2 Strategies to be adopted by individual organisations/firms	86
3.10 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	88
CHAPTER 4: METHOD OF THE RESEARCH.....	89
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	89
4.2 STUDY AREA.....	89
4.2.1 Brief overview of Zimbabwe	90
4.2.2 Tourism resources in Zimbabwe	91
4.2.3 Historical perspective: Zimbabwean tourism	92
4.4 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	101
4.5 RESEARCH APPROACH.....	103
4.6 RESEARCH DESIGN	104
4.7 POPULATION.....	105
4.7.1 Participant selection	105

4.7.2 Sample size	106
4.8 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES	107
4.9 DEVELOPMENT OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	108
4.10 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS	109
4.10.1 Use of Nvivo.....	111
4.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	111
4.12 ETHICS OBSERVED	113
4.12.1 Informed consent	113
4.12.2 Respect for anonymity and confidentiality	114
4.12.3 Respect for privacy	114
4.12.4 Voluntary participation.....	114
4.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	114
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS.....	116
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	116
5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS.....	116
5.2.1 Demographic data.....	116
5.3 RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY- A CROSS CASE ANALYSIS	119
5.3.1 Participants' understanding of innovation	119
5.3.2 Respondents' understanding of the term competitiveness.....	125
5.3.3 Determinants that influence tourism competitiveness of Zimbabwe.....	129
5.3.4 Motivation for Innovation	139
5.3.5 Dominant innovation types	144
5.3.6 Government's support mechanism for Innovation.....	148
5.4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	151
5.4.1 Summary on innovation	151
5.4.2 Summary on destination competitiveness	153
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	156
6.1 INTRODUCTION.....	156
6.2 PERSONAL JOURNEY	156
6.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	157
6.4 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY	158
6.4.1 An assessment of objective 1 and 3.....	160
6.4.2 An assessment of objectives 2 and 4	162
6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	164
6.5.1 A set of guidelines for organisations to follow.....	165
6.5.2 A set of guidelines to be used by the government of Zimbabwe	166
6.5.3 Recommendations for future studies.....	167

REFERENCE LIST 169

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Articles published on innovation..... 7

Table 2.1: Classical Theory Approach 31

Table 2.2: Factor conditions 38

Table 2.3: Summary of tourism competitiveness determinants 57

Table 3.1: Types of innovations according to levels of intensity of discontinuity 76

Table 3.2: Categories and examples of tourism innovation..... 78

Table 3.3: Specific features of tourism industry inducing barriers to innovation 81

Table 3.4: Factors that encourages/discourages use of innovation in an organisation..... 87

Table 4.1: Summary of Positivist and phenomenological paradigms 102

Table 4.2: Sample of participants 107

Table 4.3: Interview guide questions 109

Table 4.4: Analysis framework for the study 110

Table 5.1: Demographic data of the study participants 117

Table 5.2: Definitions of competitiveness according to the participants' understanding 125

Table 5.3: Motivation for innovation 140

Table 5.4: Dominant innovation types..... 144

Table 6.1: An assessment of objectives 1 and 3:..... 160

Table 6.2: An assessment of objectives 2 and 4..... 162

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the study 14

Figure 2.1: Summary of the characteristics of management 29

Figure 2.2: The Porter's National Diamond..... 37

Figure 2.3: The five forces competitive analysis framework..... 40

Figure 2.4: The conceptual model of destination competitiveness and sustainability 47

Figure 2.5: Integrated Model of destination competitiveness 50

Figure 2.6: Towards a model for enhancing Southern Africa's Tourism competitiveness 53

Figure 2.7: The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index 2015 framework..... 55

Figure 3.1: Theoretical underpinnings of the innovation process 65

Figure 3.2: Framework representing the innovation process and related categories of determinants 68

Figure 3.3: PESTEL analysis..... 70

Figure 3.4: A Competitive advantage framework 83

Figure 4.1: Map of Zimbabwe 90

Figure 4.2: Foreign Tourist Arrivals Trend 1964-2014 93

Figure 4.3: Overview of sampling techniques 105

Figure 5.1: Word frequency on terms defining innovation 120

Figure 5.2: Summary of findings on innovation 152

Figure 5.3: Summary of findings on destination competitiveness..... 154

Figure 6.1: Framework of the base of conclusions and recommendations..... 159

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Demographic information.....206

APPENDIX 2: Interview guide.....207

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
DMO	Destination Management Organisation
GNU	Government of National Unity
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
KAZA TFCA	Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions/Events
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPP	Public–private partnership
SME	Small and medium-sized enterprises
TDC	Tourism Destination Competitiveness
TDZs	Tourism Development Zones
TTCI	Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organization
WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council
ZCT	Zimbabwe Council of Tourism
ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZTA	Zimbabwe Tourism Authority
ZTDC	Zimbabwe Tourism Development Corporation

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the biggest global industries that has become a key sector in the world by developing the economies of countries (Brida & Risso, 2009:179, Tang & Tan, 2013: Webster & Ivano, 2014, Boycheva, 2017:138). According to the World Tourism Organisation (2015) the number of international tourists (overnight visitors) reached 1,138 million in 2014, 51 million more than the figure in 2013 which marked a great improvement from the previous year. UNWTO forecasts international tourism to grow by 3% to 4%, further contributing to the global economic recovery (UNWTO World Tourism Barometer, 2015). In light of the above figures tourism can be considered as one of the sectors which can be capitalised on by countries for economic growth.

Hence, tourism is described as a lucrative industry which is dynamic. Du Plessis, Saayman and Van der Merwe (2017:1) acknowledge that it is an evolving and changing industry, which requires an understanding of the forces and changes that shape this industry's outcomes. This implies that tourism also has challenges which can affect its competitiveness. Ottenbacher (2007:431) then suggested that to survive in the market place, tourism businesses are consistently forced to modify and update their (product) mix to meet the changing needs and wants of their target market segments. There is a growing need for tourism destinations to increase their competitiveness in order to show virtually uninterrupted growth, to enlarge their market share and to raise the international tourism receipts earned by them (Boycheva, 2017:138).

However, remaining competitive in a very competitive global industry is a challenge for any country or destination (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2017:1). Some of the challenges which can threaten the competitiveness of a destination can be adaptation to climate change, adjustment to limits of natural resources, and protection of biodiversity which require fundamentally new patterns of production and consumption worldwide (The Failte Ireland National Tourism Development authority, 2009:5). In addition global economic and tourism trends, changing market trends and travel behaviours and the role of social media (Dupeyras & MacCallum, 2013:10) are some of the challenges which need attention.

These challenges can derail tourism growth in an economy if there is lack of proactiveness by tourism organisations in the manner they approach business. These challenges have caused some distinctions among destinations and have intensified competition between destinations Jancisk and Mayer (cited by Papp & Raffay, 2011:23). Boonzaaier (2009:2) reiterates that factors

which were once genuine advantages are now simply minimum admission requirements for staying in the game. While the number of tourism consumers is increasing and tourism consumption is also growing, tourism firms need to exercise caution because the tourist profile has changed leading to tourists who are more experienced, informed, demanding, independent, easily accessible and able to organise their holidays independently (Čivrić & Gomezelj Omerzel, 2015:316). Hence, to succeed in the international tourism market place any destination must ensure that the overall attractiveness, and the integrity of the experiences delivered to visitors, equal or surpass that of the many alternative destinations open to potential visitors (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:369). It is therefore evident that the tourism industry does not exist in a vacuum. As tourism becomes more and more sophisticated and competitive, the public and private sector stakeholders are being compelled to keep up with the rapidly changing market (Ferreria & Perks, 2016:10).

There is need to adapt to these changes, needs and challenges which are becoming more demanding. In times rapid changes in the market place innovation is needed for success. Booyen and Rogerson (2017:49) posit that innovation is regarded significant for the competitiveness of tourism firms. Innovation must be the main goal for both the successful and less visited countries (Papp & Raffay, 2011:23). Innovation activity has been seen as the prerequisite for the successful performance and survival of tourism businesses (Petrou & Daskalopoulou, 2013:50; Ritchie Crouch, 2003; Sundbo, Orfila-Sintes & Sørensen, 2007). It has been taken as the key which unlocks growth and outwit competition (Sundbo, 2009:432). Hassan (2000:239) agrees with this fact that in an increasingly saturated market place, the development and promotion of tourism destinations must be guided by analytical frameworks that focus on the concept of competitiveness.

Zimbabwe being one of these tourism destinations that has been affected by the political and economic antics of the country in the last two decades (Mkono, 2012:206) thus the need for innovation to improve its attractiveness. The aim of the chapter is to give the background to the study followed by a conceptual framework governing the study, statement of the problem, the study's goal and objectives and the justification of the study.

The last part of the chapter is marked by a brief presentation of the methodology and data analysis that were used for the study. The structure of the thesis concludes the chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Competitiveness is a broad concept, which can be viewed through different lenses. It can be viewed from both a macro and a micro point of view. From a macro perspective, competitiveness

looks at the national concern and its ultimate goal is to improve the real income of the community. From a micro perspective, it is seen as a firm level phenomenon. In order to be competitive, the firm must provide products and services, which satisfy the desires of the consumer (Mechinda, Serirat, Popajit, Lertwannawit, & Anuwichanont, 2010:102). Firm-specific behaviours determine competitiveness (Dawyer & Kim, 2010). Enright, Frances, and Scott-Saavedra (1996) define competitiveness at the industry level as the ability of firms to achieve sustained success relative to foreign competitors without protection or subsidies. Competitiveness in the tourism literature is a critical element for the success of tourism destinations (Gofi, 2013:121).

Hong (2008:45) define tourism competitiveness as the ability of a destination to create, integrate and deliver tourism experiences including value added goods and services considered to be important by tourists which sustain resources while maintaining market position relative to other destinations. The terms tourism competitiveness and destination competitiveness have been used interchangeably in literature meaning the same obsession thus reference will also be made to destination competitiveness in the study. A destination is hard to delineate (as its borders depend more on the visiting tourists) for one tourist a whole country can be a destination while for another even a little village can be attractive enough to set off on a journey (For technical reasons many researchers (Blanke & Chiesa, 2009, Croes, 2010; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Gomezelj & Mihalic, 2008) followed the approach of using countries as tourists destinations. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) define destination competitiveness as “the ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitor while providing them with satisfying, memorable experience, and to do so in a profitable way while enhancing the wellbeing of destination and preserving the natural capital of the destinations for future”.

Consequently, destinations are required to compete globally in reaching experienced consumer travellers with high-quality travel services (Hassan, 2000:239). To achieve competitive advantage for its tourism industry any destination must ensure that its overall appeal and the tourist experience offered must be superior to that of the alternative destinations open to potential visitors (Crouch, 2011:369). Chena, Chen and Lee (2011:250) posit that more fundamentally, there is a system with reciprocal influences between the competitiveness of a destination and that of the businesses located in it. Conversely, Hassan (2000:241) points out that most competitiveness models have focused on the firm as a unit of analysis for a wide variety of industries. In the tourism context, the multiplicity of industries involved in creating and sustaining destinations requires the development of a competitiveness model that examines the extent of cooperation needed for the future of competitiveness (Hassan, 2000:235). When developing the model it is essential to look beyond rivalry among firms (Hassan, 2000:239) because some interdependence exist in the firms

that provide tourism services which calls for integration amongst the players involved or relational networks (Lazzereti & Petrillo, 2013:63).

The product of the tourism sector is an experience that is delivered by a destination to its visitors (Dmitrovic, Cvelbar, Tomaz, Brencic, Ograjensek & Zabkar, 2009:116). This experience is not produced by a single business but by all players who impact the visitors' experience which calls for a strong unified network of stakeholder relationship for a common goal (Quinlan, 2008:3). These tourism businesses can be hotels, restaurants, airlines, tour operators other supporting industries and organisations (such as the arts, entertainment, sports, recreation, destination management organisations whether private or public or private- public partnership and government agencies).

Many authors have researched on the determinants which can affect destination competitiveness (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2009; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2017; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Dwyer, *et al.*, 2004, Gomezelj & Mihalic, 2008; Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017; Papp & Raffay, 2011; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Zhang, Gu, Gu, & Zhang, 2011; Zhou, 2016). The following have been seen as some of the factors that are considered to have an impact on tourism competitiveness: available resources (natural resources, cultural assets and heritage items), created resources (tourism infrastructure, available activities), supporting factors (infrastructure in general, quality of service, access to destination), and destination management factors (destination organisation and coordination, destination marketing management, destination human resources management, destination responsible management (Jonker, Heath & Du Toit, 2004:4). In their modified version of tourism destination competitiveness, Ritchie and Crouch (2004) outlined five major determinants, namely destination policy, planning and development, destination management, core resources and attractors and supporting factors. Zhang *et al.* (2011:449) established a quantified model using four determinants for comprehensive assessments of tourism destination competitiveness, namely tourism resources endowment, tourism reception capacity, tourism industrial strength and tourism support ability. An analysis of destination competitiveness models shows that the role of innovation as a determinant of destination competitiveness is largely neglected in the majority of models on destination competitiveness. This is despite the pivotal role that innovation plays in enhancing tourism competitiveness of destinations especially those experiencing innumerable challenges. It is against this background that the study dwelt on analysing how the two components link together.

Schumpeter (1934) views innovation as the driver of economic dynamism and has been argued as the ultimate strategy to achieve competitive advantage in any industry. Innovation has been taken as the key which unlocks growth and outwit competition (Sundbo, 2009:432) by coming up

with new ideas, new products, new processes or additions to the existing products and services or processes. Innovation has been studied from different dimensions though (Carvalho & Costa, 2011:23) noted that the study of innovation in services is still in its infancy seeing that the first studies only appeared in the late 1990s but this stance has improved as there are a number of recent articles being written in the field (Durst, Mention & Poutanen (2015); D'Emidio, Dorton & Duncan (2015).

There has been a plethora of studies written on innovation in the tourism industry and the authors used different dimensions and came out with different results. Studies which took the dimension of service and product innovations (Shelton, 2009; Carvalho & Costa, 2011; Enz, 2012; Vos, 2010; Victorino, Verma, Plaschka, & Dev, 2005; Ottenbacher, 2007; Veerakuamran, 2009; Martínez-Ros & Orfila-Sintes, 2009; Yucelen & Yigitbas, 2010; Vila, Enz, & Costa, 2012), innovation and the public sector of tourism industry (Thenint, 2010; Mei, Arcodia & Ruhanen, 2010; Bradley, Dutt, Mohsenzadeh, Pogue & Sun, 2012; Guisado-González, Guisado-Tato, & Vila-Alonso, 2012), social innovation a new focus (OECD 2010; Maclean, Harvey & Gordon, 2012; Petrou & Daskalopoulou, 2013; Kokkranikal, Morrison, 2011). For an elaborate version of these literature contributions see Table 1.1 below. It is evident that the scholarship of innovation in tourism is still limited to date for developing countries, although this field of inquiry has gained momentum (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017; Hjalager, 2010 2014, 2015; Martínez-Román, Tamayao, Gamero, & Ramero, 2015; Omerzel, 2016).

It is equally important to look at innovation and competitiveness specifically from a perspective of developing countries to close gaps in literature. It is also worth noting that most articles in (Table 1.1) on innovation are linked to entrepreneurship (Blichfeldt, 2009; OECD, 2010; Hall, Matos, Sheehan & Silvestre, 2012) which is regarded as the engine which drives the economy. The two seem to be inseparable. Rodriguez-Sanchez, Williams and Brotons (2017:3) are of the view that innovation begins with entrepreneurs who sense a new opportunity which involves 'kaleidoscopic thinking' to rearrange existing 'pieces' to create a new possibility.

It is against this background that this study critically assessed how innovation can be used as a determinant of tourism competitiveness by policy makers, managers and entrepreneurs of tourism businesses for a depressed country. Reference was made to Zimbabwe as a case of analysis. By analysing the innovation state of the tourism businesses in Zimbabwe, tourism practitioners may benefit from this study by understanding the marriage which exists between the capitalisation of innovation in tourism businesses and tourism competitiveness. Below is Table 1.1 with some of the articles which have been written on innovation in the tourism industry.

Table 1.1: Articles published on innovation

Author	Title of article	Summary of findings
Different types of innovation		
Shelton, 2009	Integrating product and service innovation	The author suggests that there is need to complement product innovation with service innovation to generate customer value, improve brand preference, and create greater cross-selling opportunities. Another proposition was made on the need to fuse technology and business model innovation by organizing and leveraging the appropriate resources. Networking was also proposed to support the enhanced value proposition.
Vos, 2010	Service innovation: Managing innovation from idea generation to innovative offer	The researcher concluded that the innovation process of service firms is dependent upon the service characteristics and type of innovation being employed by the firm.
Carvalho and Costa, 2011	Tourism innovation – A literature review complemented by case study research	The results revealed that the implementation of a Hotel Integrated Management System is an important innovation in that it contributes mainly to organisation innovation and firms utilise the strategy for sustainability to give themselves an edge over other companies
Enz, 2012	Strategies for the Implementation of Service Innovations	The paper concluded that the implementation of strategies and its success depends on the type of innovation. Individual counselling and participative employee centred emerged as the most critical ones. Use of rewards and focus groups proved to be working well for cost based innovations while persuasion, leader intervention, participation and edict were linked with service innovation.
Innovation behaviour in the hospitality industry		
Victorino <i>et al.</i> 2005	Service innovation and customer choices in the hospitality industry	The results revealed that customers when selecting a hotel, innovation does matter. Leisure travellers were found to be more influenced by innovative amenities in their hotel choice than any other type of hotel customers.

Ottenbacher, 2007	Innovation management in the hospitality Industry: Different strategies for achieving success	The study concluded that there are no easy answers when it comes to hospitality innovation and there is no single answer of achieving success in hospitality innovation. For success to take place there is need for a combination of many factors to complement each other. Among the factors mentioned the inclusion of employees to drive the innovation development process has been seen to of importance and having an understanding of the market and the customer is also critical in hospitality innovation.
Veerakumran, 2009	The effect of service innovation and customer choices on customer value in the hospitality industry in Malaysia	Using correlation analysis the author established that there was positive relationship between hotel type and information technology while there was a negative relationship between customisation of service and customer choice. Results also indicated that there was a positive relationship between customer choice and customer value. The implication of these results called for more innovative ideas to be planned in order to sustain competition in the industry.
Martínez-Ros and Orfila-Sintes, 2009	Innovation activity in the hotel industry	The results revealed that the radical and incremental innovations are related. In addition the study highlighted that the form of hotel management, the hotel market strategy and the size and location of the hotel are basis of innovation to take place.
Yucelen and Yigitbas, 2010	An Exploration of knowledge management and service innovation: Strategies in the Turkish hotel industry	Results indicate that teamwork, leadership, cooperation, managerial support and organisational culture are significant factors which positively influence the level of knowledge management and sharing. Service innovation orientation at the individual and team levels was found to be higher compared to the organisational level.
Vila, Enz and Costa, 2012	Innovative practices in the Spanish hotel industry	The survey revealed that the chains focused their greatest innovation efforts on improving management with special emphasis on the issues of enhanced knowledge of the market, the use of new sales channels and communication

		improvements. Case studies of four hotel concepts used depict innovations that were unique to these hotels and were found to be hard to duplicate
Innovation and the public sector		
Thenint, 2010	Global review of innovation intelligence and policy studies: Innovation in the public sector	The report concluded that the public sector has a great potential for innovation, but it is not fully recognised and they seem not to view it valuable as it should be. They seem to be more restrained by the budgetary constraints, risk aversion, compartmentalisation and weak diffusion of information, lack of leadership and incentives are some of the barriers the public sector face. As a result much is not done in terms of innovation instead they settle for cheaper things which are hustle free. Regardless of these constraints the inclusion of innovation can make a great difference in adding value to public service
Mei, Arcodia. Ruhanen, 2010	A National Government's Tourism Innovation Initiatives: A Review of Tourism Development Policies in Norway	The results indicate that the government is in support of innovation in the tourism industry though it has been revealed that the government at times may play a passive role as many of the innovative initiatives are seen to be the responsibility of the private sector. Nevertheless the government has been seen to be taking part in networking and collaboration and funding and support of SMEs in the tourism industry which shows that they recognises the importance of innovation in the tourism industry.
Bradley, Dutt, Mohsenzadeh, Pogue and Sun, 2012	Small business, entrepreneurship, and innovation	The focus of the study is on the importance of SMEs and how they contribute to the country's economy. The researchers concluded that there is a tendency of emphasising the importance of these SMES in the public policy yet some will not be contributing much to the country's economy. Instead a proposition was made whereby the policy on SMEs should only target those entrepreneurial firms that are innovative and are realising success in the market place. More support should

		be given to such kind of firms rather than having a blanket focus even with those which are not productive.
Guisado-González, <i>et al.</i> , 2012	How public funding and firms' innovation strategies affect the innovation of the Spanish hotel industry	Using the statistical technique of binary regression, the study concluded that public funding has little effect on the innovative performances of case companies used, whereas the effect of technological strategies varies depending on the type of innovation that is whether it is product innovation or process innovation
Entrepreneurship and innovation		
Blichfeldt, 2009	Innovation and entrepreneurship in tourism: The case of a Danish caravan Site	The study concludes that the tourism industry is often said to be less innovative than other industries. This has been attributed to SMTEs' lack of motivation, knowledge and resources. Owners' commitment emerged to be critical factor in the growth of SMTEs. It also sheds light on the importance of interactional innovation and encouraged entrepreneurs in the tourism industry to think in terms of innovative experience escapes.
OECD, 2010	SMEs, Entrepreneurship and Innovation	The report provides some insights into the various challenges of stimulating innovative moves in small and medium-sized firms using the OECD members as a case. Attention is also paid to the enactment of policies which creates a conducive ground for enterprises to innovate. Networking with all stakeholders also emerged to be critical when talking of SMEs, entrepreneurship and innovation
Hall, Matos, Sheehan and Silvestre, 2012	Entrepreneurship and innovation at the base of the pyramid: A recipe for inclusive growth or social exclusion?	The researchers argue that weak institutions coupled with alert entrepreneurs encourage destructive outcomes, especially if entrepreneurship policies are based solely on economic determinants. Policies addressing both economic and social perspectives may foster more productive entrepreneurial outcomes, albeit at a more constrained economic pace.
Technological innovation		

Figueired, Gomes and Farias, 2010	Innovative technological capability in firms of the tourism sector: A study of the hotels in the city of Rio de Janeiro during the 1990-2008 period	The authors found out that hospitality organisations interested in developing technological capability through innovation need to concentrate on supporting a learning culture in the organisation. In addition the study revealed that management skills, project management and government support are fundamental for developing a technological accumulation capability. The study also recognised the role played by people in the development of technological competencies in the hospitality industry.
Green innovation		
Nilsson-Andersen and Andersen, 2012	Green business model in innovation in the tourism and experience industry Cases from Austria, Portugal, Denmark, Finland, Mexico, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Russia and South Korea	The focus of the report is on the issue of green innovation. Participating countries highlighted the need to move away from just innovation to green innovation for value creation. The company cases used may provide excellent cases to learn from in terms of implementation of the green innovation model
OECD, 2013	Green innovation in tourism services	The report is centred on the importance of incorporating green innovation so as to move toward a green economy which is sustainable socially culturally and economically. It is also worth noting that there is no single recipe when implementing green innovation rather there are diverse approaches which can be used. The OECD also called for a co-ordinated whole-of-government approach, in order to maximise synergies and reduce duplication in the support available to tourism businesses.
Social innovation		
OECD, 2010	Social entrepreneurship and social innovation	The report focusses on the importance of how social entrepreneurship and social innovation can be used to provide innovative solutions to unsolved social problems, in order to improve individuals' and communities' lives and increase their well-being.

Kokkranikal and Morrison, 2011	Community networks and sustainable livelihoods in tourism: The role of entrepreneurial innovation	<p>The study contributes to the literature of how entrepreneurial innovation plays a significant role in tourism development.</p> <p>Lessons can be inferred from the example of an illustration of how entrepreneurial innovation can be used to form a community network and offer sustainable livelihood diversification opportunities to stakeholders in the periphery of tourism.</p>
Maclean <i>et al.</i> , 2012	Social innovation social entrepreneurship and the practice of contemporary entrepreneurial philanthropy	<p>The study used a case study approach to shed light on how the sites and spaces of socially innovative philanthropic projects may have a bearing on their success. Special attention has been drawn to the importance of engaging communities on the part of social innovators. Lessons can also be learnt from committed philanthropists which may serve as a powerful inducing tool for recruiting new donors.</p>
Petrou and Daskalopoulou, 2013	Social capital and innovation in the service sector	<p>Overall results indicate that a firm's knowledge base is conducive to innovation activity. Nevertheless, the explanatory power of knowledge base variables weakens once the underlying social capital generation mechanisms are taken into Consideration. Of importance is the type and nature of network alliances as they are critical determinants of innovation in tourism.</p>

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 1.1 below is a presentation of the conceptual framework which was used to guide the study. In the figure it is clear that for an organisation to be competitive there is need for innovation to be introduced into the company to differentiate its offerings from other competing tourism businesses (Carvalho & Costa, 2011:23). Dahlman and Gaudin (2010:9) are of the opinion that innovation processes germinate and develop within what are called “innovation systems.” For innovation to be a success there is need for private and public organisations to work in cohort. They are the actors that connect in various ways and bring together the technical, commercial, and financial competencies and inputs required for innovation. The integration of these players influences how enterprises operate, and the extent to which they have the opportunity to innovate (Lazzereti & Petrillo, 2013:63).

This can only be achieved if the internal environment which is made up of managers of different tourism businesses and tourism entrepreneurs have innovative mind sets which thrive to offer unique tourism products (Čivre & Gomezelj Omerzel, 2015). Entrepreneurs and business managers are taken to be core drivers of the economy. Their involvement gives birth to tourism competitiveness which in turn will yield a sustainable destination, more tourist arrivals into the country, economic growth and job creation (OECD, 2006). It is also important to note that while tourism innovation takes place at firm level, it is either supported or hindered by a myriad of external factors and agencies. Therefore, the external environment in which a firm operates in is key in bringing out success of a destination.

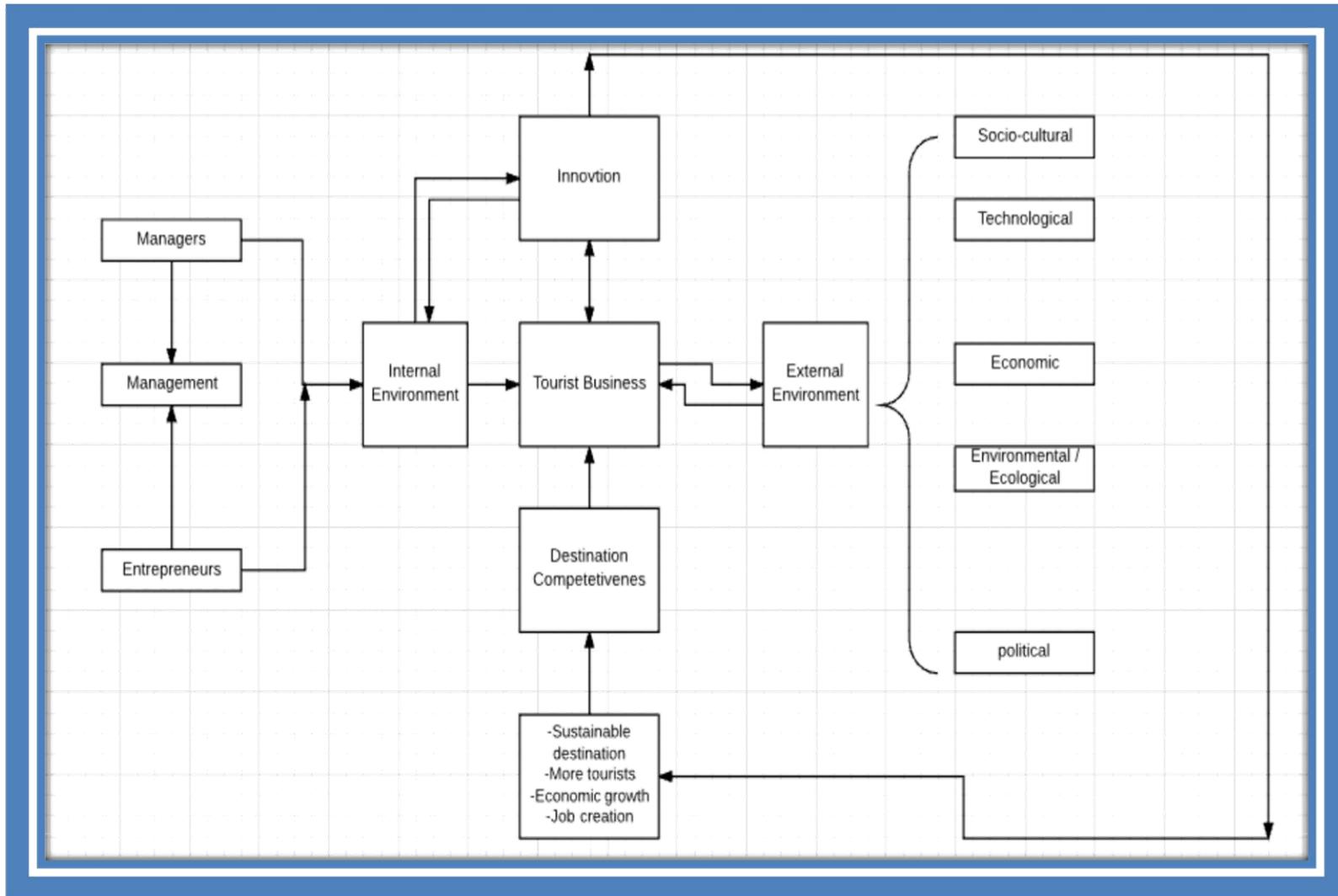


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the study

Source: Author's version, Adapted from Developing an Innovation Culture in Tourism, Failte Ireland National Tourism Development authority (2009)

Successful tourism innovation is dependent, not only on the capabilities of the tourism firm but on the roles, policies and influences of external agencies as well as changing consumer tastes and expectations, (The Failte Ireland National Tourism Development authority, 2009:3). If the efforts of the internal environment are complimented with capitalising opportunities in the external environment, economic growth, creation of jobs, more tourist arrivals and a sustainable tourist destination will be the resultant factor of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Consideration of the theories of destination competitiveness (Heath, 2002; Vengesayi, 2003; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Crouch, 2007; Tsai, Song & Wong, 2008; Croes, 2010; Ivanov & Webster, 2014; Zhou, Maumbe, Deng & Selin, 2015) do not give much prominence to the role of innovation in destination competitiveness. Yet it serves as the dynamic force which practically enables management to maintain the competitiveness of a destination even in the face of a myriad of challenges. This is especially true in the case of Zimbabwe whose tourism product is described as tired (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, 2014:20) largely because of the emergence of economic sanctions which were imposed on the country in year 2000 (Chingono, 2010:66; Hove, 2012:72). Zimbabwean tourism industry has been facing a lot of challenges which have weakened its competitiveness as a tourist destination (Mkono, 2010:206) resulting in it being ranked number 114 out of 136 countries in 2017 (Travel and Tourism Competitive Index, 2017).

Surprisingly, during the colonial era Rhodesia (the former Zimbabwe) was once exposed to the same economic conditions but the country's tourism industry still thrived. One would be tempted to ask, what could be the reasons which are stopping tourism in Zimbabwe from flourishing using the same tourism resources as there were during the colonial era. Mutambanengwe (2012) is of the opinion that the answer lies in the way the government reacted to the dynamics of economies and the power of synergy. Instead of creating doom for economic drivers like tourism, economic prosperity was created during the sanctions era of that time. Available resources were used in an innovative way to create economic prosperity for the country. However, there are still reasons to expect a boom in tourism arrivals in Zimbabwe, regardless of economic hardship. Hence, Zimbabwe in this present day can adopt the same approach and use innovation to rejuvenate tourism in the country.

To strengthen the problem there seems to be few studies which focus on the whole spectrum of innovation in the tourism industry. The competitiveness of a destination is a result of the concerted effort of all tourism organisations. Although there are a number of studies that have been published, they either are rather fragmentary (Yucelen & Yigitbas, 2010, Vila, Enz & Costa 2012, Booyen & Rogerson, 2017:49) or centre on limited case studies (Rønningen, 2010:26). This has

created a gap in which innovation can be viewed from the perspective of the whole tourism product in-order to understand the innovation that leads to the wealth and prosperity of a nation through tourism competitiveness (The global competitiveness report 2013-2014). Also Zehrer and Hallmann, (2015:121) acknowledge that there are a few studies in tourism destination competitiveness which have focus on the differences in stakeholder's perspectives concerning the issue of destination competitiveness. Hence, using a stakeholders approach to analysing Tourism Destination Competitiveness (TDC) helps in the advancement of knowledge in the area of innovation.

Failure to address this problem can result in tourism industry players developing interventions and policies that are disconnected and irrelevant to the industry. Therefore, an understanding of tourism innovation and its link to competitiveness from a developing country context will be critical in informing policy makers, entrepreneurs and managers to make innovation effective and efficient in tourism industry. Use of innovation will lead to industry's profitability, growth and contribution to economic growth and job creation. In order to provide an understanding the following questions should be investigated:

1. What is the understanding of innovation and tourism competitiveness by the participants?
2. Which innovations types are being used in the organisations?
3. What motivates the organisations to innovate?
4. Which processes do the organisations use when they are innovating?
5. What are the factors which are affecting tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe?
6. How is the government assisting organisations to innovate?

In view of the above mentioned problem, the thrust of the study is to critically assess how innovation can be used to promote tourism competitiveness by tourism businesses in Zimbabwe to advance economic growth in the country. This would contribute to enhanced competitiveness of the tourist destinations in which firms operate and, consequently, to greater success.

1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY

The goal of the study is to critically assess the use of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness.

1.5 OBJECTIVES

To ensure that the overall goal of this study is met, the following objectives have been formulated.

1.5.1 Objective 1

To conduct a literature study on the nexus between management and tourism competitiveness focussing on definition of key concepts, the evolution of different management theories, models of tourism competitiveness and the link between tourism competitiveness and management.

1.5.2 Objective 2

To critically assess the role of innovation in tourism through obtaining background information from a review of literature focussing on the understanding of innovation as a concept, motivating factors of innovation, types of innovation and strategies which can be used to promote innovation to improve tourism competitiveness.

1.5.3 Objective 3

To establish determinants that influence tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe using a stakeholder perspective, specifically focussing on factors of tourism competitiveness for Zimbabwe.

1.5.4 Objective 4

To determine the stakeholders' perceptions on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness in the Zimbabwean tourism industry by a means of an empirical study focussing on; understanding of innovation by participants, motivating factors of innovation, types of innovations being used.

1.5.5 Objective 5

To develop guidelines to be used by tourism managers and the government on how to embrace innovation to improve tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe through an assessment of conclusions both from literature and empirical searches.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The following section is going to give an outline of how the study was conducted.

1.6.1 Literature study

The literature review focussed on how innovation can be used as a determinant of tourism competitiveness. The purpose of literature search was to establish research gaps that exist in the scholarship of innovation as a driver for tourism competitiveness in the tourism industry. Firstly it focussed on how tourism competitiveness is placed in the management context. The researcher used journal articles and handy books focussing on management, tourism competitiveness and innovation particularly in the tourism industry. An assessment of Zimbabwean tourism products and tourism performance during the colonial era and post-colonial era was done so as to establish how innovation could be capitalised to revamp the economy through high tourism receipts. The research also made use of documentary analysis of the national tourism organisation annual reports and policy documents.

1.6.2 Empirical survey

Here the research design, sampling strategies and method of data collection are to be described.

1.6.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

According to Rubin and Babbie (2013) researches can be tackled using any of the three research methods namely, qualitative, quantitative and mixed. For the purpose of this study the researcher used a qualitative methodology approach as it allows for more interpretation and nuance in what people say and do thus it can provide a very in depth look at a particular social behaviour or aspect (Anderson, 2006). In addition it offers the opportunity to understand thought processes capture reactions and discover the 'why's' underlying opinions and behaviours. In addition, the fact that the researcher intended to establish perceptions of tourism stakeholders towards use of innovation as a determinant of innovation, a qualitative research approach was deemed fit. It was adopted because it is more likely to tap the deeper meanings of particular human experiences and generate theoretically richer observations that are not easily reduced to numbers (Rubin & Babbie, 2013). Also lack of existing data on innovation studies in Zimbabwe has prompted the research to make use of the qualitative method. The researcher used in depth interviews with key stakeholders in the tourism industry that is from the national tourist organisation ZTA (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority) representing the public sector and representatives from ZCT (Zimbabwe Council of Tourism) representing the private sector. The other segment comprised of entrepreneurs and of various managers of tourism businesses in Zimbabwe. Gofi (2013:124) supports this approach because the understanding of people who have some significant

knowledge of what makes a tourism destination competitive can supply a helpful point of departure for analyses.

1.6.2.2 Sampling

According to Webster (1985) as cited by Herbst and Coldwell (2004), a sample provides a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole. Jesson, Matheson and Lacey (2011) assert that there are two basic sampling schemes in research namely probability and non-probability sampling techniques. To come up with the sample for this study selective sampling strategy was used for the managers because of the multi-faceted nature of the tourism industry and judgemental sampling was used to pick the various organisations.

Snowballing sampling was used for the entrepreneurs to pick prominent players since the researcher did not have a database with the exact numbers of these entrepreneurs. This is in line with Jesson *et al.* (2011) who postulate that non-probability sampling is frequently used when the study population cannot be identified in advance or, more usually, that no up-to-date and complete list is available from which a sample can be derived. For key tourism stakeholders expert sampling method was used because they are considered as the custodians of policies of the tourism industry and experts in the area.

1.6.2.3 Development of the interview guide

The study used a semi structured interview guide which was guided by the key variables of the study that is innovation and tourism competitiveness. The guide was organised in three sections, namely: Section A, which comprised of demographic information, with questions concerning the biographical data of the managers of the tourism supply organisations so as to establish their different characteristics. The second section gathered the managers' perceptions of the use of innovation as the driver for tourism competitiveness. The last section looked at the strategies which assisted the researcher in coming up with informed guidelines on how innovation can be used to enhance tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe. Open ended questions were used which allowed participants the freedom to provide more information for the study.

Prior to the actual data collection, the researcher carried out a pilot study to validate the effectiveness of the interview questions. According to Arain, Campbell, Cooper and Lancaster (2010) a pilot study is a small study for helping design a further confirmatory study. Due to limited

time and some financial constraints, the pilot study was done in Mashonaland West province where the researcher is based.

1.6.2.4 Data collection procedures

Data collection is the systematic approach to gathering and measuring information from a variety of sources to get a complete and accurate picture of an interest which enables a person or organisation to answer relevant questions, evaluate outcomes and make predictions about future trends (Rousse, 2016). Before conducting the interviews with the targeted population, the researcher first sought for permission from the targeted participants. When permission was granted, the researcher made appointments with the participants. The interviews were self-administered and were audio recorded.

1.6.2.5 Data analysis

The study used Creswell's six steps of data analysis (Creswell, 2014) and used Nvivo (a statistical qualitative program) for data management. The six steps stipulate that firstly data must be organised and prepared before data is analysed followed by reading through all the data so as to be acquainted with it. The next step entails coding of data followed by a description of the setting or people and categories or themes for analysis then a presentation of the results of the analysis. The last step is about the interpretation of the results of analysis.

1.7 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS

Definitions used by researchers differ in accordance to the field of study and are not uniform thus terms are often open to different interpretations. This section provides the contextual meanings of key concepts as they are used in the study and are defined in the next paragraph.

1.7.1 Innovation

An innovation is the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, a new marketing method, or a new organisational method in business practices workplace organisation or external relations Tiwari 2008 quoting "Oslo Manual, 3rd edition, 2005. On the other hand Damanpour (1996:694) views innovation as a means of changing an organisation, either as a response to changes in the external environment or as a pre-emptive action to influence the environment. Du Plessis (2007:21) views innovation as the creation of new

knowledge and ideas to facilitate new business outcomes, aimed at improving internal business processes and structures and to create market driven products and services.

1.7.2 Competitiveness

Competitiveness has been defined from five facets that are at firm, industrial, national, regional or global levels. For the purpose of this study the focus is going to be made to firm and the national competitiveness. Attention is given to Blunck (2006:1) who defines company, competitiveness as the ability of a firm to provide products and services as or more effectively and efficiently than the relevant competitors. He goes on to define a country's or national competitiveness as the means and ability of the nation's citizens to achieve a high and rising standard of living. Then the World Economic Forum (2013:4) views competitiveness as "the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country". To elaborate on the definition they argue that the level of productivity in turn sets the level of prosperity that can be earned by an economy (World Economic Forum, 2012:2). Haque (cited by Arslan & Tatliidi, 2012:32) define competitiveness as the ability of a country to produce goods and services that meet the test of the international markets and simultaneously to maintain and expand the real income and also raise the welfare level of its citizens. All definitions seem to be agreeing on the fact that competitiveness cannot be discussed without mentioning the aspect of productivity (which is core in Porter's definition) both at micro and macro levels. However, it is worth noting that, national competitiveness is well enlightened by defining it at the firm level, at the industrial level and at the international level (Arslan & Tatliidi, 2012:34).

1.7.3 Zimbabwe

Collins English Dictionary (2009) defines Zimbabwe as formerly Southern Rhodesia. Rhodesia is a republic in Southern Africa: a former British colony and part of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; gained independence in 1980. Formerly a self-governing British colony founded in 1890 by the British South Africa- Company, which administered the country until a self-governing colony was established in 1923; joined with Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) and Nyasaland (now Malawi) as the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland from 1953 to 1963; made a unilateral declaration of independence (UDI) under the leadership of Ian Smith in 1965 on the basis of White minority rule; with UN sanctions, and proclaimed a republic in 1970; in 1976 the principle of Black majority rule was accepted and in 1978 a transitional government was set up; gained independence under Robert Mugabe in 1980; effectively a one-party state since 1987; a member of the Commonwealth until 2003, when it withdrew as a result of conflict with other member in the 2000s. In addition the Britannica Concise Encyclopaedia highlights that in 2008 long-simmering

political tensions between the ruling party and the opposition led to a hotly contested presidential election that sparked a protracted political crisis and exacerbated the country's economic troubles and deteriorating health and welfare conditions. An agreement for a power-sharing government, reached in September 2008, was implemented in February 2009. The official language is English but two thirds of the population is made up of the Shona and the remaining third constitutes the other languages like the Ndebele. According to the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, (2012) the entire population of Zimbabwe is 12 973 808 with a female population of 6 738 877 and a male population of 6 234 931 in an area of 390 624 sq miles. Zimbabwean dollar was the currency in use since then, but the reserve bank introduced the dollarization in early 2009 - which allowed currencies such as the Botswana pula, the South Africa rand, and the US dollar to be used locally and recently the multi-currencies basket has been expanded to include Chinese Yuan, Australian dollar, Indian Rupee and the Japanese Yen.

1.7.4 Critical assessment

Defining critical assessment is tricky in the sense that there are two words which have been combined to come up with one phrase. Literally it means carrying out an assessment using critical thinking skills (Lynch, 2001:351). Critical thinking is then defined as "the capacity of an individual to effectively engage in a process of making decisions or solving problems by analysing and evaluating evidence, arguments, claims, beliefs, and alternative points of view; synthesising and making connections between information and arguments; interpreting information; and making inferences using reasoning appropriate to the situation (Rosen & Tager, 2013:6). The Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines assessment as the action or an instance of assessing or an appraisal. The same author defines assess: as determining the rate or amount of something". Another definition is where assessment is referred to as the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their (educational) experiences. The bottom line is a critical assessment involves gathering information from different sources analysing and evaluating evidence, arguments, claims, beliefs, and alternative points of view; synthesising and making connections between information and arguments; interpreting information; and making inferences using reasoning appropriate to the situation in order to come up with an informed position of how and why things are so as to improve the existing state of affairs.

1.7.5 Tourism

There is no single definition to define tourism thus; there is no standard meaning of tourism whereby researchers can have a point of reference (Awang, Hassan & Zahari, 2009:67). However, there are several definitions which have been given by different authors. Macintosh Goeldner and Ritchie, (1995) define tourism as “the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors”. Mathieson and Wall, (1982:21) defines tourism as the temporary movement of people to destinations outside the normal places of work and residence, activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater for their needs. Jafari (1991:6) views tourism as “the study of a man away from his usual habitat of the industry which responds to his needs and the impacts that both he and the industry have for the host socio-cultural, economic and environment”. Different views have been presented but all the definitions seem to be converging on the aspects of having some activities away from the usual place of environment, facilities and services being offered to the travellers. The aspect of travelling from one point to the other is also coming out from the definitions though one can question where local people who visit their local attraction and consume all tourism products like accommodation food and beverage services can be placed. Can their economic contribution be part of the tourism proceeds? This is food for thought. In addition the aspect of time frame and the purpose of the visit are also emerging from the definitions. The researchers seem to give definitions which suit their context or according to the demands of their work (Awang, Hassan & Zahari, 2009:67). In order to prevent the disaccords in the definitions UNWTO (1991) defines tourism as the “activities (comprising) of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes”. This definition tries to capture all the concepts which have been addressed by the different authors in their definitions to tourism, however some aspects like the issue of impacts captured in Jafari’s, (1991) definition are not captured and the issue of sustainability is not coming out as well in the definition given by UNWTO yet they are concepts which are important to tourism.

1.7.6 Guidelines

Cambridge dictionary defines guidelines as information intended to advise people on how something should be done or what something should be World Health Organisation then defines guidelines as systematically developed evidence-based statements which assist providers, recipients and other stakeholders to make informed decisions about appropriate interventions and

should be robust enough to meet the unique circumstances and constraints of the specific situation to which they are being applied (WHO, 2003)

1.7.7 Determinants

Determinants literally have been defined as something that controls what happens in a particular situation (Cambridge dictionary). Collins dictionary defines determinants as factors or circumstances that influences or determines something. In tourism determinants are viewed as factors that affect something (Kurtzman, 2006:16) however Hassan (2000:244) refers to them as determinants which points to an end result of something. It has been observed that studies which focus on determinants of tourism use the quantitative method to test the factors or determinants (Khadaroo & Seetana, 2007; Massida & Etzo, 2012). In this study determinant refers to the factor or a circumstance that affect the outcome of something and point of departure is a qualitative was used to bring out the factors. This implies that the factor can be positive or negative.

1.8 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATIONS

The following section presents the classification of the chapters as they are presented in the thesis.

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement, objectives and method of research

This chapter highlights the background, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, justification and the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter 2: The link between management and tourism competitiveness

This chapter provides a review of management and its implication to tourism competitiveness. The study proceeded along with the following spectrum: definition of key concepts for purposes of conceptual clarity, the evolution of different management theories. An analysis of the tourism competitiveness as a concept and its models were also reviewed. Lastly the chapter was concluded by highlighting how tourism competitiveness can be linked to the management context.

Chapter 3: The nexus between tourism competitiveness and innovation

This chapter gives a synergy between tourism competitiveness and innovation. Innovation is being taken as a qualifying factor between management and tourism competitiveness. In order to

bring out the link innovation as a concept, the different types and processes of innovation and determinants of innovation focussing on selected internal factors and the external factors were looked into. Furthermore, the chapter looked at the theoretical underpinnings which were used to guide the study. In addition success stories for destinations which have made it with tourism innovation were discussed.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

The methodology used for the study is provided in this chapter. The grounding of this study is laid in the interpretivist paradigm using interpretive phenomenology approach. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from managers, entrepreneurs and key informants. Open ended questions were used to gather data and Nvivo was used for data management and analysis.

Chapter 5: Results of the study

The research findings and interpretations are presented in this chapter. The analysis was guided by the analysis framework designed for the study. This ensured an in-depth analysis of data gathered from the study. Empirical analysis of the characteristics of role players in the tourism industry and their perceptions were established. It also made an analysis of the innovation factors that can drive the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a favourable tourist destination.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions and recommendations are drawn in this chapter based on the major findings of the study. An assessment of conclusions derived from the literature study and the empirical research were used to inform the proposed set of guidelines to be used by organisations and the government on how to use innovation for tourism competitiveness. Suggestions for further research are also given.

CHAPTER 2: AN ANALYSIS OF THE NEXUS BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND TOURISM COMPETITIVENESS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Management is instrumental in the success of an organisation. It is considered as the nucleus of an organisation (Mahmood, Basharat, Bashir & Islamabad, 2012:512). The literature on management has grown at an unprecedented rate in recent times, particularly after World War II (Olum, 2004:1) this in turn has greatly helped in improving research, teaching, and practice of management as a branch of study. However, such a growth has also given rise to differences of opinion and approaches to management. Henceforth, managerial theory has become crucial in the way managers manage complex organisations thus playing a critical role in the coordination of individual efforts (Olum, 2004:1). For the success of an organisation management and innovation appears to be inseparable because creativity and innovation are important and inseparable concepts that can change the fortunes of both managers and business organisations (Turkson & Opoku, 2010:117). This in turn pays off with a competitive advantage to an organisation over other organisations (Booyen & Rodgerson, 2017:49).

To address these concerns, this chapter focusses on the following aspects in an attempt to answer the literature objective of exploring the nexus between management and tourism competitiveness. Attention is given to the conceptualisation of the constructs of the chapter which are management and tourism competitiveness. The study proceeds with the following spectrum: definition of key concepts for the purpose of conceptual clarity and the evolution of different management theories. The discussion continues to give an analysis of tourism competitiveness as a concept as well as its models. A correlation between management and tourism competitiveness is also discussed.

2.2 DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT

Management has been defined from different dimensions by various leading management thinkers and practitioners but interestingly all these definitions converge to the fact that management is about the effective and efficient achievement of organisational goals. One group of authors view management by focussing their definitions on what management does which is the purpose. One of the contributors' of this notion is (Saayman, 2009:21) who views management from a purpose perspective though he goes on further to include general management in his definition. To him general management is about planning, organising, leading and control. Moving in the same vein (Fayol, 1916; Lundy, 1968; Sisk, 1973; Robbins & Coulter, 2013:37) define management as the coordination of all resources through the process of planning,

organising, directing/organising and controlling in order to attain stated objectives. Focus of these definitions is centred on activities or purpose of management in an organisation. However, (Saayman, 2009:21) in his quest of adding knowledge to the body of management added another dimension which he coined functional management. This is more of an applied management perspective to different functional areas of management such as human resource, financial, marketing and facility management. Kreitner (1989:9); Boddy and Paton (2011:10); Robbins and Coulter, (2013:36) share the same view where management is viewed as an activity of guiding human and physical resources into dynamic organisational units which attain their objectives to the satisfaction of those served and with a high degree of morale and sense of attainment on the part of those rendering service. Similarly, Dwan (2003:44) identifies management as planning of goals and specifying the purpose of the agency, organising people, finances, resources and activities, staffing, training, and socialising employees leading the organisation and the staff and controlling, monitoring, and sanctioning when needed.

Management is again viewed from a dimension of concerted effort by some individuals who work together to achieve organisational goals. Koontz (1961); Robbins and Coulter (2013:36) view management as the creation and maintenance of an internal environment in an enterprise where individuals, working in groups, can perform efficiently and effectively towards the attainment of group goals. Likewise, Kreinter (1989:9) believes that management is the process of working with and through others to achieve organisational objectives in a changing environment. Of interest to this definition is the dynamic nature of the environment where the author acknowledges that management has to be adaptive to the changes taking place in the environment. There is an appreciation that environment is ever-changing thus it needs managers who are proactive to the changes (Saayman, 2009:23) and be able to use resources efficiently and efficiently.

Some authors view management as both an art and science because it contains a systematic body of theoretical knowledge and it also involves the practical application of such knowledge. Lastly, Drucker (1954) views management as a multipurpose organ that manages the business, managers and workers at large. This definition entails that management is all about producing results and it is not a one man effort but it involves everyone's effort in the organisation be it managers or employees. Management is also about being custodians of the organisations resources and proper scheduling of these resources so as to satisfy the organisational goals. Interestingly Saayman (2009:21) appreciates that management differs from industry to industry and the management styles applied are not a one size fits all but is dependent on the industry in question. For instance Saayman (2009:21) says in the tourism, leisure and hospitality industry management primarily works with people, facilities and services. The industry is people oriented (Lu, 2012:288) and that is why Saayman (2009:23) points out that not only is service quality

important in tourism, but management is also important for the success of tourism organisations because it involves working with a large pool of people.

There is also a marked distinction between management approaches for public and private organisations. Public management approach is where there is an intervention of the government in its operations whereas the latter takes an entrepreneurial approach (Saayman, 2009:22). In the private sector innovation forms the stronghold of the sector because it is full of competition. Another distinction is given concerning tourism management and business management. Tourism management is applicable to both public and private organisation where it focusses on a business or businesses. Destination management is another approach which focusses on the management of tourism in a country, a region, a province or a number of countries (Saayman, 2009:22).

An analysis of the definitions presented by the author indicates that management involves coordination of activities, people, production, welfare, innovation and competitiveness. It is also all about playing an intervening role between the people and accomplishment of organisational goals. The coordination in management is done in a systematic way not in a haphazard way which then qualifies management to be a science. An analysis of the above scholarly perspectives of management shows that innovation has been given little or no attention as a construct of management. Therefore, summarily in the author's view management can be referred to as a science or art which involves coordination of all resources and activities through the process of planning, organising, directing, monitoring and controlling ensuring creativity and innovation in order to attain stated objectives in a productive way without compromising the organisational goals.

Having looked at what management entails, below is Figure 2.1 which gives a framework of management based on what has been discussed above.

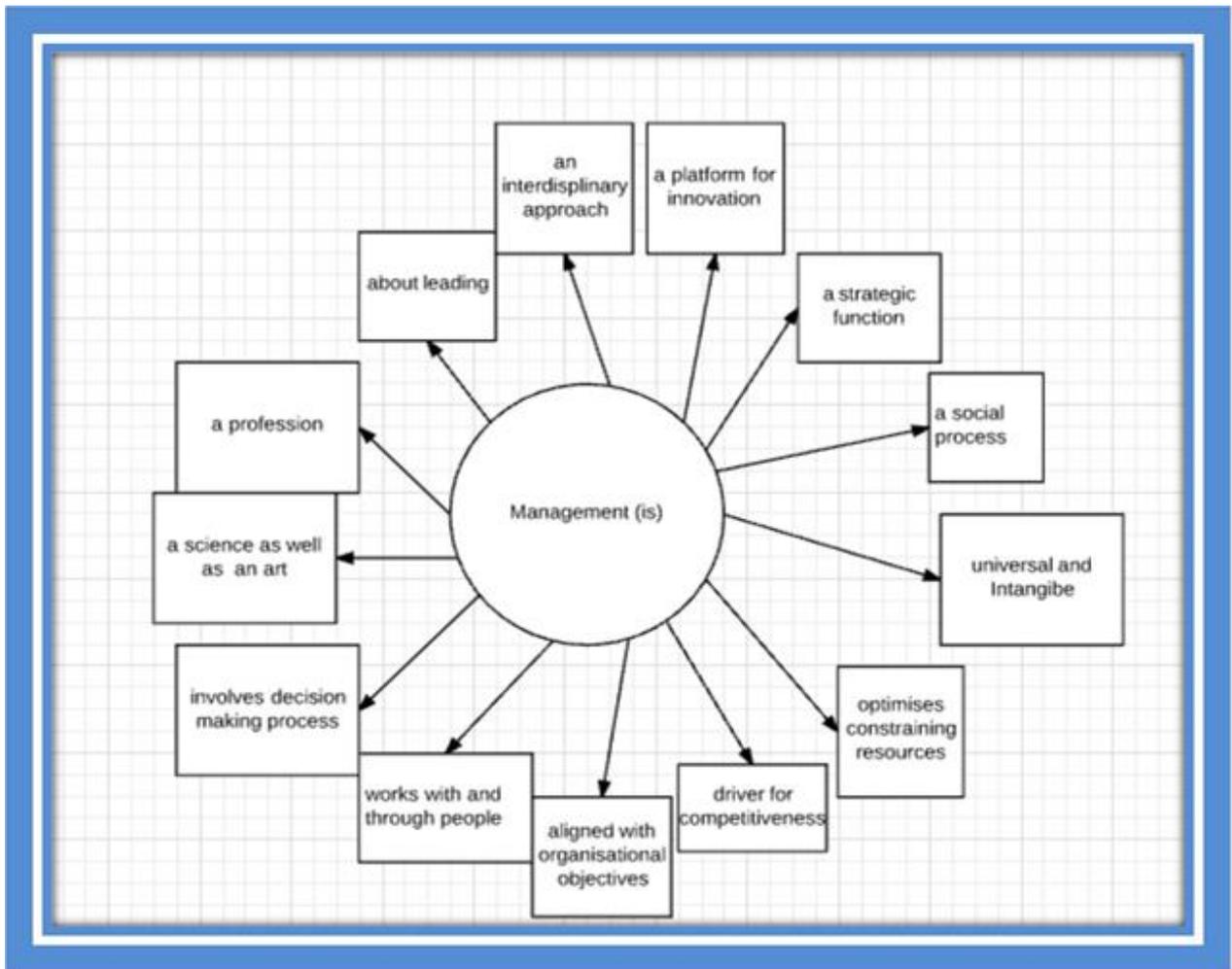


Figure 2.1: Summary of the characteristics of management

Source: Author's own compilation.

Figure 2.1 shows that management is multi-dimensional. The role of management in an organisation can be likened to a visionary image of a wheel which consists of a hub and spokes. To explain Figure 2.1 management is the hub which performs various functions. The hub holds in place the spokes and without the hub in a wheel, spokes cannot function on their own. The full functionality of a wheel only happens when the spokes are hinged onto the hub. Without the hub, the wheel will not move as spokes will be disjointed. It is in the same vein that management is viewed as the hub which ensures the functionality of all other systems in the organisation. In this instance the organisation is the wheel. Thus management is core in all the activities in an organisation for it to be competitive. This is also true for tourism organisations management plays a critical role in the transformation and progression of an organisation.

2.3 EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT

Having looked at the summary of characteristics of management it is equally important to look at the evolution of management theories as 'it represents a more complex reality (Boddy & Paton,

2011:36). Good theories help to identify variables and relationships, providing a mental toolkit to deal consciously with a situation (Boddy & Paton, 2011:37). There are several scholarly theories as displayed in Table 2.1 which have been developed concerning management issues. Table 2.1 is a presentation of the evolution of management theories beginning with the classical approaches to behavioural approaches then lastly the contemporary theories. These include the scientific management theory (Taylor, 1911); The Gilbreths (1908-1924) classical organisational theory (Weber, 1904) and Fayol (1916), the administrative management theory, the behavioural management theory; (Mayo, 1930), Follet (1868-1933) and MacGregory (1960) and the organisational environment theory; Katz, Kahn (1966), Burns and Stalker (1960s), Demming (1980s), Peters and Waterman (1982) and Porter (1980). Table 2.1 gives a summary of the classical management theories and how they evolved and some of the criticism expounded on them.

Table 2.1: Classical Theory Approach

Category of the theory	Name of the Theorist	Name of theory	Focus
The Scientific Management/ Operational Management approach	Taylor (1857-1915)	Scientific management theory	Fredrick Taylor is regarded as the father of scientific management. His major concern was on improving the operational efficiency at the shop-floor level. The conception of this theory came into play when he noticed that managers and staff had no concept about systematic and efficient performance of task. This resulted in disorder and wastage of human as well as other resources at work place resulting in them in not becoming productive. He proposed the following contributions in a bid to increase worker's efficiency so that maximum output could be achieved by utilising effort at maximum level. He introduced the concept of scientific task setting, differential payment system, reorganisation of supervision, scientific recruiting and training, mental evolution and efficient cost accounting system a system to control costs.
	Gantt (1861-1919)		Gantt is often seen as a disciple of Taylor and a promoter of the scientific school of management. Like Taylor, Gantt believed that it was only the application of scientific analysis to every aspect of work which could produce industrial efficiency, and that improvements in management came from eliminating chance and accidents. He is popularly known of the Gnatt chart but the Chart was not only his legacy; he was also a precursor of the Human Relations School of management and an early spokesman for the social responsibility of business. Gantt made four individual and notable contributions which are; 'task and bonus' system of wage payment; The perspective of the worker where he modified the incentive system after realising his system offered little incentive to do more than just meet the

			standard. Workers were being paid more if they complete tasks in shorter time the allocated. The other contributions are the chart and the social responsibility of the business.
	The Gilbreths (1868-1924)	Time-and-motion study	Their work was a refinement of Taylor's analysis of work movements. They were mostly interested in seeing how unnecessary motions could be reduced in bricklaying at a construction site; they succeeded in reducing the motions from 18 to 4. They then proposed that each worker should be involved in doing his or her own work, prepare for the next higher level, and training their successors.
	Emerson (1853-1931)		Emmerson shared the same perspective with Taylor of eliminating waste and creating a more efficient industrial system though his fame was not as robust as Taylor's. His contributions mainly focused on standards and standardization as a basis for efficiency. To him organisation was one of the greatest problems that led to inefficiency thus he decided to zero in on standards and standardization so that work is organized in an orderly manner. He also proposed the twelve principles of efficiency which are as follows; clearly defined ideals, common sense, competent counsel, discipline, the fair deal, reliable, immediate and adequate records, dispatching, standards and schedules, standardized conditions, standardized operations, written standard-practice instructions and efficiency-reward
Administrative Management Approach	Fayol (1841-1925)	Principles of management	The focus of this theory is on the management layer. Management is viewed to have five principles roles; to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate, and to control. In addition, Fayol developed principles of administration to go along with management's five principles. These

			principles are: specialization/division of labour, authority with responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interest to the general interest, remuneration of staff, centralization, scalar chain/line of authority, order, equity, stability of tenure, initiative, and esprit de corps
Bureaucratic Management	Weber (1864-1920)	Theory of bureaucracy	He advocated for a technocratic thinking from a value oriented, affective action and traditional action. Weber then developed a set of principles for an “ideal” bureaucracy as follows: fixed and official jurisdictional areas, a firmly ordered hierarchy of super and subordination, management based on written records, thorough and expert training, official activity taking priority over other activities and that management of a given organisation follows stable, knowable rules
Human relations Movement	Munsterberg (1863-1916)		He was considered ancestor to applied psychology and was deemed the father of industrial psychology. He shared the belief that the key to workplace efficiency was matching jobs with workers' emotional and mental abilities, and that successful matches generated satisfied employees, quality work, and high productivity.
	Follett (1868-1933)		Considered as the mother of management thought. Responded to the shortcomings which were found in Tylor's theory of dehumanising organisations. Follet argued that workers are experts in their jobs so they should be involved in job analysis and managers should allow them to participate in the work development process. She pioneered the genesis of the issue of empowerment and promoted cross functioning and cross departmenting.

	Gulick (1892-1993)		Gulick took over from the Tylorism where management was considered at the shop floor level. His advance is on public and business administration on the organisation's level. He considers division of work as the foundation of the organisation and the reason to form it.
	Mayo (1930)	Hawthorne studies	This marked the origins of human relations movement with concepts of "group dynamics", "teamwork", and organisation "social systems all stemming from this study. Results of this study showed that the group dynamics and social makeup of an organisation were an extremely important force either for or against higher productivity.
	McGregor 1960	"Theory X" and "Theory Y".	The basis is on the way an organisation runs depends on the beliefs of its It also assumes that most people are basically immature, need direction and control, and are incapable of taking responsibility. They are viewed as lazy, dislike work and need a mixture of financial inducements and threat of loss of their job to make them work ('carrot and stick' mentality). "Theory X", argues that people want to fulfil themselves by seeking self-respect, self-development, and self-fulfilment at work as in life in general.
	Katz, Kahn, and Thompson 1960s	System's approach	Focusses on a system which is a collection of parts unified to accomplish an overall. If one part of the system is removed, the nature of the system is changed as well. Helps managers to look at an organisation from a holistically point of view and makes appreciate the role each member play in the organisation because of its circuit nature.
	Burns and Stalker 1960s	Contingency theory	The situational or contingency theory asserts that when managers make a decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are crucial to the situation at hand. Basically, it is

			the approach that “it depends”. Best style depends on the situation in which the organisation is premised on.
	Burns and Stalker 1960s	Mechanist and organic structures	A mechanistic structure provides the most efficient way to operate in a stable environment because it allows managers to obtain inputs at the lowest cost, giving an organisation the most control over its conversion processes and enabling the most efficient of goods and services with the smallest expenditure of resources. The opposite is true for the organic structure authority is decentralized to middle and first-line managers to encourage them to take responsibility and act quickly to pursue scarce resources.
		Team building	This theory emphasises quality circles, best practices, and continuous improvement. It is a theory that mainly hinges on reliance on teamwork. It also emphasises flattening of management pyramid, and reducing the levels of hierarchy. Finally it is all about consensus management – i.e., involving more people at all levels in decision-making.
	Deming 1980s	Quality management	Focus on creating constancy of purpose for continual improvement of products and service; build quality along with price; improve constantly and forever every process planning, production, and service; institute modern methods of training on-the-job for including management; adopt and institute leadership aimed at helping people to do a better job encourage education and self-improvement for everyone; and define top management's permanent commitment to ever improving quality and productivity and their obligation to implement all these principles.

Source: Author's compilation adapted from Saayman 2009.

A plethora of management theories has been presented in Table 2.1 and each making a contribution to the body of management knowledge. Each approach or theory has its own characteristics and advantages as well as limitations (Mahmood *et al.*, 2012:513). A closer look at these theories suggest that most of them seem to point out to the issue of ensuring standardisation in an organisation and ensuring that work is done efficiently and effectively in a harmonious way. However, there seems to be a gap on theories of management which focus on innovation as key construct of organisational success. It has emerged that management is key to all business activities. Fayol (1949:41) buttresses this point by pointing out that every firm requires management: “Be it a case of commerce, industry, politics, religion, war, or philanthropy, in every concern there is a management function to be performed”.

This draws attention to the concept of competitiveness which is fundamental in the field of management. Within the management field, the literature on strategy is essential and an abiding focus of attention for managers as it assists in bringing sustainable competitive advantage (Connor, 2003:195). Feurer and Chaharbaghi (cited by Garelli, 2014:494) go on to define sustainability as the “potential of an organisation to maintain or improve its competitive position in the eyes of its customers and shareholders while having the ability to act and react within a changing competitive environment.” Porter (1980) acknowledges that companies do not operate in a vacuum but operate in an environment which comprises of fierce competition. Porter (1980, 1985) brings in the dimension of competitive strategy and creation of competitive advantage in order for organisations to stay ahead of their rivals. Connor (2003:195) is of the same opinion that businesses survive and thrive through successful competition. Given this thinking it is obviously of importance that managers know the recipe of acquiring competitive advantage over others. Undeniably, the pursuit for these ingredients will be the primary function of managers to ensure growth of businesses being managed.

To create value, maintain and or enhance competitiveness tourism players need to embrace innovation so as to realise tourism competitiveness. The growth of tourism has spurred significant changes in the way in which destinations are {to be} managed, (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:9). Therefore the part to follow gives an overview of tourism competitiveness and expound on how tourism competitiveness can be linked to the management framework.

2.4 UNDERSTANDING COMPETITIVENESS AND THE LINK TO MANAGEMENT

One of the most influential disciplines which enriched the competitiveness of destination epistemologies in tourism was the management field through the seminal works of Michael Porter the strategic management authority. Since 1980s a lot of academic attention has been aroused

on the issue of competitive advantage (Astarlioğlu, 2012:36). Michael Porter has played an important role in the development of competitive advantage literature though there are other contributors who also contributed to this debate. For this reason, Porter provided a model of a nation’s competitiveness which can be used to assess the sources of competitive advantage of an industry in a country. He named the model the National Diamond Model (Porter, 1980). Porter’s National ‘Diamond’ Framework integrates the comparative advantage of different industries with the theory of competitive strategy (Porter, 1980). According to Porter (2000), each industry can be grouped into clusters of related and supporting industries which play a significant role on the economic development of a nation. This model provides an answer as to “why some regions are more competitive than others” and tries to make clear how firms gain superior positions in certain sectors of the global competitiveness (Smit, 2010:115; Bakan & Dogan, 2012:442). The National Diamond model uses four (4) key factors which are factor conditions, demand conditions, related and supporting industries, firm strategy, structure and rivalry. There are other two (2) additional factors which are chance and government. The two can affect the system indirectly. Figure 2.2 below which shows the relationships which exist between the factors. A brief explanation is given on each factor to explain the context in which these factors can be used.

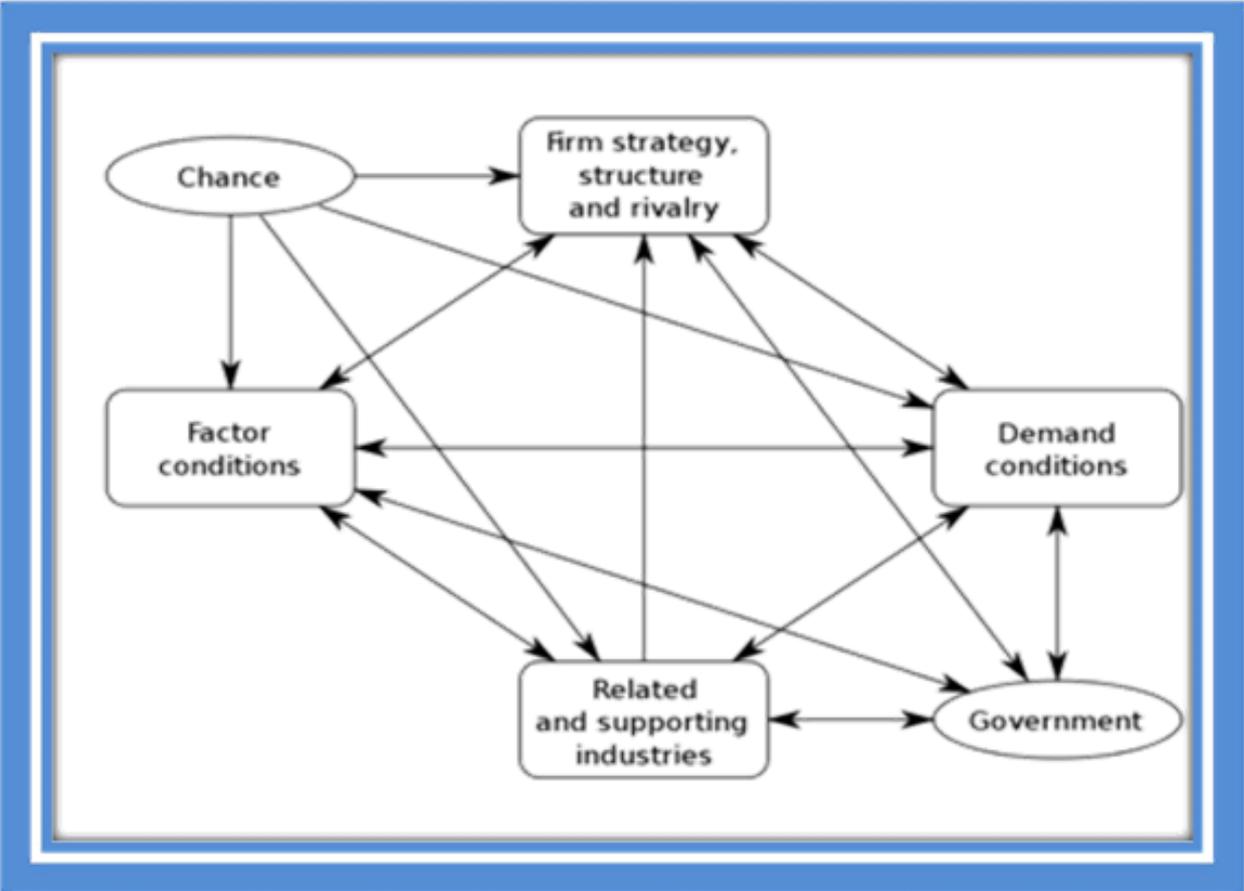


Figure 2.2: The Porter’s National Diamond
Source: Adapted from Porter (1990)

According to Porter (1990:74-78), factor endowments of a country comprises of five groups namely human resources, physical resources (nation’s land, water, mineral, hydroelectric power sources and climatic conditions), knowledge resources, capital resources and infrastructure. Furthermore, these factors are split into two categories: basic vs advanced factors and generalised vs specialised factors (Porter, 1990). Table 2.2 is a presentation of the two categories and gives the differentiating characteristics of each category.

Table 2.2: Factor conditions

Basic Factors	Natural resources, climate, location unskilled and semiskilled labour, and debt capital
Advanced Factors	Modern digital data communications, infrastructure, highly educated personnel, university research institutes in sophisticated disciplines.
Generalised Factors	Highway system, a supply of debt capital, a pool of well-motivated employees with college educations
Specialised Factors	Narrowly skilled personnel, infrastructure with specific properties, knowledge bases in particular fields

Source: Adapted from Porter (1990:78)

In Table 2.2, Porter streamlined advanced and specialised factors to be key factors in developing a competitive advantage of a nation. Smith (2010:115) supports this notion because these factors require larger sustained investments and are more difficult to produce unlike basic factors which are inherited. Both groups of factors add distinctive value to the nation relative to other nations thus creating a comparative advantage. This is so because Astarlioğlu (2012:44) is of the view that factor creation requires continual investments in factor-creating mechanisms like education institutions and research institutes. In addition, private as well as public investment is needed for a nation’s competitive advantage to be achieved. This then brings the importance of the three Ps concept: Private, Public Partnership (PPP). This is whereby the private sector is recognised as the main engine and a cornerstone strategy for national development. Both the public and private sector need to work together to achieve national goals. There is a symbiotic relationship between the two sectors.

The next factor is the demand conditions. This aspect describes the state of the home demand of products and services produced in a country. It involves such factors as early home demand, market size, market growth and sophistication. These characteristics can help companies create competitive advantage, because the home demand has an impact on the pace and the direction of innovation and product development (Mazureck, 2014:80; Huttasin, Mommaas & Knippenberg,

2015:108). Porter, in his model included related and supporting industries as another element. These are also instrumental in the attainment of a competitive advantage because they can produce inputs that are critical for innovation and internationalisation. These industries provide cost-effective inputs, but do also participate in the upgrading process, thus stimulating other companies in the chain to innovate (Du Plessis, 2007:20). The success of an industry is associated with the presence of suppliers and related industries within a certain region.

Firm's strategy, structure and rivalry is another element instrumental to competitive advantage. This element is about how companies are organised and managed, their objectives and the nature of rivalry in the home market. The way in which companies are established, set goals and are managed is critical to success on international markets. However, the presence of intense rivalry also makes companies competitive: it creates pressure. This triggers companies to innovate in order to maintain and upgrade competitiveness (Curta, 2016:32).

The government can have strong influence on the international competitiveness of a firm. In addition, it can influence each of the five other forces in the Porter National Diamond model. The government of a country can either promote or hinder economic progress of a nation. It can influence the supply conditions of key production factors (Huttasin *et al.*, 2015:108). It can shape the demand conditions in the home market, as well as the competition between firms. These interventions can occur at local, regional, national, or even supranational level.

The final element in the Porter Diamond model is chance. Chance refers to random events that are beyond the control of the company (Curta, 2016:32). For the international competitiveness, they may be very important: the discontinuities created by chance may lead to advantages for some and disadvantages for other companies. Some firms may gain competitive positions, while others may lose. For instance the issue of climate change has made some tourism business to flourish yet some have pushed out of business by failing to find innovative solutions to deal with the misnomers. These factors can promote or impede competitive advantage if they are not managed well. Astarlioğlu (2012:43) reiterates that all factors need to be treated individually but they act as a mutually reinforcing system. Diagnosing the sources of these advantages is crucial for a country (Astarlioğlu, 2012:43) to attain advantages in all aspects of the diamond and sustain them in the long run.

In addition, competitiveness is a concept which is also premised in management and has received widespread interest and attention which is also the same case with the tourism sector (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:11; Mazurek, 2014:77) and has been adapted from different disciplines. In order for

a firm to be competitive Porter (1990) asserts that a firm must have a competitive strategy in order to be successful. The next section presents Porter's five forces model.

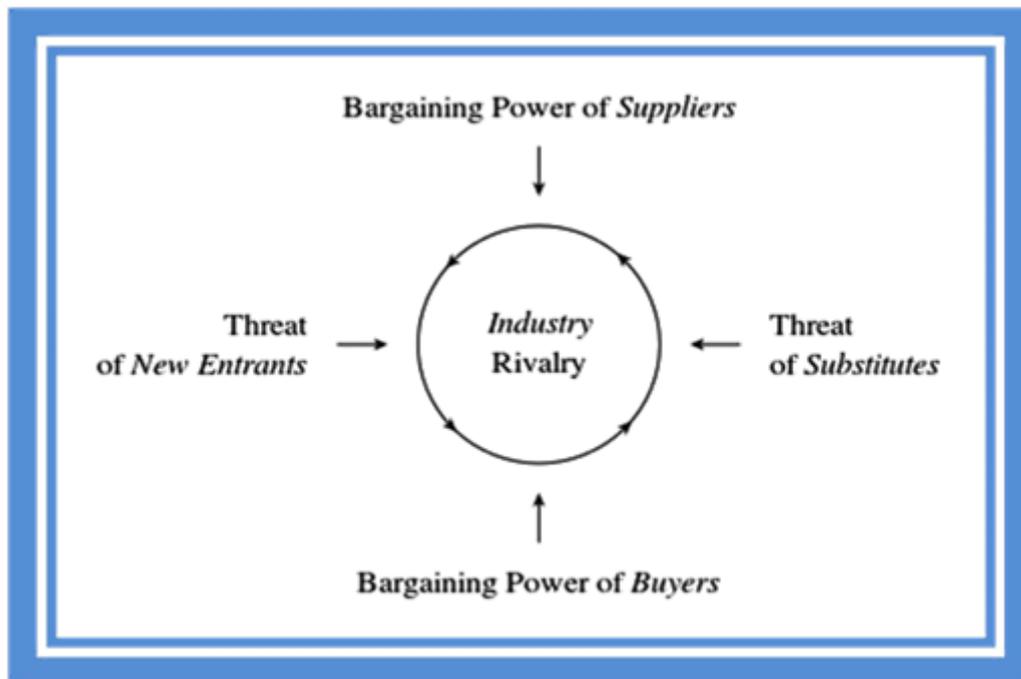


Figure 2.3: The five forces competitive analysis framework

Source: Porter (1980)

Figure 2.3 is a presentation of the five forces analysis framework developed by Porter in 1980 as a means of analysing competition in an industry. By knowing the competition surrounding an organisation, this enables the employment of competitive strategies in-order to gain a competitive advantage over other firms in the same industry. By doing so the nation is able to attain a comparative advantage over other nations. Porter regarded understanding both the competitive forces and the overall industry structure as crucial for effective strategic decision-making. In Porter's model, the five forces that shape industry competition are suppliers, rivalry within an industry; substitute products, customers or buyers power and new entrants (see Figure 2.3).

- Supplier power

Supplier power is an assessment of how easy it is for suppliers to drive up prices. This is driven by the: number of suppliers of each essential input, uniqueness of their product or service, relative size and strength of the supplier and the cost of switching from one supplier to another.

- Buyer power

Buyer power involves the assessment of how easy it is for buyers to drive prices down. If there are few buyers and plenty suppliers, buyers have the liberty to switch to cheaper suppliers. Nevertheless, unique products always attract customers.

- Competitive rivalry

The main driver here is the number and capability of competitors in the market. The focus is on what the competitors are producing to counter competition. In response, an organisation must thrive to use innovation as a basis of gaining competitive advantage over rivals.

- Threat of substitution

Availability of close substitute products existing in a market can increase the likelihood of customers switching to alternatives in response to price increases. However, if products produced are unique customers are always loyal to the organisation's products.

- Threat of new entry

Profitability is eroded by new entrants in the market. Failure to produce innovative products can see an organisation being overtaken by these new entrants.

All the five forces act as inducers for organisations to innovate so as to remain competitive. These five forces help to identify where power lies in a business situation. Applying the model means, to be profitable, the firm has to find and establish itself in an industry so that the company can react to the forces of competition in a favourable manner (Dobrivojević, 2013:360). The five forces framework can be taken as a blueprint for practitioners or a tool for managers to analyse competition in an industry in order to anticipate and prepare for changes in the industry, new competitors and market shifts, and to enhance their firm's overall industry standing. Dobrivojević (2013:360) acknowledges that the Porter's five forces model has proved to be a very useful tool in tourism that allows tourist destinations in a country to examine their position in the domestic market in comparison to the offerings of competitors. This self-diagnosis allows firms to develop their services and contents to suit the needs of the target market.

Having done an environmental analysis Vanhove (2011:22) proposes that tourism organisations must aim to put consumers first by developing a holistic holiday experience, be a leader in quality,

develop radical innovations by building a culture of continuous innovation and strengthen its strategic position. The next section gives an overview of tourism phenomenon so as to bridge the gap between competitiveness and tourism competitiveness. There also seems to be no general definition accepted of tourism competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:13), thus, the need to first discuss what tourism entails and how it can be linked to tourism competitiveness. Therefore, different views of tourism definition are presented to arrive at the definition of tourism competitiveness.

2.5 DEFINITION OF TOURISM

Different tourism definitions have been presented by various authors and each author has his/her own way of defining tourism and this has caused a lot of confusion as to which definition must be adopted. A few are going to be referred to in this study. Many scholars have come up with the definition of tourism of which most of the definitions share some similarities on the concepts being discussed by these authors (Tourism Society of England, 1976; Guyer & Feuler, 1905; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Macintosh & Goeldner, 1986; Saayman, 2009). The definition of tourism has first been defined by Tourism Society of England (1976) as the temporary, short-term movement of people to destination outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during the stay at each destination [and] it includes movements for all purposes. A different dimension was brought in by (Guyer & Feuler, 1905) who define tourism as a phenomenon unique to modern time which is dependent on the people's increasing need for a change and relaxing, the wish of recognising the beauties of nature and art and the belief that nature gives happiness to human beings and which helps nations and communities' approaching to each other thanks to the developments in commerce and industry and the communication and transportation tools' becoming excellent. This definition differs from the other definitions in that it is more driven by the idea of what motivates an individual to embark in tourism and it also takes an economic value stance to both the nation and the communities visited.

Mathieson and Wall (1982:1) define it as the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations and the facilities created to cater to their needs. Macintosh and Goeldner (1990:10) view tourism as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors. UNWTO (2005) defines tourism as the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited. Ugurlu (2010:1) in addition says

tourism includes services and industries that deliver a travel experience, including transportation, accommodations, eating and drinking establishments, retail shops, entertainment businesses, activity facilities and other hospitality services provided for individuals or groups travelling away from home. Saayman (2009:3) views tourism as the total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in the process of providing attractions, entertainment, transport and accommodation to tourists. This definition is closer to the definition which was used in this study which defines tourism as a collection of activities, services and industries which deliver a travel experience comprising transportation, accommodation, eating and drinking establishments, retail shops, entertainment businesses and other hospitality services provided for individuals or groups travelling away from home" (Ugurlu, 2010:1).

Tourism products are viewed as service products, generally consisting of multiple services (Platzer, 2014:1) and thus are often referred to as a service package or bundle, (Stickdorn & Zehrer, 2009:4). Furthermore, tourism product bundles are seldom provided by one single service provider, but are rather linking together various services offered by different service providers. These tourism products then make up a destination which in turn forms the supply side of the functioning tourism system (Gunn, 1989). Gunn (1989:6) further postulates that it is not enough just to talk about the functioning systems but also there is need to pay attention to external force which might cause the system not to function properly. The external forces include the entrepreneurship level, workers, finances, government policies and management of organisations.

Leiper (1979, 1990) also views tourism using the systems approach which comprises of three major components that is the tourist generating region (demand side), the transit route representing the linking process and lastly the tourist destination region (supply side). Buhalis (2000:98) then refers destinations as "amalgams of tourism products, which offer an integrated experience to consumers". Similarly, Ghirelli (2013:1) defines a destination as the place of production of the tourist experience which is based on grouping together organisations from different and complementary sectors, both public and private actors, which are dependent upon each other, generating a bundle of multiple products and services in a limited geographical area. Bieger (cited by Hallmann, Muller, Feiler, Breuer & Roth, 2012:13) defines a destination to be nations, states, cities, or regions which focus on enhancing their respective attractiveness and image in order to stay competitive. Given the definitions above tourism and destination competitiveness can be used interchangeably as they mean almost the same thing though tourism competitiveness focusses more on the supply side of the tourism system and destinations can be equated with business organisations and are best coordinated by destination management

organisations (DMOs) (Stickdorn & Zehrer, 2009:5). Zehrer and Hallmann (2016:121) describe destination stakeholders to include both private and public actors: private entrepreneurs operating hotels, restaurants, the DMO, retailers, transportation companies and other also public stakeholders such as attractions, government and/or universities.

Successful destinations combine diverse services, which can be structured as the 6 A's of tourism destinations: Attractions can be natural (examples include mountains, lakes and beaches), artificial (examples include landmark buildings, amusement parks) or cultural (examples include ritual places/events). Accessibility refers to both the transport to and within a certain destination. Amenities characterise all services facilitating a convenient stay, for instance accommodation, gastronomy or leisure activities. Available packages refer to the availability of service bundles to direct the tourists' attention to certain unique features of a respective destination. Activities refer to the tourists' travel motives available within the destination both active ones (examples include hiking, swimming, and skiing) and passive ones (examples include sun bathing, wellness). Ancillary services are those services of daily use, which are not primary associated with tourism (examples include health care, post and telecommunication) (Buhalis, 2000; Crouch, 2007; Freyer (cited by Stickdorn & Zehrer, 2009:4). This makes the tourism a multifaceted phenomenon. It can be viewed from different perspectives, depending on the purposes and interests of the observer (Huttasin *et al.*, 2015:106).

The competitiveness of any service product ultimately depends on the customer satisfaction, which is determined by the consumer's assessment of expectations towards a certain quality (Stickdorn & Zehrer, 2009:3). As alluded to earlier on it is no longer enough just to focus on the inherited resources but more effort is now needed on created resources which require flair of innovation to become competitive. Having looked at the different definitions of tourism, attention is now shifted to tourism competitiveness which is to be discussed in the next section.

2.5.1 Tourism competitiveness

One of the tourism competitiveness' scholars Poon (1993) makes reference to four key principles of tourism competitiveness. The four principles were putting environment first, making tourism a leading sector, strengthening the distribution channels in the market place and building a dynamic private sector. Hong (2008:44) argue that the principles were too broad to be offering guiding principles to the tourism practitioners thus called for deeper perspectives of destination competitiveness. Several definitions were proposed, Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) reiterate that what makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences and

to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and reserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations”.

Hong (2008:45) however, defined tourism competitiveness as the ability of a destination to create, integrate and deliver tourism experiences including value added goods and services considered to be important by tourists which sustain resources while maintaining market position relative to other destinations. Dwyer and Kim (2003:375) define destination competitiveness as the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of the tourism experience considered being important by tourists. Nevertheless, the definition given by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) appears to be comprehensive which states that: “Tourism competitiveness for a destination is about the ability of the place to optimise its attractiveness for residents and non-residents, to deliver quality, innovative, and attractive tourism services to consumers and to gain market shares on the domestic and global market places, while ensuring that the available resources supporting tourism are used efficiently and in a sustainable way” (OECD, 2014:7). Above all, Goffi (2013:121) finds competitiveness as a critical element for the success of tourism destinations with particular emphasis being placed on identifying and analysing the various factors that influence the competitiveness of tourism destinations. Therefore, competitiveness and success are two inseparable elements and are significantly related (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:13).

While there seems to be some agreement as to the objectives of competitiveness, there are various ways of explaining and measuring competitiveness in tourism literature. A number of theoretical and empirical studies on tourism destination competitiveness by eminent scholars (Heath, 2002; Vengesai, 2003; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Crouch, 2007; Tsai, Song & Wong, 2008; Croes, 2010; Ivanov & Webster, 2014; Zhou, Maumbe, Deng & Selin, 2015) have been written to explain and/or measure destination competitiveness. The major weakness with these models is that most of them are from developed countries a few (Heath, 2002; Vengesai, 2003) have been conducted for the developing countries. However, each one of these empirical and theoretical models provides very useful insights into destination competitiveness. They focus on several issues and consist of various determinants (Goffi, 2013:124). These models further provide different perspectives for understanding TDC and they complement each other; together, they bring a more complete view of TDC for a country (Andrades & Dimanche, 2017:365). The next section is a presentation of the different models which were proposed by the scholars and how they contributed in building up literature on tourism competitiveness. Of interest are those seminal contributions which provided a frame to this study.

2.5.2 Models of measuring tourism competitiveness

While there seems to be a consensus in the literature about the main objectives of competitiveness, there are various ways of explaining and measuring competitiveness in tourism literature (Gofi, 2013:122). Crouch and Ritchie (2013) acknowledge that destination competitiveness is firmly entrenched as an important topic for tourism research. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:368) perspectives in various disciplines reveal that competitiveness is a multi-faceted concept which can be regarded to be associated with four major groups of thought. These groups are: (1) comparative advantage and/or price competitiveness perspective; (2) a strategy and management perspective; (3) a historical and socio-cultural perspective and (4) development of determinants of national competitiveness. Several studies have been conducted whereby authors used models of competitiveness to measure the competitiveness of destinations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Dragičević, Jovičić, Blešić, Stankov & Bošković, 2012).

Earlier works of tourism competitiveness have been seen in Crouch and Ritchie (1999) and Ritchie and Crouch (2000, 2003:2), who pioneered a framework which was directly linked with the measurement of destination competitiveness as shown in Figure 2:4 below. They borrowed the concept from Porter's competitive national diamond model and concept of comparative advantage though the authors used the aspect of sustainability as a point of departure from Porter's model. Gofi (2013:122) concurs that competitiveness is illusory without sustainability thus it has become a prevailing issue in tourism literature. The other models which were later developed borrowed a lot from Porter's model as shall be comprehended in this discourse. The model by Ritchie and Crouch (2003) focussed on service product and the actual experiences with the service process – the perceived service.

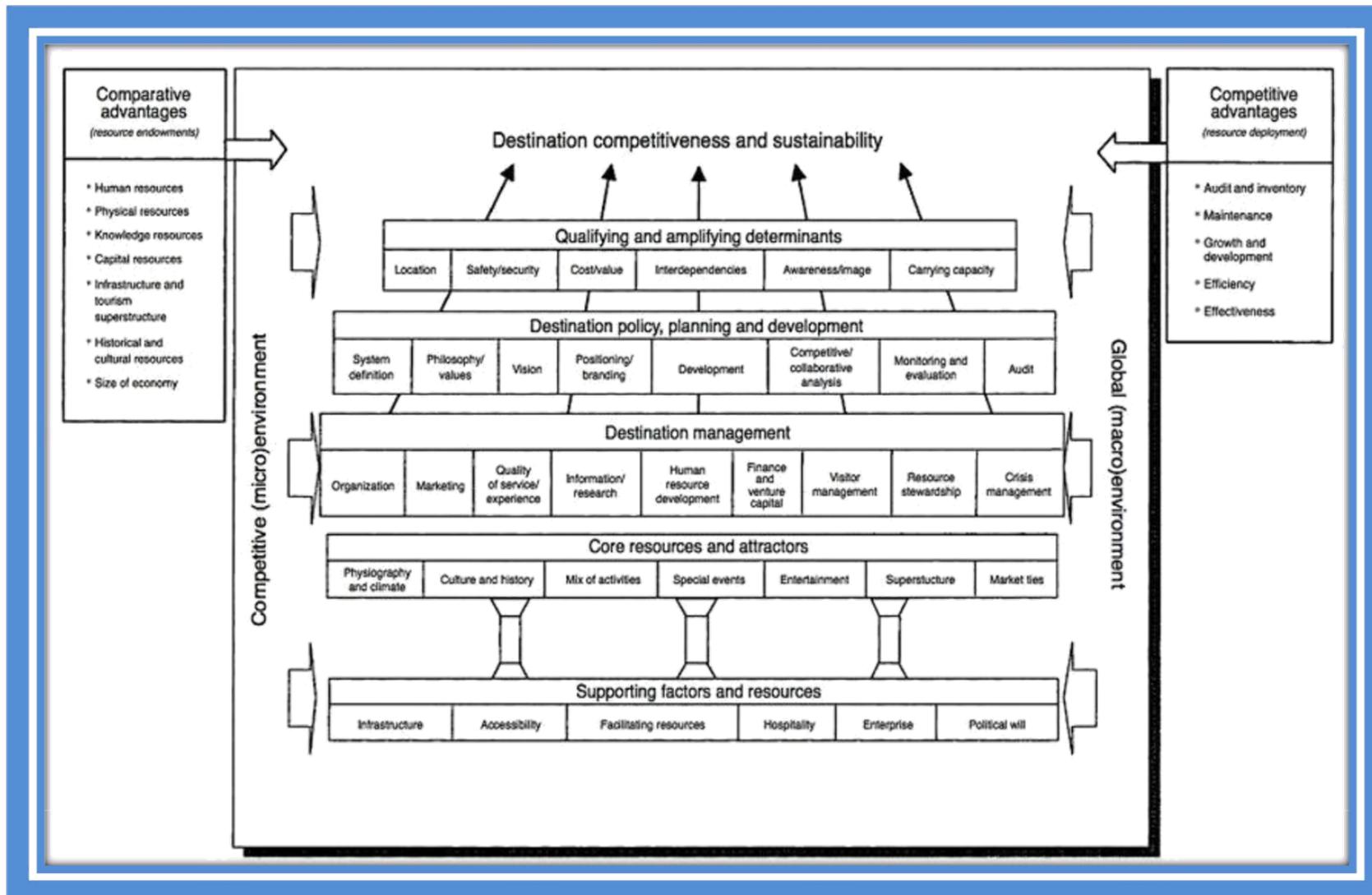


Figure 2.4: The conceptual model of destination competitiveness and sustainability

Source: Ritchie and Crouch (2003)

These authors came up with the conceptual model that realises that a destination's competitiveness is based on the comparative and the competitive advantage of the destination. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) suggest that there are seven key influential factors that influence the competitiveness of a certain tourism destination. The key factors are the global (macro) environment, the competitive (micro) environment, core resources and attractors, supporting factors and resources, destination policy, planning and development, destination management and finally the qualifying and amplifying determinants. The itemisation is considered to be a first step leading toward a composite destination competitiveness index and a subsequent tool for simulating destination performance (Mazanec *et al.*, 2007:87). Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argue that supporting factors form the backbone of key tourist attractors as they form the base for any destination to be attractive. Emphasis is also put on supporting factors and resources which are the foundation for shaping a successful tourism industry at a destination. In other words they give the tourist motive to travel. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) categorised supporting factors and resources as the infrastructure, political will, hospitality, facilitating resources, accessibility only to mention a few. In support Hallmann *et al.* (2012) also included in their elements of tourism competitiveness the infrastructure aspect to show that it plays a critical role in determining tourism competitiveness. Likewise, Wilde and Cox (2008) point out that the preservation of current infrastructure and the development of new infrastructure are considered by tourists to be major issues in enhancing the competitiveness of a destination. The infrastructure of a destination includes transport services, hotels, recreational facilities, sports stadiums.

Core resources and attractors are also instrumental in shaping tourism competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). The researchers in their model advocated that core resources and attractors act as pull factors that influence the potential visitors to choose a destination over the other. The factors can be equated to the general and basic factors as prescribed by Porter (1980) in his national diamond model. Likewise, UNWTO (2007) says core resources and attractors influence the dream, plan and book part of the customer journey framework. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) further noted that these core resources include factors such as the physiography and climate, culture and history, mix of activities, special events, entertainment, superstructure and the market ties. These factors make the primary elements of a destination's appeal. However, some of the elements such as climate cannot be changed or controlled so as to enhance the competitiveness of a destination. While these factors cannot be changed or controlled, innovation can be used to manipulate them to the organisation's advantage.

The other key factor is destination's policy, planning and development. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003) destination's policy, planning and development form the structures and guidelines that shape and ensure the management and development of destinations and thus aiding them

to be equally competitive to other destinations sustainably to enhance the quality of life of destination residents. Policies are very important for the development of the tourism sector.

The model by Ritchie and Crouch (2003) also presents qualifying and amplifying determinants. These are location, safety and security, cost and value, image, interdependency and the carrying capacity Heath (2002). Prices of the tourism facilities and services can deter or attract tourists to visit a destination (Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017:4). Destinations which charge high prices are likely to be affected in terms of competitiveness. Image is also critical as one of the qualifying and amplifying determinants and UWTO 2007 considers it as one of the intangible tourism resources. Image is the face or the mirror of the destination. This can increase or reduce the competitiveness of a destination.

The model takes an all-inclusive approach whereby both demand and supply side are looked into when measuring destination competitiveness. Nowadays, consumer behaviours are continuously changing and provision of tourist's interests are the "experiences" that a destination is expected to offer (Nylander & Hall, 2005; Robinson & Novelli, (cited by Novelli Schmitz & Spencer, 2005); Weiermair, 2006). With this new twist it then motivates the need to view tourism competitiveness in the lenses of both demand and supply sides of tourism (Leiper, 1980). Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) concludes that "[w]hat makes a tourism destination to be truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations". Striking a balance between the love for making money and the well-being of the residents of the host country is eminent as proposed by Ritchie and Crouch in their model. However, it has been noted that innovation is silent in this model yet for an organisation to survive there is need for innovation to take the centre stage.

Similar to Ritchie and Crouch (2003); Dwyer and Kim (2003); Dwyer *et al.*, (2004) brought in another dimension of measuring destination competitiveness. They came up with determinants and determinants that can be used to define destination competitiveness. Their study came up with determinants, which are categorised into subgroups labelled endowed resources, supporting factors, destination management, situational conditions, demand factors, and market performance determinants, which were generated during workshops with tourism industry stakeholders in Australia and Korea. The integrated destination competitiveness model borrowed concepts from Ritchie and Crouch (2003) as indicated in Figure 2:5 below. Conversely, there are some factors which were used as a point of departure to the model by Ritchie and Crouch.

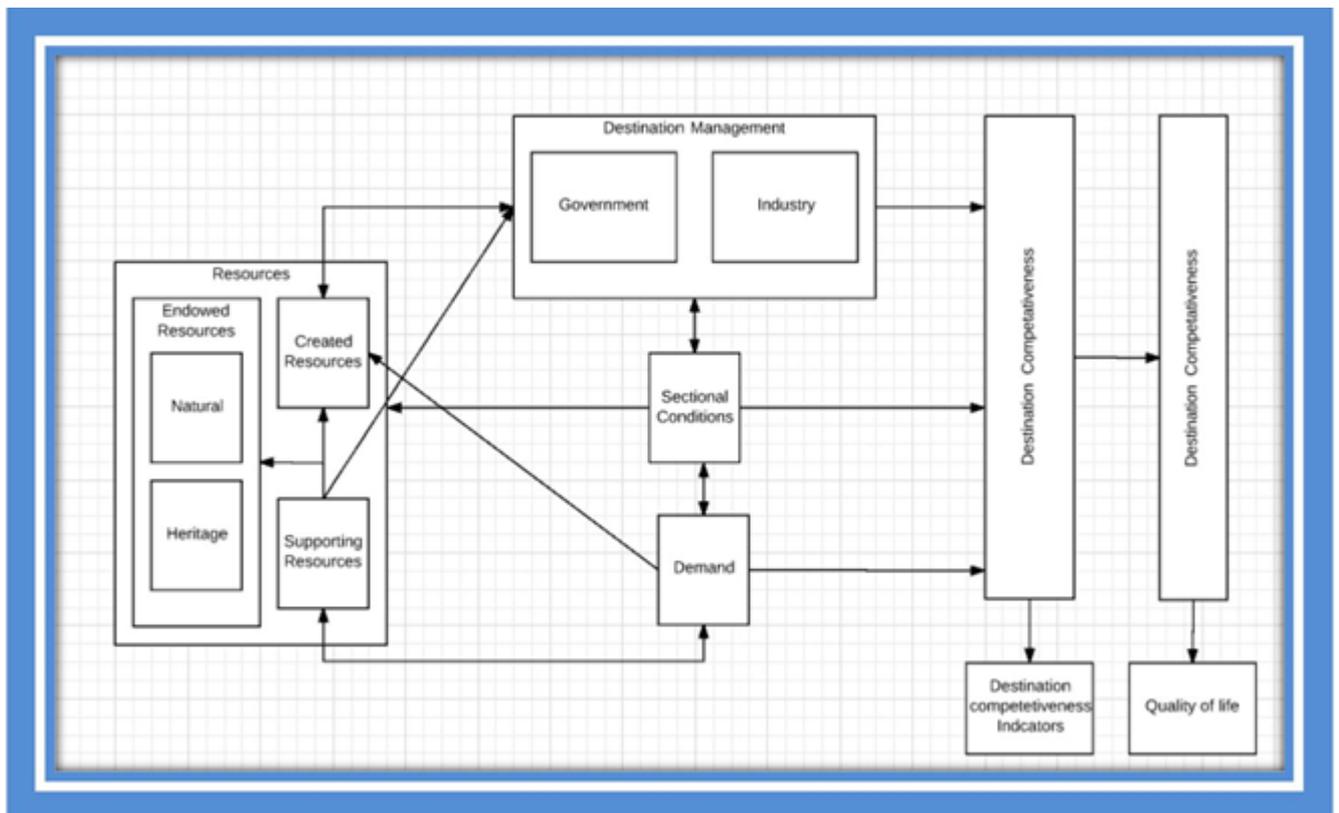


Figure 2.5: Integrated Model of destination competitiveness

Source: Dwyer, Mellor, Livaic, Edwards and Kim (2004)

The primary elements of the model include resources comprising endowed resources, both 'natural' (e.g., mountains, coasts, lakes, and general scenic features) and 'heritage' (e.g., handicrafts, language, cuisine, customs, etc.) resources; created resources (such as tourism infrastructure, special events, shopping, etc.) and supporting resources (such as general infrastructure, accessibility, service quality, etc.). The point of departure in this model is the issue of destination management interacting with tourism demand and situational conditions to influence destination competitiveness and socio-economic prosperity (Crouch, 2007:7). Comparing this model with Ritchie and Crouch, (2003) there is a difference on how the destination management component is treated. Dwyer *et al.*, (2004) instead treating destination management as a standalone pillar as with Ritchie and Crouch, (2003 it is merged with other factors. This shows that the management is crucial in all areas and is inseparable to the activities of promoting tourism competitiveness. Again a closer analysis of the model showcases the missing link of innovation as one of the key components in destination competitiveness. Therefore, this study becomes important in unravelling how innovation can be used to attain destination competitiveness.

Another model was developed by Heath (2002) for Southern Africa to measure destination competitiveness from a developing country point of view. The key motivating factors being the

previous models on destination competitiveness did not appear to adequately provide an integrated treatment of the various issues surrounding the concept of "competitiveness". The models also did not place sufficient emphasis on the key success drivers (people) and the vital linkages (for example communication and information management) that need to be considered when developing a comprehensive framework of sustainable destination competitiveness (Heath, 2002:7). This model also puts emphasis on the use of strategic alliances in tourism to gain competitiveness. The model, which is presented in the form of a house, comprises various key facets: the foundations that provide an essential base for competitiveness; the cement, which binds and links the respective facets of competitiveness; the building blocks, that are essential to make tourism "happen" in a destination; and the roof (the key success drivers), which comprises the "people" part of destination competitiveness (Heath, 2002:9). The diagram is shown below in Figure 2:5. However, on these foundation factors Heath's model (2002) suggests that these supporting factors include key attractors, fundamental non-negotiable such as personal safety and health, enablers such as infrastructure, value adders such as location, safety and security, cost and value, image, interdependency and the carrying capacity (Crouch, 2007:3).

Of interest to this study is the inclusion of the created attractors as they are important in determining destination competitiveness. On a practical level there are at least four types of created attractors that influence destination competitiveness which include events, the range of available activities, entertainment and shopping (Heath, 2002:9). Experience enhancers are also key in that the actual tourism experience can be considerably enhanced through destination authenticity and excellence in hospitality and services offered (Heath, 2002:11). Just like the propositions by other authors (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000, 2003; Dwyer & Kim, 2004) hospitality is central as it is vital to ensure positive visitor experiences (Heath, 2002). In the destination context, hospitality relates to the perceived friendliness of the local population. This can be used to develop a niche tourism aspect in destination competitiveness. For instance according to ZTA annual tourism reports Zimbabwe is well known for friendly people as one of the key elements in the brand the World of Wonders (Muzapu & Sibanda, 2016:56; ZTA, 2014:20).

Key success drivers are also crucial to this study as they mainly centre around the establishment of a shared vision and inspirational leadership; clear guiding values and principles and strategic emphasis being placed on the "people" factor (e.g., political will, entrepreneurship, community empowerment and human resources development) (Heath, 2002:11; Crouch, 2007:3). It is all about the people who are at the driving seat to manoeuvre their vision and have the ability to share that vision with other stakeholders. Promoting an entrepreneurial and innovative spirit and culture forms the thrust of this study. Entrepreneurship, new venture development and innovation within a destination can contribute to its competitiveness in a variety of ways (Gilbert, 1990; Poon,

1993; Porter, 1990). Crouch *et al.* (cited by Heath, 2002:11) advances that a destination can enhance its competitiveness through specialisation, innovation, investment, risk taking, and productivity improvements. Heath (2002:11) argues that in the dynamically changing environment, a competitive destination is aided by the development of innovative tourism services and experiences. Destination tourism stakeholders must continue to seek out and implement new technologies to improve their productivity. New ventures and small businesses provide an ideal mechanism for the identification and development of new ideas. This idea of innovation emerged in Poon (1993) when he talks of "permanent innovative and ceaseless change providing for the demands of 'new tourism'". Heath (2000) comments that for Southern Africa to succeed, and the future performance of tourism will depend upon the skills, qualities and related knowledge that the managers will be able to bring to their business. This is a noble notion though it can be contested that it is not only managers who have the knowledge and skills even employees can possess the same skills. Figure 2.5 below is a representation of factors which build destination competitiveness from Heath's (2002) perspective.

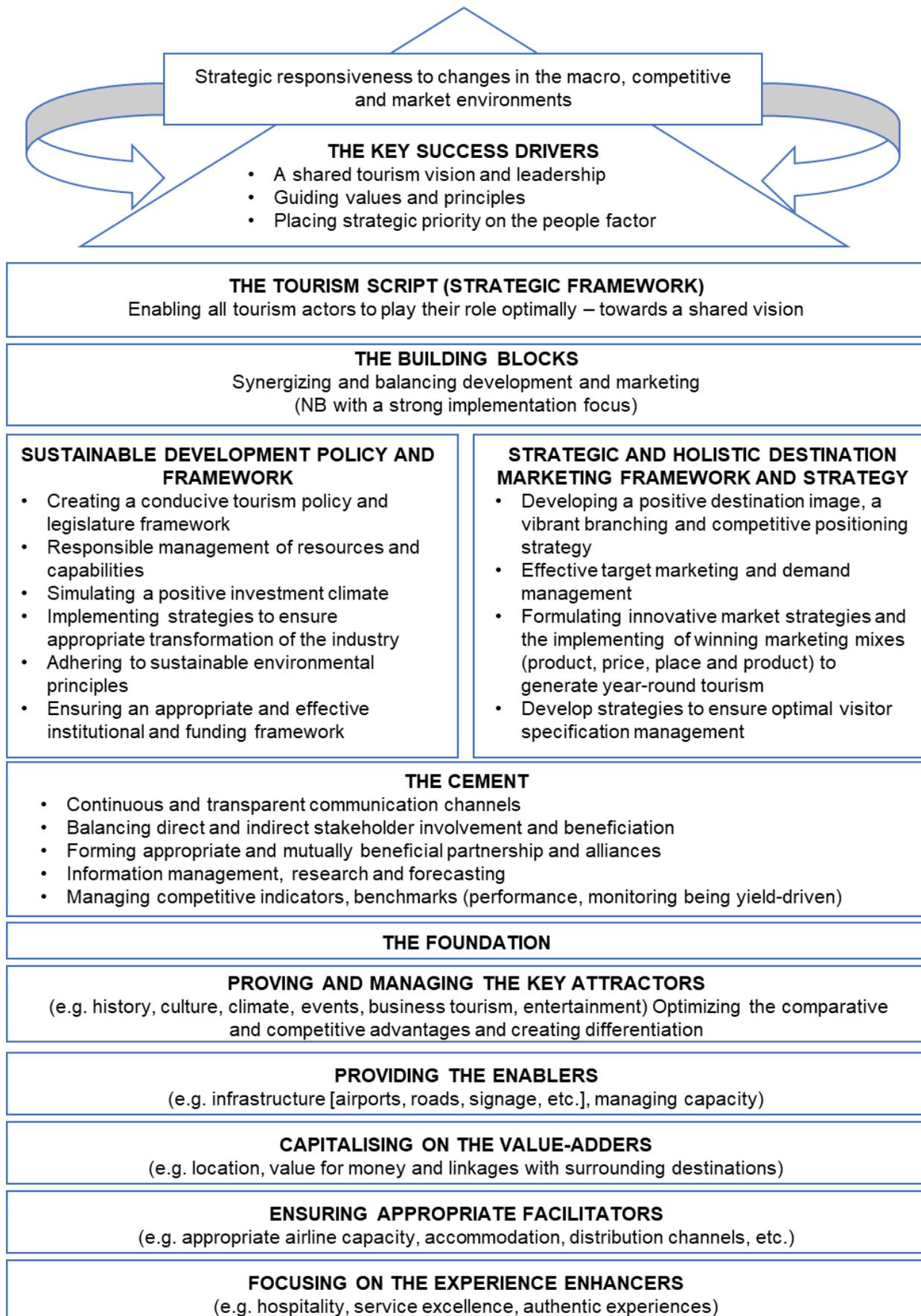


Figure 2.6: Towards a model for enhancing Southern Africa's Tourism competitiveness

Source: Heath 2002

Dragičević *et al.* (2012:325) conducted a study in Serbia the province of Vojvodina. The focus was on examining areas which were more competitive as tourism business destination and those which were less competitive compared to “competitive set” of three chosen destinations. The study advanced Crouch and Ritchie’s (2003) model of destination competitiveness in (business) tourism-specific competitiveness research. After a review of literature they came up with a new model which resulted in 54 destination attributes which were grouped into each of five determinants of Ritchie and Crouch (2003) model: *core resources and attractors* (including 17 attributes), *supporting factors and resources* (including 5 attributes), *qualifying and amplifying determinants* (including 10 attributes), *destination management* (12 attributes) and *destination policy, planning and development determinant* (10 attributes). Results revealed that among five competitiveness determinants, tourism practitioners assigned the highest rating to core resources and attractors determinant (“at the same level in competitive destinations”), while other determinants were rated below the same level in competitive destinations. However, the results of individual attributes by determinants showed that Vojvodina Province, compared to its competitors is more competitive in some of its core resources and attractors (multicultural ambience, gastronomy offer, entertainment, festival and events and cultural heritage attractiveness), as well as in some of supporting factors (hospitality of local residents) and qualifying and amplifying determinants (location, transport and hotel services costs and safety). The results showed that two determinants: destination management and destination policy, planning and development, are the weakest points of Vojvodina Province business tourism competitiveness (Dragičević *et al.*, 2012:326).

Trends have it that destinations are moving towards greening the environment. Several studies have been conducted highlighting the greening of destinations. In light of this movement Gofi (2013) developed a framework for measuring destination competitiveness placing emphasis on sustainability. TPCI (2015) also focusses on environmental sustainability as one of the pillars of tourism competitiveness. Emphasis is placed on the importance of the natural environment for providing an attractive location for tourism, policies and factors enhancing environmental sustainability in ensuring a country’s future attractiveness as a destination. Government’s prioritisation of sustainable issues is also taken cognisance of in this pillar. Other studies were developed to this effect of sustainability (Dwyer *et al.*, 2003; Enright & Newton, 2004; GomezeljMihalič, 2008) but Gofi (2013:122) criticises these models because they do not place enough emphasis on the social, cultural and economic dimensions of sustainability, and on collaboration issues which is the focus of his model. Various models have been alluded to but one of the weaknesses noted by the researcher is that they are situation specific.

Thus, in 2007 UNWTO developed a framework namely the Travel and Tourism competitiveness Index for measuring travel and tourism competitiveness. The essence of the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) is to measure “the set of factors and policies that enable the sustainable development of the Travel & Tourism sector, which in turn, contributes to the development and competitiveness of a country” (TTCI, 2015:3).The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness framework has four pillars as shown in Figure 2:7 below.

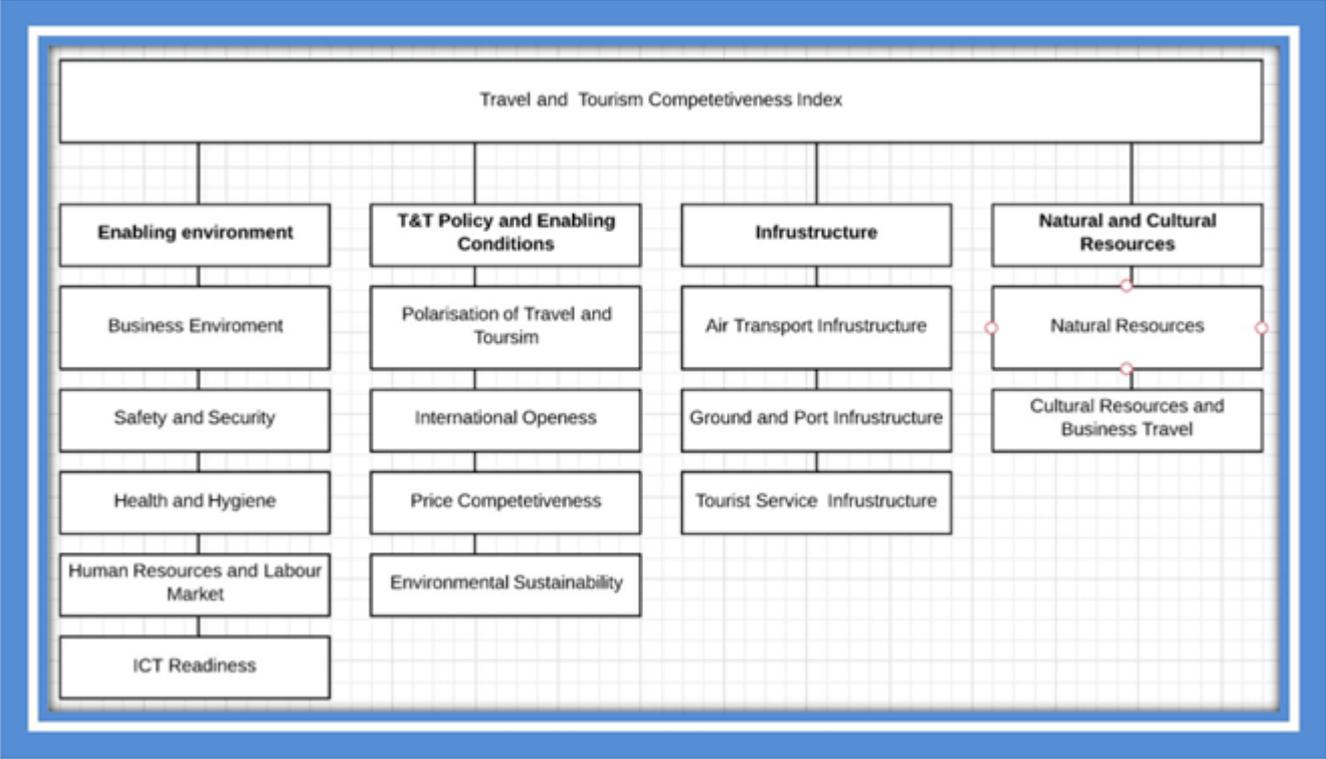


Figure 2.7: The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index 2015 framework
Source: Adapted from the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report (2015)

The four guiding pillars are: enabling environment; travel and tourism policy and enabling conditions, infrastructure, natural and cultural resources. This index helps to describe the recent evolution of tourism in a destination with respect to the main pillars of TDC and destinations can use the information provided in the index as basis of conducting situational analyses of their countries, in comparison with other countries with transition economies (Andrades & Dimanche, 2017:364). According to The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (2015:4) business environment consists of 14 determinants (Dwyer, Dragičević, Armenski, Mihalič, & Cvelbar, 2014:2). This pillar captures the extent to which a country has in place a conducive policy environment for companies to do business. In addition safety and security are considered and are critical factors in determining the competitiveness of a country’s T&T industry. Tourists are likely to be deterred from travelling to dangerous countries or regions, making it less attractive to develop the T&T sector in those places. Health and hygiene, information technology readiness,

human resources and labour market are also captured. The travel and tourism policy and enabling conditions index looks at determinants like the international openness of the country, price competitiveness, environmental sustainability and prioritisation of travel and tourism. The infrastructure pillar focusses on air transport, ground and port structures and tourist service. Lastly, is the pillar of the natural and cultural resources which focuses on natural, cultural resources as well as business travel.

Meanwhile this tool has been instrumental in measuring tourism competitiveness of nations it has received some critics concerning its approach. One the source of data based on the data from publicly available sources, international travel and tourism institutions and experts as well as the results of the executive opinion Survey conducted by WEF and its partners (Mazurek, 2014:87). Some of these figures used can be contested causing one to argue that the analysis is very subjective in nature. Andrades and Dimanche (2017:364) citing Mazanec and Ring (2011) mention the following to be some of the weaknesses which have been levelled against the TTIC model. The composition of the index especially the combination of hard data and survey data, the use of weak theoretically, the comparability of countries on different development levels, the arbitrary weighting of the variables and the reliability and validity of the index and the statistical methods used to demonstrate the usefulness of the index justified variables repetitiveness of some determinants for example the 'tourism openness index' which could be included in the 'tourism impact index'. Nevertheless, despite all this criticism the existence of the tourism competitiveness and its implementation into the practice are important for the awareness of countries to become more competitive in the tourism race. In addition the framework presents some advantages that are useful to examine competitiveness at the level of a country and the method provides a longitudinal perspective with use of the same variables (Andrades & Dimanche, 2017:364).

A review of extant literature has shown that determinants of tourism competitiveness are somehow generic however; it is also acknowledged that some of the determinants are diverse and unique to a certain destination or country under study. The main determinants of tourism competitiveness have been summarised in Table 2.3 below which includes both generic and specific determinants however this study grouped the determinants into business related, market related and enabling factors. It is also important to note that the categories are intertwined as some determinants fit in all the three categories.

Table 2.3: Summary of tourism competitiveness determinants

Summary of tourism competitive determinants	
Category	Determinants
Business related factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Microeconomic policies Resource stewardship Facilitating resources State of cluster development Sophistication of company operations and strategy Global (macro) environment Competitive environment Price competitiveness Innovation General infrastructure Accessibility Crisis management Human resources management Quality of service Price competitiveness
Enabling factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social infrastructure Political institutions Safety and security Health and safety Peace and tranquillity Improve responsiveness to customers' needs Income in the country of origin Visitor management Superstructure Tourism infrastructure Provision of information Location Political will Finance and venture capital Physiography and climate Culture and history Awareness/image

Market related factors	Architecture History Local people Cultural peculiarities Events Hospitality Mix of activities Entertainment Shopping
------------------------	--

Source: Adapted from Du Plessis, Saayman and Van der Merwe (2015)

2.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the marriage between management and tourism competitiveness. Management sets the foundation of the competitiveness theory. It is through management that competitiveness of a nation, firms or destinations can be achieved. The chapter gave an overview of how the concept of competitiveness gave birth to tourism/ destination competitiveness. Authors who wrote about tourism competitiveness approached tourism competitiveness from both demand and supply perspectives. In their discussions they talk of factors which affect tourism competitiveness leaving behind innovation which is an important factor to determine competitiveness at a destination.

Poon (1993) and Heath (2002) formed the basis of this study whereby they show the appreciation of innovation as one of the determinants of tourism competitiveness. The studies fall short on the elaborate focus of critically assessing how innovation can be used as a determinant of tourism competitiveness among other factors. The study intends to unravel innovation as another important determinant of tourism competitiveness to improve the competitiveness of a destination. This then directs the attention of the reader to the next chapter which is going to focus on innovation as a concept focussing on how it can be used as a determinant to improve tourism competitiveness. Types of innovation and factors which force one to innovate are elucidated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: LINKING TOURISM COMPETITIVENESS TO INNOVATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter gave enlightenment on the role of management and its implication to tourism competitiveness. A discourse was presented on how tourism competitiveness fit in the management concept. The main goal of the study is to critically assess innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness. To fulfil the goal, this chapter gives an interconnection between tourism competitiveness and innovation. Innovation is being taken as a qualifying factor between management and tourism competitiveness. Related studies on the phenomenon of concern are reviewed in order to understand the past and the present state of the issues of concern. In order to bring out the link the author conversed about innovation as a concept, the different types and processes of innovation and determinants of innovation focussing on selected internal factors and the external factors. Furthermore, the chapter looked at the theoretical underpinnings which were used to guide the study. Literature gaps were identified in the process of reviewing literature.

3.2 INNOVATION AS A CONCEPT

Innovation in the services sector remains an underestimated and not well-understood phenomenon (Čivré & Omerzel, 2015:133; Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:49). As the world is constantly changing, tourism organisations must not be seen to be taking a back seat to the changes taking place in the global arena. The tourism industry is undergoing transformation and changing markets are associated with tight uncertainty (Alsos *et al.*, 2014:8). With the current globalisation initiatives innovation is no longer a luxury but a necessity (Antonites & Haguma, 2011:757). Innovation is widely considered as the life blood of corporate survival and growth (Oster, 2009:420). It is again recognised to play a central role in creating value and sustaining competitive advantage, (Booyens & Rogerson 2017:49; Reguia 2014:140). In support, Antonites and Haguma (2011:758) are of the view that survival depends upon the creativity and resilience of a country's entrepreneurs who are associated with the culture of innovation. In this dynamic sector, highly exposed to global competition, tourism firms need to innovate to survive, because otherwise their offerings are likely to become obsolete and have no demand (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:49; Gyurácz-Németh, Friedrich & Clarke, 2013:644). Tourism being one of the most promising sectors of growth, innovation must be seen as a permanent, global and dynamic process, (Smaranda, Paun, Bota & Fleseuri, 2014:507). In support (Boycheva, 2017:138) reiterates that to be competitive, tourism firms are forced to innovate, responding to the needs of the increasingly demanding tourist. Tourists are the guiding factor innovations to be introduced must be in line with the demands of the recipients of the products or services.

This said, several researchers maintain that scholarship on innovation in tourism is still limited to date, albeit this field of inquiry is growing (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:50; Hjalager, 2010, 2014, 2015; Martínez-Román, Tamayao, Gamero & Ramero, 2015; Omerzel, 2016). While the understanding of innovation activities and their economic impact has greatly increased since its inception, gaps still exist because as the world economy evolves, so does the process of innovation (OECD, 2005). The section to follow presents a dissection of the definition innovation in order to have an in depth understanding of what it entails.

3.2.1 Definitions of innovation

Innovation is a composite concept which has been defined from different angles and using different perspectives. There is no universally binding definition of innovation. Damanpour and Schneider (2006:216) also agree to this view with their statement “Innovation is studied in many disciplines and has been defined from different perspectives”. IFAD (2007:4) then concludes that each organisation must reach a definition that has the greatest operational value from its perspective. Whilst, there is some overlap between the various definitions of innovation, over and above they all point to the seminal definition which was proposed by the ancestor (Schumpeter, 1934). He describes innovation as the development of new products, new processes, new markets and new sources of raw materials, that is to say, to shape industrial organisation anew (Schumpeter, 1934). Given this background several authors then suggested various definitions of the term innovation which shall be presented below. OECD (2010) defines innovation as “the implementation of a new or significantly improved product, process, a new marketing method, or a new organisational method in business practices, workplace organisation, or external relations”. Similar to this definition Boycheva (2017:138) defines innovation as the application of new knowledge to the production of goods and services. It means improved product quality and enhanced process effectiveness. These definitions focus more on the implementation or application of innovation in different areas. Again innovation is not only about coming up with new ideas but improvements to a product as long it gives it some unique features. It also enlightens on the different types of innovation that is ‘product’, ‘process’, ‘market’ and ‘organisation’ that can be adopted by an organisation.

Mytelka (2000:18) views innovation as the process by which organisations master and implements the design and production of goods and services that are new to them, irrespective of whether they are new to their competitors, their country, or the world. Like the previous definition Hagan (2010:758) define innovation as the mechanism where new methods, customs, or devices are used to perform new tasks. Ireland *et al.* (cited by Antiones and Hagan (2010:758) define innovation as the sum of the invention plus the commercialisation of that invention. Vivarelli

(2015:1) defines innovation by associating it with job creation. Okpara, (2007:20 defines innovation as the process of transforming a creative idea to a marketable product. Davilla, Epstein and Shelton, (2006) are of the view that innovation is typically linked to organisational goals and objectives to improve quality extending market share extending product range, reducing labour and material costs, thus improving production processes and reducing energy consumption. In addition innovations use assets and competencies (skill and knowledge in both technical systems and management systems) of the organisation along with innovation processes to bring about new or different market offerings, which when successful in the market bring in immense value to the firm (Kanagal, 2015:2). This definition is outcome based as it focusses more on what innovation does to an organisation and its benefits rather than process based. In addition to viewing innovation as way of coming up with new ideas, systems, services, the implemented innovation must be cost effective as well.

Innovation is generally understood as the successful introduction of a new thing or method; embodiment, combination, or synthesis of knowledge in original, relevant, valued new products, processes, or services (Luecke & Katz, 2003). Point of departure in this definition is that newness of the product or process is not enough but there must be 'value' tallied to it and change must also be felt after the innovation. Innovation is a catalyst of growth and is inseparably connected to newness and is a fundamental factor in gaining competitiveness. Innovation can also be viewed from a problem solving perspective, Marcelle, Nkhumise and Vawda (2013) view innovation as a problem-solving process of generating, acquiring and/ or applying new knowledge for economically and socially beneficial purposes through efficient unfolding of various learning processes involving trial and error under conditions of uncertainty and complexity. To consolidate the views presented by different authors on what innovation is, key components have been picked. Innovation involves the implementation of a new or improved product, process, system and service in a unique manner which makes the organisation to be competitive against competitors.

3.3 INNOVATION THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Although there may be a number of theoretical perspectives that have been alluded to explain how innovation can be embraced by firms in order to gain a competitive edge over their competitors. The following theories can be used to give insights into how innovation can be embraced by an organisation to get a competitive advantage. This study focusses on four (4) primary theories that is Resource Based View/theory (Penrose, 1959); Knowledge based view/theory/resource/ (Grant, 1996); organisational learning theory (Weick, 1979) and the

stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). These theories provide a basis from which the innovation process can be premised.

3.3.1 Resource based view

Among the theoretical frameworks which focus on understanding the drivers of superior performance the resource based view is highly influential in bringing out this discourse. The origins of this theory can be traced years back however, credit can be extended to (Penrose, 1959) who is believed to be the originator of the theory. The resource based theory purports that firms create sustainable competitive advantage by possessing inimitable, non-substitutable rare and valuable resources and capabilities (Barney, 2007). Bosch-Sijtsema and Postma (2004:4) are of the view that creation of inimitable value-generating resources lies in a firm's network of relationships. Halawi, Aronson and McCarthy (2005:78) assert that a firm's resources consist of all assets both tangible and intangible, human and nonhuman that are possessed or controlled by the firm and that permit it to devise and apply value-enhancing strategies. This best suits the tourism industry because it consists of the two paradigms that are intangible and tangible resources. It focusses on the idea of costly-to-copy attributes of the firm as sources of business returns and the means to achieve superior performance and competitive advantage (Halawi, Aronson & McCarthy, 2005:78). The resource-based view perceives the firm as a unique bundle of eccentric resources and capabilities where the primary task of management is to maximise value through the optimal deployment of existing resources and capabilities, while developing the firm's resource base for the future (Grant, 1996:110). In recent years RBV is now referred to as resource orchestration (Hitt, 2011:9) with managers taking the leading role with the aim of structuring, bundling and leveraging the firms' resources to attain a competitive advantage. Ndofo, Simon and He (cited by Hitt, 2011:10) purport that recent research has been supporting the importance of managerial action in managing resources to enhance firm performance. Deployment of resources requires innovative ways which requires managers to be knowledgeable thus driving the study to the next theory of knowledge based theory.

3.3.2 Knowledge based theory/view/ resource

Another theory similar to resource based theory is the knowledge based theory which is also linked to attaining a competitive edge over competitors. Knowledge based theory of a firm can be considered a subset of the resource based theory knowledge-based resources, which are the ways in which firms combine and transform these tangible input resources into tangible outcomes (Bosch-Sijtsem & Postma, 2004:2). A knowledge based view can be used as a useful framework to develop an effective way of firm innovations (Di'az-Di'az *et al.* (cited by Martín de Castro, López Sáez and Delgado-Verde (2011:872) and yield better innovation outputs. Knowledge is a

pre-requisite for innovation (Quintane, Casselman, Reiche & Nylund, 2011:12) which unlocks the capabilities of staff to innovate. Knowledge is created by people in their interactions with each other and the environment (Takeuchi, 2013:71). The knowledge based theory of a firm considers knowledge as the most strategic significant resource of a firm (Grant 1996:110; Bosch-Sijtsema & Postma, 2004:2). Furthermore, Martin-de Castro *et al.* (2011:872) assert that the firm innovative capability depends very closely on the intellectual assets and knowledge that it possesses, as well as on its ability to deploy them. The unique advantage of an organisation, rest in its ability to integrate the knowledge of individuals in the production process of goods and services Grant (cited by Bosch-Sijtsema & Postma, 2004:3). Managers of firms can be used to champion this and prolix the knowledge to their subordinates in the firm. The proponents of this theory argue that knowledge based resources are difficult to imitate thus can be used as a major determinant of sustained competitive advantage (Grant, 1996:111). Knowledge and skills give a firm competitive advantage, because it is through this set of knowledge and skills that a firm is able to innovate new products and processes, or improve existing ones more efficiently and or effectively Nonaka & Takeuchi, (cited by Bosch-Sijtsema & Postma, 2004:2). In addition Quintane *et al.* (2011:12) acknowledge that innovations come from a process of knowledge exchange thus networking is pertinent. Networking can also be used to widen the knowledge horizons of a firm to get new ideas. To buttress this idea (Escribano, Fosfuri & Tribo, 2009:98) elucidate that there is an increasing consensus about an opening, networking, and relational view of firm innovation where new ideas and innovations come from inside and outside the firm. Knowledge in itself as a resource might not be enough without mentioning the organisational learning theory. This drives the reader to how the organisational learning theory can be utilized to foster innovative thinking among managers and employees in an organisation.

3.3.3 The organisational learning theory

March (1991) proposed this theory focussing on the different learning that is exploration and exploitation. Extensive studies in literature on the importance of knowledge and learning within an organisation indicate that there exists a trade-off between the exploration of new possibilities and exploitation of old certainties in a certain time and space to achieve competitive advantage (Sachdeva, 2013:603). Elkjaer (2003:2) proposes that learning can be understood by way of two metaphors, acquisition and participation. In the acquisition metaphor, learning is understood as individual acquisition of knowledge whereas the participation metaphor understands learning as the social processes of participation. In this study the edge to innovate can be fostered by participation in a group. Learning occurs based on a firm's absorption capacity meaning to say firms are able to learn when they have some knowledge that allows them to understand new knowledge which is imported into the firm (Hit, 2011:10). Learning can be nurtured by the external

and internal (partnership or acquisition) dynamics of an organisation (Sachdeva, 2013:603). External dynamics means that an organisation is influenced by external factors such as market conditions (Jurevicius, 2013) and these can provide opportunities for the exploration of new ideas. The external environment factors forces an organisation to move out from the comfort zone and innovate to be on top. Emphasis on March's model was placed on learning between an individual and the organisation omitting the fact that learning from peers and rivals can also take place. Having said this, the study shifts to the importance of consultation in coming up with innovative ideas. The next section is a presentation of the link between the stakeholder theory and innovation.

3.3.4 Stakeholders' theory

Freeman's (1984) seminal work identified the importance of the role of stakeholders in relationship to the organisation. Freeman's (1984: 25) initial, and still widely accepted, definition of a stakeholder is "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives." Freeman (2010) narrowed this definition to include those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the organisation. Barro (cited by Weng, Cheng and Cheng, 2015:4999) also acknowledge that companies have relationships with several stakeholder groups, all of which affect or are affected by the companies' decisions. There is some interdependence between the stakeholders therefore, Frooman (cited by Gould, 2012:5) argues for the importance of evaluating "multi-actor" relationships in an organisation because they have a role to play in the success of the organisation. Gould (2012:6) says primary stakeholders include groups such as communities, customers, employees, suppliers, and financiers; secondary stakeholders include groups such as government, competitors, consumer advocate groups, social-interest groups, and media. Ayuso, Rodríguez, García-Castro and Ariño (2011:5) emphasize the importance of interacting with both primary and secondary stakeholders when accessing information to drive innovation processes.

This then makes stakeholder engagement to be critical when it comes to innovation, organisations must always remember that they are surrounded by different stakeholders with different interests which might be different from those being pursued by the organisation. A closer analysis might require the organisation to give an accommodative ear to the concerns of the stakeholders to create stakeholder value (Harrison & Wicks 2013:122, Agandona, 2011:1). In tourism (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:39) highlighted that in order to ensure effective co-ordination, it is necessary to innovate and develop an integrated approach with all stakeholders in the decision-making process. Quoting Mei *et al.* (2010), Maráková and Medved'ová (2016:39) agree that such finding

is also consistent with the arguments in the literature that emphasises public and private cooperation as well as networks to achieve innovation at the destination level.

In a bid to be accommodative to the concerns of the stakeholder's interests conflict might arise but with time these interests can be shaped in the same direction (Freeman, 2008:165). Organisations that diligently seek to serve the interests of a broad group of stakeholders will create more value over time (Harrison, & Wicks 2013). Organisations that provide more utility to their stakeholders are better able to retain their participation and support (Harrison & Wicks 2013). The discourse of above theories can be summed by Figure 3.1 below.

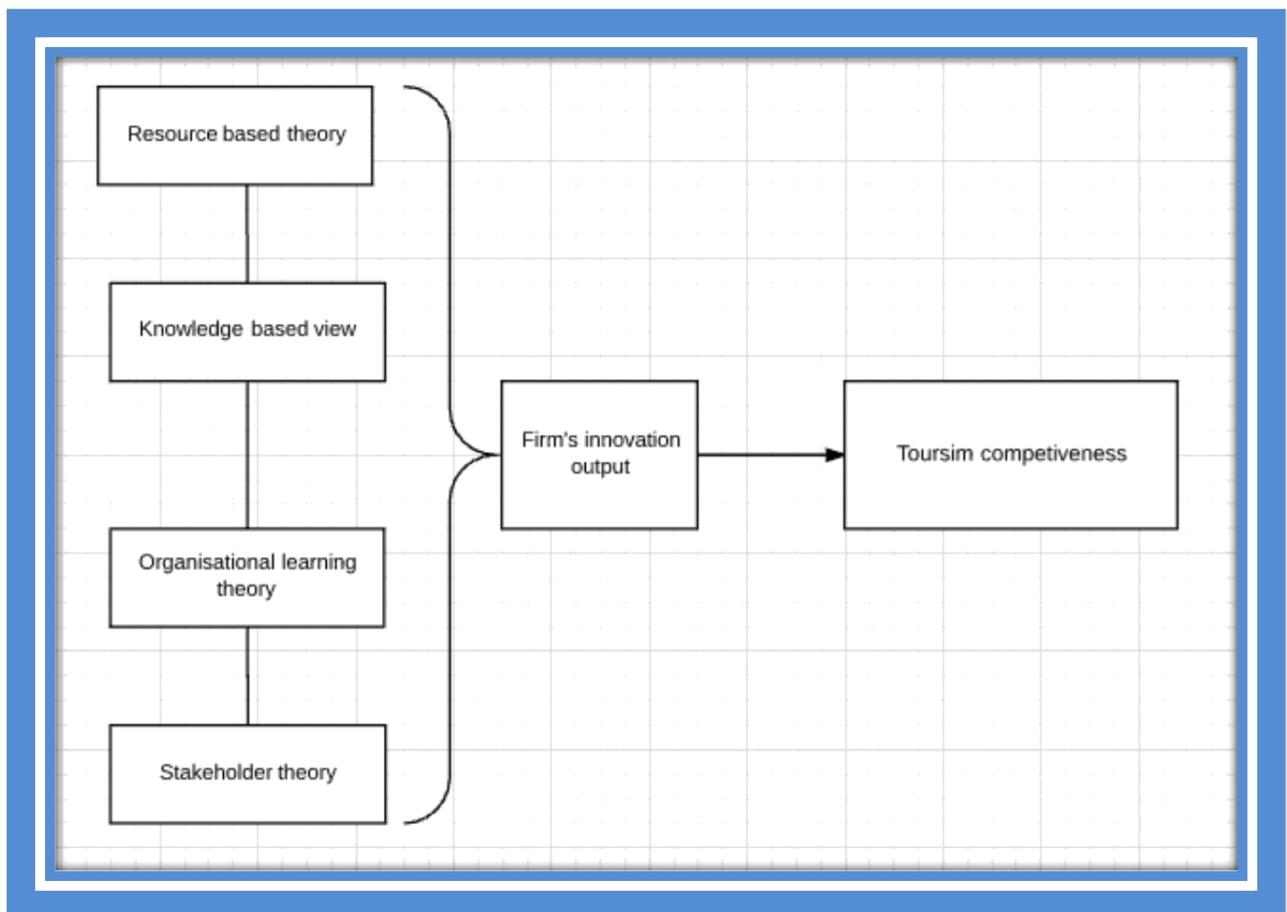


Figure 3.1: Theoretical underpinnings of the innovation process

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 3.1 above clearly explains and shows that the above cited theories can assist in the innovation process. The internal environment from the conceptual framework then becomes the innovation incubation vessel. Application of the theories to the innovation ground (which the organisation in this case) can translate to firm's innovation output which then transcends to tourism competitiveness. However, it is also important to take note of the external environment that can affect innovation incubation process. This external environment can yield opportunities

or can pose threats if a firm fails to capitalise on opportunities provided by it. An elaborate discussion on the determinants of innovation is presented next. For innovation output to be realised the firm must be equipped with adequate and valuable resources which must enable it to produce unique products. Managers must take a leading role with the aim of structuring, bundling and leveraging the firms' resources to attain a competitive advantage. Deployment of resources requires managers to be knowledgeable. Knowledge becomes a key prerequisite of innovation and can be used to unlock the capabilities of staff to innovate. This knowledge can be acquired through organisational learning that is the exploration and exploitation of resources. Individual effort must be complemented by interacting with both primary and secondary stakeholders when assessing information to drive innovation in a firm.

3.4 DETERMINANTS OF INNOVATION PROCESS

Enterprises can engage in innovation for a number of reasons. Their objectives may involve products, markets, efficiency, quality or the ability to learn and to implement changes (Alsos, Eide & Madsen, 2014:11). Drivers of innovation include size of the organisation, open innovation practices, country of origin, investment in research and development organisation and culture (Kanagal, 2015:6). Understanding the factors that affect innovation in its various forms is necessary for deciding on an innovation strategy to adopt. Also identifying the organisation's motives for the need to innovate is important in examining the forces that drive innovation activities. This helps to gain an insight into determinants that may facilitate or impede the introduction of the innovation. This helps in designing an appropriate strategy for introducing the innovation. Innovation can be triggered internally or externally, but organisations that are open to outside influences and engage with networks are often better able to generate and act on useful ideas. Arauzo-Carod, Faggian and Vernet (2010:17) concluded that both internal and external characteristics of firms (as well as the interactions among them) must be taken into account when analysing firm innovation determinants and it is important to reach some kind of complementarities between the internal capabilities of the firm (as, for instance, skills of their employees or financial resources, among others) and the economic, social, political, technological characteristics of the firm environment. This study places attention on the human capital specifically the managers and the external factors as indicated in the conceptual framework given in Chapter one.

The absence of a model in tourism urged the study to borrow a model by Fleuren, Wiefferink and Paulussen (2004:108) from another service industry. Lessons applicable to the tourism industry can be learnt from this framework. They used the health care as a point of reference. Below is Figure 3.2 which presents the framework which was developed by the authors. The framework

presents the main stages in innovation processes and related categories of determinants (see Figure 3.2), guided by several theories and models (Paulussen, 1994). In the study it can be learnt that the innovation process starts with the dissemination of the innovation followed by adoption by users, then implementation of the innovation. Lastly continuation comes in if the users are in favour of the innovation and also if the recipients or the targeted audience welcome the innovation.

However, it is worth noting that the innovation process can be affected by various determinants as it progresses from one stage to the other. Fleuren *et al.* (2004:109) divide these determinants into following categories:

- (i) Characteristics of the socio-political context, such as rules, legislation governing the tourism industry and the characteristics of the different tourists who are the intended target recipients of the innovation.
- (ii) Characteristics of the organisation, such as staff turnover or the decision-making process in the organisation; the composition of the staff, the organisation culture.
- (iii) Characteristics of the person adopting the innovations (user of the innovation), such as knowledge, skills, and perceived support from colleagues and management.
- (iv) Characteristics of the innovation, such as complexity or relative advantage, the feasibility of the innovation.

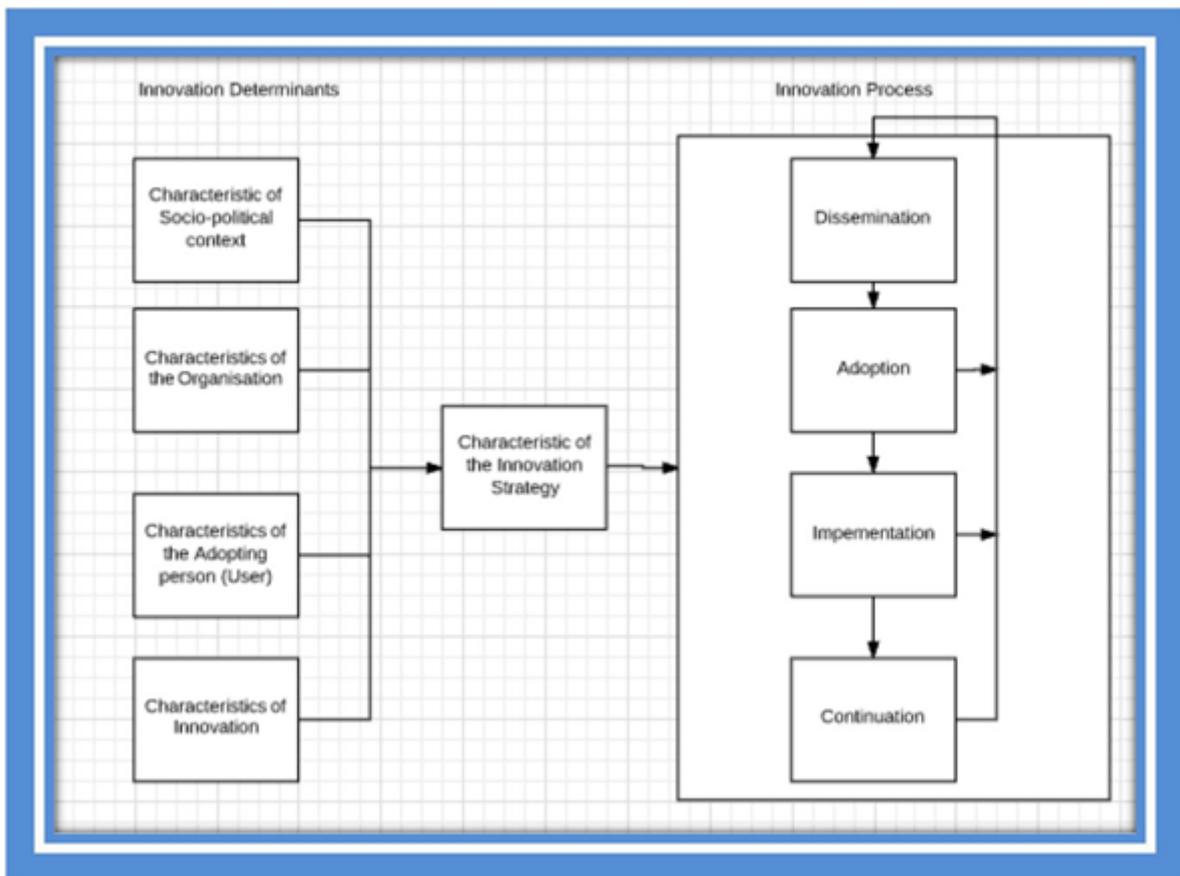


Figure 3.2: Framework representing the innovation process and related categories of determinants
Source: Adapted from Fleuren, Wiefferink and Paulussen (2004)

As highlighted in the framework above people play a leading role in the innovation process. The tourism industry being a service industry most of the services are based on people (Lu, 2012:289) and their knowledge thus (Santos & Teixeira, 2013:3) considers human capital and knowledge as important and crucial factors of innovation in services. The role of managers and staff in the innovation process come into play. Managers are the leaders of the innovation activity (Zach, 2016:275). They are the ones who are responsible for disseminating the innovation to the staff. Managers as leaders play a critical role in influencing work culture, balancing current commitments with new ideas, and gaining funder and organisation buy-in for change (State & Iorgulescu, 2014: 1206). If managers have a buy their commitment can be seen by setting aside resources which are meant for innovation activity. These resources might include funding, time, physical space (may be a brainstorming room) and right human resources. Zakić, Jovanović and Stamatović (2008:19) are of the view that allocating resources helps to nurture the generation of new ideas, help build an organisational culture that tolerates (or even values) failure, and ensure that new ideas develop into action. In addition, the top managers of the most innovative firms appear to have less fear of risk-taking (Souitaris, 2003:520). Managers become instrumental in

setting the pace of innovation in the company (Zach, 2016:276). Managers cannot work in isolation but need staff to help them implement the innovation into practice.

Employees are also instrumental in the process of innovation where they are seen as the adopters or implementers of the innovation process. Employees can be initiators of innovation as well considering that in an organisation they represent a spectrum of backgrounds, perspectives, and skills open doorways for a range of new ideas and can deliver valuable feedback on how to solve problems creatively. This is only possible if they are empowered to do so. Kippy (2013:1) contends that when staff members are empowered to act on their ideas and are incentivized can help fulfil the organisation's mission in new and different ways. The process of innovations insists upon staff participation which has become a part of organisational culture of many companies. This participation comes in different dimensions that is forming of teams of inter-crossed functions as well as connecting to other companies (customers, suppliers, business partners, innovators, institutes, faculties, government, standardising bodies, independent experts etc.) (Enzy, 2010:379). However, Ronningen and Lien (2014:27) indicate that even though literature talks of the use of external relationship networks in innovation there have been very few empirical analysis of the association between external relationships and innovation capacity of tourism companies. There is need for further interrogation in this respect. When staff are involved there is need for a clear vision to be in place. A clear vision can inspire innovations that are deeply grounded within the impact an organisation is seeking to create (Kippy, 2013:1). In addition training of employees is very important for service companies especially those that are in direct contact with the client. In another study professionalism, management attitudes towards innovation and new technologies, human resources qualifications and practices, marketing orientation, usage of ICT, linkage to networks and innovation systems and critical external factors have also been suggested as determinants of innovation in Spanish tourist firms (Muñoz, Muñoz and Zúñiga-Collazos 2013:330).

3.4.1 External factors

Firms' ability to innovate also depends on external factors. External factors have been seen to be either assisting or deterring the motive to innovate. As highlighted in Chapter 1 this study used the PESTEL analysis as indicated in Figure 3.3.

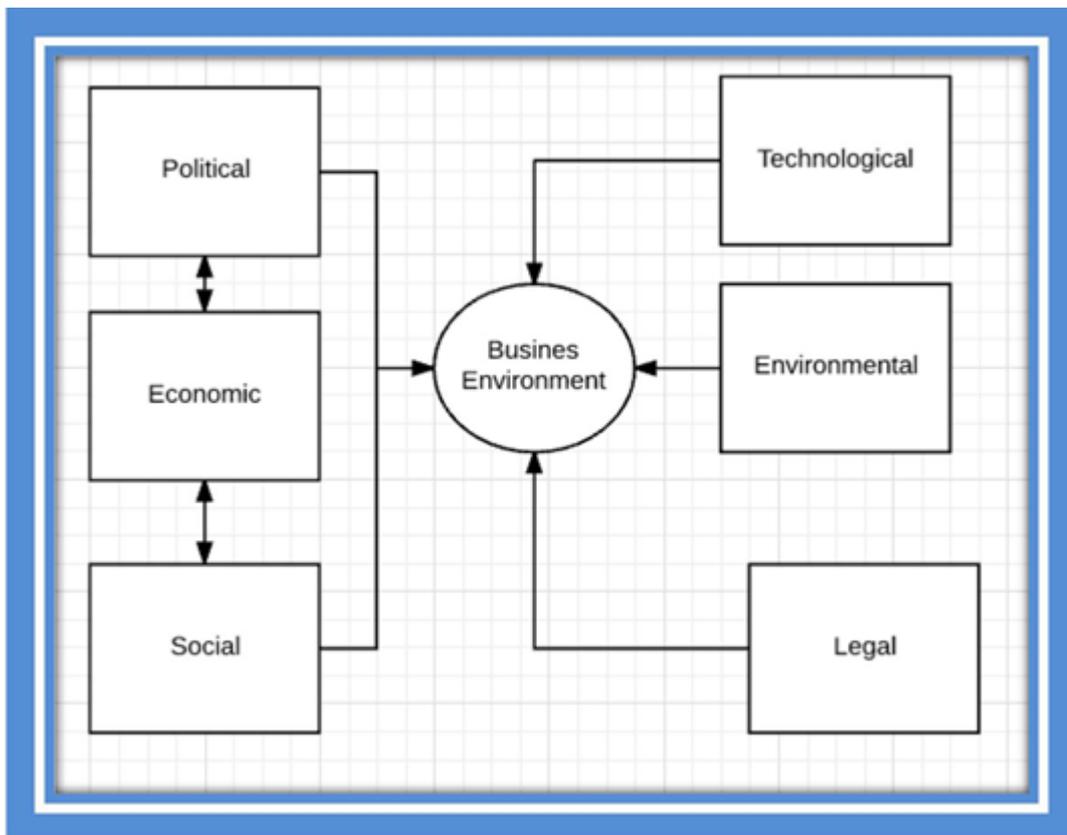


Figure 3.3: PESTEL analysis

Source: Author's own compilation

PESTEL is a marketing tool which is used to analyse the external business environment using different dimensions. The originator of this is believed to be Professor Francis Aguilar from Harvard when he included a scanning tool called ETPS in his 1967 book, "Scanning the Business Environment." The name was later changed to the current acronym PEST (Sidharth & Richtie, 2010). Over the next few years the term was turned and twisted by a number of management philosophers and practitioners – each trying to add value to these four environmental factors. These changes resulted in analysis tools such as PEESTLE, LongPEST, SLEPT, STEEPLE and PESTEL to mention a few. PESTLE is a mnemonic which in its expanded form denotes P for Political, E for Economic, S for Social, T for Technological, L for Legal and E for Environmental. There are certain questions that one needs to ask while conducting this analysis, which give an idea of what things to keep in mind. These are:

- What is the political situation of the country and how can it affect the industry?
- What are the prevalent economic factors?
- How much importance does culture has in the market and what are its determinants?
- What technological innovations are likely to pop up and affect the market structure?
- Are there any current legislations that regulate the industry or can there be any change in the legislations for the industry?

- What are the environmental concerns for the industry?

To adapt to these external factors innovation can be the way to go. Hjalager (cited by Alsos, Eide & Madsen, 2014:304) proposes that innovations are often a response to the major external development trends which creates a perfect laboratory for the study of emerging innovations. Innovators continuously need to interact with the external environment and assess its implications so as to establish how they can move forward (Alsos *et al.*, 2014:305)

3.4.1.1 Political

The political plays a role in shaping the innovation initiatives of a country. It is about knowing the political situation of the country and how this has a bearing on companies' innovation capacity. Litvin (2015:18) believes that business success is directly affected by political decisions that influence the environments – economic, ecological, and social – under which hospitality and tourism industry functions. The majority of political issues that directly influence the industry emanate at the state level thus the state plays a significant role in the promotion of firms' ability to innovate. Several studies were conducted which discussed innovation and the government. The success of the states in the new economy shall be much more determined by the manner in which they will manage to push forward innovation, entrepreneurial relations, education and specialised qualifications and the transformations of all the organisations towards the new competences in various sectors of economic activities OECD (2005) in Becic, Crnja and Licul (2014:91). Thus, capacity to innovate is hinged on the government by providing conducive regulatory frameworks which promotes firms to innovate. Hall and Williams (cited by Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:36) also highlighted that the role of the state in tourism lies in coordination, planning, legislative security, regulation, sponsorship, motivation, promotion and protection.

3.4.1.2 Economic

A multitude of contributions over the last two decades have now made clear that innovation and economic growth goes hand in hand Schumpeter 1934; Petrou & Daskalopoulou, 2013:50; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Sundbo *et al.*, 2007). Likewise, a favourable political environment results in a healthy economy. In addition Litvin (2015:18) is of the opinion that business success is directly affected by political decisions that influence the environments.

3.4.1.3 Technological

Figueired, Gomes and Farias (2010) in their study established that organisations interested in developing technological capability through innovation need to concentrate on supporting a learning culture in the organisation. In addition the study revealed that management skills, project management and government support are fundamental for developing a technological accumulation capability. The study also recognised the role played by people in the development of technological competencies in the hospitality industry

3.4.1.4 Social

Studies were conducted to establish how innovation can be imbedded in the social environment. OECD (2010) conducted a study in Social entrepreneurship and social innovation. The report focusses on the importance of how social entrepreneurship and social innovation can be used to provide innovative solutions to unsolved social problems, in order to improve individuals' and communities' lives and increase their well-being. Maclean *et al.* (2012) used a case approach in trying to shed light on how the sites and spaces of socially innovative philanthropic projects may have a bearing on their success. Special attention has been drawn to the importance of engaging communities on the part of social innovators. Lessons can also be learnt from committed philanthropists who may serve as a powerful inducing tool for recruiting new donors. The next section now presents some of the types of innovation which can be utilised by an organisation to gain an advantage over others.

3.5 TYPES OF INNOVATION

Successful innovation implementation involves understanding innovation typologies. Scholars in literature proposed a number of different innovation typologies (Decelle, 2004; Smith, 2010; Abernathy & Clark, 1985). Innovation researches suggest that innovation types have different attributes, determinants and effects. Decelle (2004) categorised innovation as follows:

- Classification according to the nature of the innovation: product or process innovation, organisational or market innovation, or “ad hoc” innovation.
- Technological and non-technological innovations.
- Innovation and intensity of discontinuity: radical, incremental or architectural innovation.

3.5.1 Classification according to the nature of innovation

The types of innovations which fall under this section are product innovation, service innovation, process innovation, organisational innovation and marketing innovation.

3.5.1.1 *Product innovation*

Product innovation refers to the development of a new product or improvement of an existing product so that it appears unique and hence persuades consumers to make a purchase (Macerinskiene & Mikaliuniene, 2014:232). In addition, the authors highlighted that product innovation can include significant improvements in technical specifications, components and materials, incorporated software user friendliness or other functional activities. OECD Oslo Manual (2005) brings another dimension which looks at product innovation as the introduction of a good that is new or significantly improved regarding its characteristics or intended uses, including significant improvements in technical specifications, components and materials or other functional characteristics. Booyens (2012:115) describes product innovation as new combinations of existing products or the exploitation of a new resource and takes agro tourism to be an example.

3.5.1.2 *Service innovation*

Sizeable literature has come up with the definition of service innovation. Verma *et al.* 2008 as (cited by Enzy, 2012:187) defined service innovation as the introduction of novel ideas that focus on services that provide new ways of delivering a benefit, new service concepts, or new service business models through continuous operational improvement, technology, investment in employee performance, or management of the customer experience. Service innovation is a new way of providing a service in a way that is different and/or better than the service provided by their competitors. The success of service innovation relies on the processes and the administrative structures (Enzy, 2012:187). Product and service innovations indicate changes that are observed directly by customers and they are considered to be new, respective to a specific enterprise. From the perspective of the customer, these factors influence their buying behaviour (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:34).

3.5.1.3 *Process innovation*

Process innovation involves unique and better production and manufacturing methods which deliver products that are better and at lower cost compared to competitors' products. Process innovation is the implementation of new or significantly improved production or delivery (Boer & During, 2001). Booyens (2012:115) is of the view that these occur frequently in tourism and ICT is the backbone of many such innovations. Examples cited were improved computerised management system for example (stocktaking, reservations, operations, maintenance) used by hotels tour operators, reservation offices and transport providers and systems and technologies used at airports. Application of these technologies enables faster and better preparation methods,

saving manpower and energy, waste reduction, faster services and greater flexibility (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:34). This is critical in bringing up tourism competitiveness because the bulk of the tourism product is service oriented, (Stickdorn & Zehrer, 2009:2) which is coupled with intangibility (Huda, Haque & Khan, 2014:210). The fact that services are inseparable from the consumption this makes process innovation significant in the tourism experience. In addition Maráková and Medved'ová (2016:3) say process innovations are oriented towards efficiency and productivity and some innovations of this nature are technologically oriented.

3.5.1.4 Organisational innovation

The organisation innovation is the implementation of new or significant changes into the company structure or the management methods, which should be used to improve the company's efficiency. Organisational innovations refer to the implementation of new organisational methods. Booyen (2012:115) merges organisational innovation with management innovation. He proposes this category to include new strategies, new forms of business, supportive leadership, internal and external collaboration, improved services, improved safety measures, improved training, new investments, upgraded quality and environmentally practices. These can be changes in business practices, in workplace organisation or in the firm's external relations. Organisational innovations can improve the quality and efficiency of work, enhance the exchange of information, and improve firms' ability to learn and utilise new knowledge and technologies (OECD, 2005). This experience includes specialised surveys on organisational innovation (Weng *et al.*, 2000) and its inclusion in innovation surveys (for example the Australian Innovation Survey, 2003) or questions on organisational changes (The CIS3 survey, The Japanese National Innovation Survey 2003, among others). Some of the innovation initiatives which can be added to the list may include the building business networks and alliances company certification in terms of allocation of quality marks as well as checking and promotion (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:36).

3.5.1.5 Marketing innovation

Marketing innovations involve the implementation of new marketing methods. These can include changes in product design and packaging, in product promotion and placement and in methods for pricing goods and services (OECD, 2005). Examples of marketing innovation include among other things approaches to new markets, new marketing channels and cooperative marketing initiatives. Marketing practices are also important for the success of new products, and market research and contacts with customers can play a crucial role in product and process development through demand-led innovation (OECD, 2005). Marketing innovations are aimed at better addressing customer needs, opening up new markets with an objective of increasing sales of the

organisation (Macerinskiene & Mikaliuniene, 2014:232). In tourism it may involve the merging of brands and an example can be found with wine production regions where all players in the region can make a singular marketing brand (Maráková & Medvedová, 2016:35). They also cited the following to be some of the innovations which fall under marketing having relations with the representatives of mass media, especially through foreign journalists who cover organized events and use of social networking has been grouped under marketing innovations. With regard to visitors, social networking has generally stronger impact in comparison with marketing communication through the traditional media.

Similarly Hjalager (2002:465) also categorised innovation types the same way as Decelle (2004) though three more types were introduced which are management, logistics and institutional innovations. Management innovation focusses on innovation which leads to staff empowerment through job enrichment, training and decentralisation (Macerinskiene & Mikaliuniene, 2014:233). In addition (Maráková & Medvedová, 2016:35) view this type of innovation as relating to new approaches towards the organisation of internal cooperation, people management and delegation of tasks, career prospects and remuneration of employees. However, they noted that management innovation may have the problem of stabilisation of qualified personnel, maintenance of flexibility and cost control. Management innovation may increase employees' satisfaction with the work place, improve internal competencies and knowledge thus improving the organisation's objectives.

Logistics innovation refers to innovation which befalls on materials, transactions, consumers and information examples being internet marketing, integrated information systems among others. Institutional innovation deals with collaborative, regulatory structures and legal frameworks that enhance business in the tourism field, (Booyen, 2012:115). It goes beyond the innovativeness of the individual firm (Macerinskiene & Mikaliuniene, 2014:233) then makes reference to value chain innovation. Booyen (2012) is of the opinion that architectural innovations, as proposed by Hjalager (2002) also fit here because of the overall change it does to the structure. Examples include infrastructure enhancement, certification, new approaches to conservation and regulation and incorporation of responsible tourism principles.

The second typology according to Decelle (2004) is the category of innovation types according to levels of intensity of discontinuity. This category comprises of four types of innovation namely incremental, modular, architectural and radical though they are seen to be an extension of product, service and process forms of innovation. The author is of the opinion that the latter types take place through component and systemic innovation, which are incremental, modular, architectural and/or radical as mentioned in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Types of innovations according to levels of intensity of discontinuity

Innovation	Components	System
Incremental	Improved	No change
Modular	New	No change
Architectural	Improved	New configuration
Radical	New	New configuration

Source: Adapted from Smith (2010)

Incremental innovation refers to the refinement and improvement of an existing product, or service by improving the components (Davila *et al.*, 2006:38; Smith, 2006:22, 29). Incremental innovation either improves something that already exists, or reconfigures an existing form of technology to make it more relevant for newly developed needs and purposes (Harvard Business Essentials, 2003:2). Gatignon *et al.* (2002) define incremental innovation as innovations that improve price/performance at a rate consistent with the current technological trajectory while radical innovations advance the price performance frontier by much more than the existing rate of progress. Incremental innovations have more modest returns, but demand lower risk level, level of efforts and resources and are generally more successful (Zakić, Jovanović & Stamatović, 2008:18).

Modular innovation uses the architecture and configuration of the existing system but introduces new components (Smith, 2006:31). Architectural innovation refers to the process when the components and associated design concepts are renewed and the system changes as new linkages are instituted (Smith, 2006:32).

Radical innovation involves a whole new design of a new product or service delivered in an entirely new way through the development of specialised components or systems (Davila *et al.*, 2006:38; Smith, 2006:29). Radical innovation introduces something new to the world, which departs from existing technology or methods (Harvard Business Essentials, 2003:2). Radical innovations potentially offer huge profits and competitive advantage, but demand considerably higher risk level, company effort and resource engagement (Zakić, Jovanović & Stamatović, 2008:18). Semi-radical innovation would involve substantial change to either the business model, or technology of an organisation but not to both (Davila *et al.*, 2006:38).

Architectural innovation refers to the process when the components and associated design concepts are renewed, and the system changes as new linkages are instituted (Smith, 2006:32). Innovations in design have changed the exterior and interior faces of the hotels (Durna & Babur, 2011). Interesting hotels in ship, plane, fish, ball, castle, or jail designs have appeared in different tourism destinations of the world. A design can affect the bottom line for hotels and it is very

important: as important as their level of service and personality (Ransley & Ingram, 2001). Also, empirical evidence in psychology science confirms hoteliers and hotel designs, psychologists have determined that the physical environment has an effect on human behaviour and this branch of psychology has become known as environmental psychology (Countryman & Jang, 2006). They believed that hotels with unique architectural approaches and designs were able to increase the average daily rate and increase occupancy. Sigauw and Enz (cited by Doğan, Nebioğlu, Aydın & Doğan, 2013:206).

In addition, some studies reported that architectural innovations help firms gain competitive advantage and have a positive effect on profitability Ransley and Ingram, 2001; Katsigris and Thomas, 1999; Callanand Fearon, (cited by Doğan *et al.*, 2013:206). They all agree that innovations in architectural (exterior and interior) design are required and supply a strategic advantage for hotels in competition. Furthermore, they believe that originality in exterior design has an influence on buying decisions of hotel customers (Doğan *et al.*, 2013:209)

3.6 INNOVATION IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

There is no approved answer which can be offered when it comes to innovation in the tourism industry. Ronningen and Lien (2014:25) have found that the majority of tourism firms are innovative to some extent however, these innovations differ not only in the type but also in the extent to which they represent radical changes as perceived by the customers. Contrary, are the findings by several studies which conclude that tourism accommodation businesses, restaurants and transportation are not particularly innovative as compared to attractions and travel agencies who are more innovative (Hjalager, 2015:5).

The innovation of a tourism product means to bring on the market a new or a significantly improved product process, distribution method or support activity for the tourism products. However, Ronningen and Lien (2014:27) are of the view that no single company can afford to be the first in everything in its field somehow organisations will be obliged to follow some aspects of operations or copy others. Nevertheless, Hjalager, (2010) acknowledges that innovation is core in the tourism industry whether copied or new inventions. Distinguishing between different types of innovation may be difficult in the tourism industry because some products are often packages built from a set of service delivered from several firms. Hence, a package may be new to the market and innovative by definition even though the subservices delivered by each firm may not be new (Alsos, Eide & Madsen, 2014:10).

Maráková and Medved'ová (2016:37) conclude that application of innovation in tourism destination in comparison with the application of innovation in tourism businesses is much more difficult because of the fragmentation of a large number of stakeholders in tourism development in case of tourism destinations. The aim of the tourism industry is to increase the tourists' experience with quality product offering at a destination. What is important is the unique offering which is offered to the guests whether they will be enticed or not. Therefore, the tourism industry needs to adopt a systematic approach to innovation so as to offer a product package that will interest the customers because firms are dependent on each other (Alsos *et al.*, 2014:10). Innovation success is dependent on how one packages the tourism offering. Hjalager (2014:57) echo that at the end of the day it is the customers or users who determine the innovativeness of a service or product. Lessons can be learnt from other destinations as long as the innovation renders uniqueness to the organisation (Camison & Monfort, 2011). These authors indicate that the tourism industry needs to constantly adapt to the changing needs and preferences of customers, technological changes, political and economic changes hence the need for innovation.

Innovation in the tourism industry can come in different forms. However, Muñoz, Muñoz and Zúñiga-Collazos (2013:334) prepared a framework which highlights some of the innovative activities which can be embarked on for tourism innovation. They borrowed the ideas from the works of several authors but the guiding frame was from the work of Christensen (2003). The framework used the typology of innovation focussing on sustaining innovation and disruptive innovation. Sustaining innovation improves the performance of existing products and is likely to ensure continuation of existing customers. Disruptive innovation brings to a market a very different value proposition from the one previously available and which has other features that a few fringe, and generally new, customers value and can cause customers to move away from the traditional products or markets. The following Table 3.2 can be used to indicate some of the innovations which can be introduced in the tourism industry.

Table 3.2: Categories and examples of tourism innovation

	Sustaining innovation	Disruptive innovation
Product	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Innovation in single qualities of the tourist enterprise product and service (hotel room, gastronomy, and catering, animation, etc.) - Customised comfort and service. - Environmental measures affecting the product. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low cost carriers and hotel - Theme parks, hotels, restaurants and cruises - Niche hotels especially valued by niche markets - (boutique hotels or unique small hotels, design hotels and green hotels - Fast food restaurants

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - New facilities and equipment for leisure (spa, golf resort, gym, Internet centre etc.) - Introduction of complementary leisure offer (sports, wellness treatments, cooking courses, art exhibitions in hotels etc. - Introduction of new tourism - New facilities and equipment for business and meetings (computer in the room, travel and tourism offer business centre - Innovations in the interior design and - Architecture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourists packages and all-inclusive packages - Online travel agencies and new intermediaries - Social tourism organisations - Introduction of new tourism related business and types of travel and tourism offer (space tourism, bird watching tourism etc.)
Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Innovations in food maintenance, Preparation and service (sensor-controlled cooking and flavouring methods, health and nutrition innovations etc.) - Innovations in reception, laundry cleaning, gardening and maintenance, - Raw material control systems with infrared Technology - Innovations in safety and security systems. - Technologies that ensure the mobility of people, luggage, goods and museums and other tourist Information (iris-recognition, X-raying, attractions, etc.). - Crowd control technologies in tourist attractions. - Environmental process innovations (energy consumption, water reuse, - Standardisation and consistency of processes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of ICT in operations (internal operations, relationship with suppliers and intermediaries, etc.). - Automatic check-in and check-out. - Automation using robots. - Intelligent buildings (hotels, restaurants, museums, etc.). - Introduction of touch-sensitive machines, virtual reality and - Internet terminals in discotheques, restaurants, hotels, ski resorts. - Computerised reservation systems - Radically new food preparation methods.
Marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Innovative promotions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Customer loyalty programmes

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Joint marketing campaigns with intermediaries, competitors, suppliers and non-tourism Industries - Cultivation of relationships with social media and journalists reporting on major attractions of destinations and tourists enterprises - Creation of guest service management Department - Introduction of an automated call centre - TPVs with touch sensitive and portable Screens - Use of additional distribution and commercialisation Channels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Customer relationship management - Internet and mobile communications - Websites and online information booking and /sales - User generated content and usage of social media to voice tourists opinions - Brand repositioning and co-production of brands combining the offer of tourist enterprises and experiences (wine, gastronomy, well ness etc.) - Entry into emerging markets and new destinations
Organisation and institutional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Managerial innovations for employees: well-Planned training and socialisation building team spirit, managing the hearts of employees and including touch in the product, promotion from within, employee satisfaction - Quality management and control. Alliances with suppliers, - Environmental quality management. - Cost control - Decentralisation of operations. - Information systems for directors. - Integrated management systems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism clusters and networks. - Global distribution systems - Franchising, licensing arrangements and management contracts - Joint ventures and other strategic alliances with suppliers, intermediaries and competitors. - Vertical integration - Time-sharing. - Revenue management

Source: Adapted from Medina-Muñoz, Medina-Muñoz and Zúñiga-Collazos (2013)

3.7 MOTIVES FOR AN INNOVATION DRIVE IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The motivation to innovate in the tourism industry can take various shapes. In tourism it has been learnt that the drive to innovate can be customer oriented or organisational oriented. Hjalager (2015:5) expounded on the following to be some of the reasons which motivate tourism destinations to motivate.

- Changing the properties and varieties of the goods and services as they are experienced by the tourists. This can come in the form of service and product innovations
- Increasing the social and physical efficacy, for example, the power for the tourists to produce the benefits for themselves
- Increasing the productivity and efficacy in tourism enterprises and restructuring the input factors such as energy, labour, capital and land.
- Forming new destinations.
- Enhancing mobility to and within destinations
- Altering the way of passing information within and across organisational boundaries
- Changing the institutional logic and the power relations.

In another study Muñoz, Muñoz and Zúñiga-Collazos (2013:330) quoting Mayer (2009) innovation is considered to be a critical factor for success and competitiveness in the tourism industry as a major source of cost saving and/or differentiation of tourism product offerings. Improvements in company image, customer satisfaction, improving service quality, increasing and maintaining market share and profitability were some of the motives which were seen to be driving tourism innovation. On the other hand (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016 :37) highlighted that overcoming a crisis can be another reason which can motivate management to innovate for instance an unexpected decline of visitors may motivate management to adopt measures and develop new strategies to overcome the crisis. However, on the other hand Čivre and Gomezelj Omerzel (2015:314) posit that innovativeness may also be expensive and risky due to increased costs, employee dissatisfaction and hazardous changes resulting in negative outputs thus the need to also look at possible barriers of innovation.

3.8 BARRIERS TO INNOVATION

Innovation as a process is also faced with barriers which can reduce the level or intensity of innovation in the tourism industry. Najda-Janoszka and Kopera (2014:2) used the contents of Table 3.3 below to summarise the barriers which can be found in the tourism industry.

Table 3.3: Specific features of tourism industry inducing barriers to innovation

Feature	Induced barrier to innovation	Authors
Heterogeneity of business models	Low market transparency and difficulties in concept Testing	(Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2010; Camison & Monfort-Mir, 2012)
Industry dominated by SMTEs	Low absorptive capacity for innovation; insufficient tacit	(Pivcevic & Petric, 2011; Hjalager,

	knowledge for know-how driven innovations; change inertia; low awareness about importance of innovation; undeveloped innovation systems in tourism industry; high transaction costs for setting collaborative Structures	2002; Camison & Monfort-Mir, 2012; Weiermair, 2006; Beritelli & Rome, 2006; Pompl & Buer, 2006; Nordin, 2003; ECORYS, 2009; Keller, 2006)
Culture of little trust	Inefficient knowledge transfer; weak propensity toward collaboration in innovation	(Hjalager, 2002; Pechlaner <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Najda-Janoszka, 2013).
Limited legal protection of innovations	Dominance of imitators and adopters over genuine innovators; weak disposition toward cooperation in innovation; free-rider attitude	(Hjalager, 2002; Najda-Janoszka, 2013; Decelle, 2006; Sundbo <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Nordin, 2003)
Undeveloped tourism policy	Institutional inertia; mismatch between needs of tourism business and the institutional offers; weak support structure for tourist business; administrative burden.	(Hjalager, 2010; Keller, 2006; Weiermair, 2006; ECORYS, 2009)

Source: Najda-Janoszka and Kopera (2014)

In light of the literature on barriers to innovation it is clear that there must be strategies which must be put in place to ensure that organisations utilise innovation to gain in tourism competitiveness at the end.

3.9 STRATEGIES WHICH ADVANCE THE USE OF INNOVATION IN TOURISM BUSINESSES

The strategies are going to be two pronged that is strategies to be adopted by the government and the individual organisations.

3.9.1 Strategies to be adopted by the government

The following are some of the strategies which can be used by governments in order to encourage organisations to innovate as evidenced by the literature search. This literature together with the empirical evidence will serve as basis for the recommendations of the study. Alvesson and Spicer (2012:46) state that to encourage innovative behaviour, policy makers may need to extend their reach to the activation triggers that prompt organisational utilisation of external knowledge rather than simply expanding opportunities for acquisition. In addition, Harradence (2009:1) proposes the following to be the role which can be played by government in promoting innovation:

- Investing in Science through introducing pure and early stage applied research,
- Building science and innovation infrastructure innovation (hubs)
- Capacitating by providing education and skill to the employees in the tourism organisations.
- Create incentives for business investment through compensating for technology and financial risk for business, provision of grants and providing fiscal incentives.
- Investing in underpinning infrastructure through establishment of standards and accreditation of properties and enforcing the use of Intellectual Property.

Poon 1993 in her thesis proposes the following to be strategies which can be adopted by organisation if they want to use innovation to gain a competitive advantage. Figure 3.4 is a presentation of Poon's strategy of gaining competitive advantage.

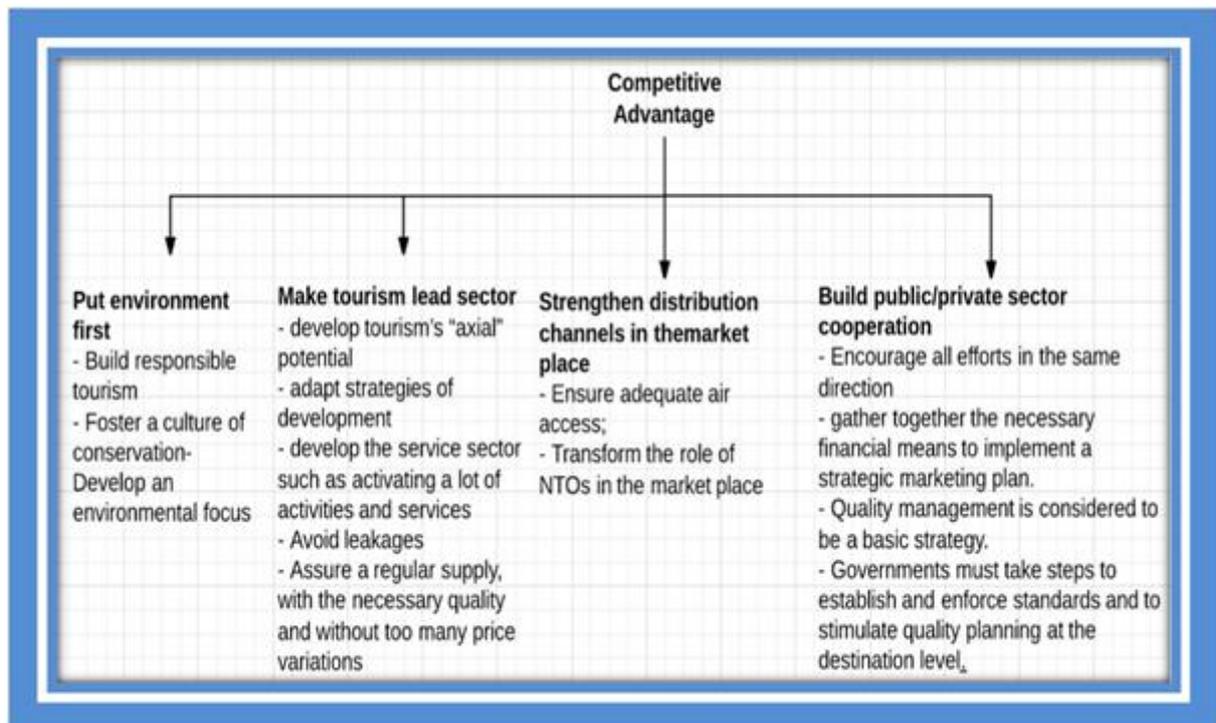


Figure 3.4: A Competitive advantage framework

Source: Adapted from Poon (1993)

- (i) Putting environment.

Tourism is currently experiencing rapid growth on a global scale has a broad and significant impact on social, economic and environmental development of every state or region in the world (International Trade Forum (ITC), 2014). The world is now in a stage of transition, triggered by environmental crises and vulnerabilities where maintaining sustainability in all development

initiatives is crucial, not only for scientist and decision makers, but for long term survival of the earth system (Azam & Sarker, 2016:1). To make use of the sector's immense potential its development must be carefully managed, with sustainability goals at its core (Nilsson-Anderson & Anderson, 2012). Much progress has been made in this regard over the past two decades. Travellers are showing increased interest in environmentally and socially responsible forms of tourism, while operators, hotels and local communities are offering more sustainable services. This evolution is clearly illustrated by the emergence of concepts such alternative types of tourism which are environmentally friendly, that integrate environmental protection and development policies to support environmentally friendly traditional activities (Kilipiris & Zardava, 2012:45).

In addition, the United Nations Environmental Programme (2007) posit that the use of greening the tourism industry requires a redesign of policy initiatives and the institutional governance structure should be the top priority in order to green the new development paradigm. It also calls for the active involvement of both public and private sector to work together towards sustainability of the industry in both developed and developing countries.

Kilipiris and Zardava (2012:51) recommend the following to be some of the activities which can be adopted if the agenda of putting the environment is being pushed for by an organisation.

- Incorporating all the new trends in the tourism industry bringing relevant new products to the tourism market.
- Tour operators, travel agents, hoteliers etc. can use the issue for sustainable development as an opportunity to improve their competitive advantage in the market.
- Integrate environmental, social and cultural issues into training programs.
- Enhance the status of local staff at all levels as an essential part of the industry.
- Foster a sense of pride in the job and care for the destination and its people.
- Train staff in understanding the complex nature of modern tourism.
- Explore the positive and negative impacts of tourism on host communities, during training.
- Train staff to foster tourist responsibility towards the destination country.
- Encourage multi-cultural education and interchange programs.
- Train local staff for managerial and leadership positions.

(ii) Making tourism the lead sector

The industry is potentially a key driver of socioeconomic development, mainly for export revenue generation, infrastructure development and job creation, (International Trade Forum (ITC), 2014). However, perhaps its greatest potential in that regard lies in its complexity (Platzer, 2014). Making tourism work requires significant resources and the provision of a variety of goods and services. The industry also brings together a plethora of stakeholders, from multinational companies to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in local markets (Huttassin *et al.*, 2015:106). Every tourism-related sale to a foreign visitor represents an export (Kilipiris & Zardava, 2012). As such, the sector provides an important opportunity for integration in the world economy, especially for SMEs that otherwise would not have the chance to be part of a global supply chain (ITC, 2014). It also requires focussing on ways of avoiding or minimising leakages. Above all, quality management must be central in all the activities done at the destination level. This can be achieved by having the government to establish and enforce standards and stimulate quality planning at the destination level.

(iii) Strengthen distribution channels in the market place

This can be done by ensuring adequate air access and transforming the role of National Tourism organisations. National tourism organisations can be transformed in several ways. Borzyszkowski (2015:62) presents the following to be some of the ways which can be capitalised by NTOs.

- More intense use of the latest information technologies, which involves designation of more funds to design and develop websites
- Construction and development of on-line booking systems or the development of tourist products with the use of information technologies
- And increasing care in relation to the activities addressed to a potential recipient, the so-called 8P, i.e. product, price, packaging, programming, promotion, place, people and partnership comprehensive destination management, including emergency management and development of public and private cooperation

(iv) Formation of public, private partnership

It has been adopted as a strategic tool for tourism development. The three PPPs concept is important because it encourages all stakeholders' efforts to move in the same direction and gathering together the necessary financial means to support this strategy. Menon and Edward (2014:2) postulate that Public Private Partnerships (PPP) enable the public sector to benefit from commercial dynamism, the ability to raise finances in an environment of budgetary restrictions, innovation and efficiencies, harnessed through the introduction of private sector investors who

contribute their own capital, skills and experience. The following are some of the benefits which can accrue to both parties as a result of the Public-Private Partnership.

- Acceleration of infrastructure provision
- Access to new sources of capital
- Faster implementation
- Value for money
- Provision of innovations and efficiencies
- Partnership building
- Enhanced public management
- Training and capacity building of personnel
- Genuine risk transfer
- Performance related reward
- Promotion of private investment
- Professionalism in management and commercial dynamism
- Provision of support service and equipment.
- Information dissemination and marketing
- Improved quality of service (Ezreth, 2014:12).

In this partnership governments must take steps to establish and enforce standards and to stimulate quality planning at the destination.

3.9.2 Strategies to be adopted by individual organisations/firms

Individual organisation might consider adopting an entrepreneurship innovative orientation or corporate innovation as strategies of fostering innovation in the organisation.

3.9.2.1 Adoption of an entrepreneurship innovative orientation

Adoption of an entrepreneurship innovative can be considered to be one of the strategies. Innovation combines invention with commercialisation, making it easy to see why innovation and entrepreneurship are so closely linked (Enz, 2009:382). Nybakk and Hansen (2008) investigated how entrepreneurial attitudes influence innovativeness and performance in Norwegian nature-based tourism enterprises and found that managers with a stronger entrepreneurial attitude tend to be more innovative and consequently to perform better. Therefore, Čivre and Gomezelj Omerzel (2015:324) conclude that managers are advised to identify the key factors that influence innovativeness, and to be aware that a market and entrepreneurial orientation is of paramount

importance for tourism firms' innovativeness and, consequently, firm performance. The same authors proposed some of the innovative approaches which can be used, such as, paying close attention to after-sales services, business objectives driven by customer satisfaction, understanding customers' needs, monitoring and assessing customer satisfaction, and so forth.

Enz (2009:381) defines corporate entrepreneurship, sometimes called intrapreneurship as the creation of new products, processes and services within existing corporations that enable them to grow. Table 3.4 summarises the areas to focus on if corporate entrepreneurship is to be adopted and be a success in an organisation.

Table 3.4: Factors that encourages/discourages use of innovation in an organisation

Factors encouraging innovation	Factors discouraging innovation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vision and culture that support innovation, personal growth, and risk taking. - Top management support and organisation champions. - Teamwork and collaboration; a flat management hierarchy. - Decentralised approval process. - Valuing the ideas of every employee. - Excellent communications. - Innovation grants and time off to pursue projects. - Large rewards for successful entrepreneurs. - Focus on learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rigid bureaucracy and conservatism in decision making. - Absence of management support or champions. - Authoritarian leadership and traditional hierarchy. - Difficult approval process. - Attention given to the ideas of only certain people (researchers or managers). - Closed - door offices. - Inadequate resources devoted to entrepreneurial activities. - Harsh penalties for failure. - Exclusive emphasis on measurable outcomes

Source: Adapted from Enz (2009)

Organisations which intend to use innovation as key strategy must reflect this in their vision statement because a vision defines the direction to be taken by the organisation. Kanagal (2015:6) reiterate that a mind-set shift towards innovation is also needed in the innovation process system for successful innovation. The ideal culture of innovation would include the willingness to cannibalise existing products, balanced marketing and technology ideation, specific time spent on creative activity, embrace risk and focus on the future; leaders of innovating organisations have to ensure that these cultural characteristics emerge through appropriate incentives, empowerment of innovators and encouragement of internal markets (Kanagal, 2015:6).

In addition the organisation culture must support this vision by encouraging people to discuss new ideas and take risks and also encourage employees and managers to learn from their failures. Support from top management in the form of flexible policies and regulations are critical as it fosters the spirit of innovation in the organisation. Managers play a vital role in ensuring that employee values fit those of the organisation as they shape the vision and purpose of the organisation, top managers must also serve a disruptive role, making sure that managers and

employees do not get too comfortable with the way things are (Enz, 2010:382). Also they need to ensure that approval is not too bureaucratic as it can stifle progress. Acknowledgement of ideas from all employees is essential as it increases ownership and make employees to take pride in the organisation's success and also organisation learning must be the centre of innovative activities. From this perspective, entrepreneurship and innovations have become essential parts of tourism firms' success due to the competitive global environment (Čivrić & Gomezelj Omerzel, 2015:318).

3.10 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter is a presentation of the role of innovation in improving tourism competitiveness. Four theories were used to explain the theoretical underpinning of how innovation can be embraced to promote the competitiveness of a destination. The theories used were resource based theory, knowledge based view, organisational learning theory and lastly the stakeholder theory. These theories were used to explain the interdependency which exists among the theories in-order to yield tourism competitiveness at the end. It also emerged that as part of the innovation process it is important to have a clear understanding of the external and internal factors which can hamper the success of innovation. An understanding of the determinants can help to open up opportunities which can be capitalised for the success of an organisation. Reference was also made to some hints and tips on the strategies of using innovation as a tool for competitive advantage in an organisation. The next chapter presents the research design and the method used for the study.

CHAPTER 4: METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an overview of the study methodology. This research aimed at critically assessing how innovation can be used as part of tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe. Previous Chapters 2 and 3 laid the foundation of the study by reviewing related literature. These Chapters provided a basis of the empirical section of the study. Chapter 2 focussed on the nexus between management and tourism competitiveness and Chapter 3 discussed how tourism competitiveness and innovation can be linked together. Innovation has been taken as the enabling factor between management and tourism competitiveness. Given this background, this chapter gives firstly insight into the evolution of the tourism industry of Zimbabwe. Secondly a framework of the research methodological and design is discussed in order to provide an assurance that appropriate procedures were followed to address the research problem. It gives a clear and concise description of how the study was carried out. The chapter is structured according to the following key elements:

- Description of the study area and background to the tourism performance of Zimbabwe
- Research philosophy
- Research approach
- Research design
- Participants of the study
- Participant selection
- Data collection method
- Data presentation and analysis
- Reliability and validity
- Ethical considerations and summary.

4.2 STUDY AREA

This section comprises of two (2) parts that are a brief explanation about Zimbabwe and its tourism resources. Section B comprises of the historical perspective of tourism performance in Zimbabwe. This discussion should give some insights on the evolution of Zimbabwean tourism and help in data analysis.

4.2.1 Brief overview of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country located in Southern Africa and is surrounded by five neighbouring countries namely South Africa in the southern border, Botswana in the western border, Zambia in the northern border, Mozambique in the eastern border and Namibia to the far west. Below is Figure 4.1 with the map of Zimbabwe its regions showing towns and cities in those regions.



Figure 4.1: Map of Zimbabwe

Source: Adapted from (<https://www.lonelyplanet.com/maps/africa/zimbabwe/>).

The Zimbabwean economy is one of the most-tourism dependent in Southern Africa (Chibaya, 2013:84). Tourism is regarded as one of the four pillars of the Zimbabwean economy together with agriculture, mining and manufacturing sectors. It also accounted for forty-two thousand and five hundred jobs directly and another fifty one thousand indirectly (WTTC, 2012) In the year 2016, Zimbabwe received a total of 2,167,686 tourist arrivals, 5% up from 2,056,588 received in 2015 (ZTA, 2016) However, according to the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index it was ranked number 114 and moved from 115 in the previous ranking (TTCI, 2017).

4.2.2 Tourism resources in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is remarkably endowed with a magnitude of varied and extremely extraordinary tourism resources and attractions (Block, 2013). It is host to one of the Seven Wonders of the World, the Victoria Falls. Other attractions include wildlife diversity in its system of protected areas, one of the largest man-made lakes in the world, scenery and eco-diversity in the Eastern Highlands, ancient ruins of Great Zimbabwe and a favourable warm climate (Karambakuwa, Shonhiwa, Murombo, Mauchi, Denhere, Tafirei, Chingarande & Mudavanhu, 2011:69; Chibaya, 2013:84). Given the nature of its attractions and the fact that it is landlocked, Zimbabwe has historically been easily classified as a “wanderlust” destination (Muchapondwa & Pimhidzayi, 2011:71). Matobo Hills, Khami Ruins, and other ruins, the considerable beauty of Chimanimani, Bvumba and Nyanga and the spectacular Mana Pools are some of the attractions found in Zimbabwe (Fernandoa, 2014:84).

In addition, there are also many tourism magnets in the cities, including Bulawayo’s National Natural History Museum (renowned as the best in the world), the National Gallery of Zimbabwe, in both Harare and Bulawayo, the War Museum in Gweru, tribal dancing and other diverse cultural venues and activities (Block, 2013:1). Zimbabwe is a peaceful country with a very low crime rate making it a safe destination to visit. The country also boasts of a wonderful people and culture, rich history and heritage thus making it a place to be for visitors. With all these resources (Fernandoa, 2014:84) poses a question “why many developing countries (such as Zimbabwe) destinations characterised by an abundance of natural resources and cost advantages, are not able to create wealth, prosperity and competitiveness in tourism”. This becomes the underpinning of this study. Zimbabwe did experience prosperity based on tourism and history researchers divided the tourism eras in Zimbabwe into two major eras namely colonial and post - colonial eras.

The next section presents Zimbabwe’s tourism performance from the colonial era into post-colonial era. Lordache *et al.* (cited by Fernandoa, 2014:83) gives an answer to the above mentioned question when he talks of competitive advantage in the sector ceasing to be natural, but has taken a new twist of being a man-made phenomenon, driven by information technology, telecommunication and innovation, as such it is no longer driven by natural resources endowment to determine its share in the tourism market. The new tourist is looking for experience based travelling in which innovative promotional campaigns and image building are playing an important role. This involves tourism players in Zimbabwe to provide much inspirable and innovative experience than solely focussing on traditional site-seeing and mass tourism.

4.2.3 Historical perspective: Zimbabwean tourism

The tourism sector in Zimbabwe has undergone tremendous shifts and developments from the colonisation of the country in 1890 right up to present day (Chibaya, 2013:85). There are two distinct periods that are palpable in the history of tourism performance; the colonial phase and the post-colonial era. Figure 4.2 below presents the performance of tourism in Zimbabwe during the colonial era and post - colonial era according to foreign tourist arrival statistics.

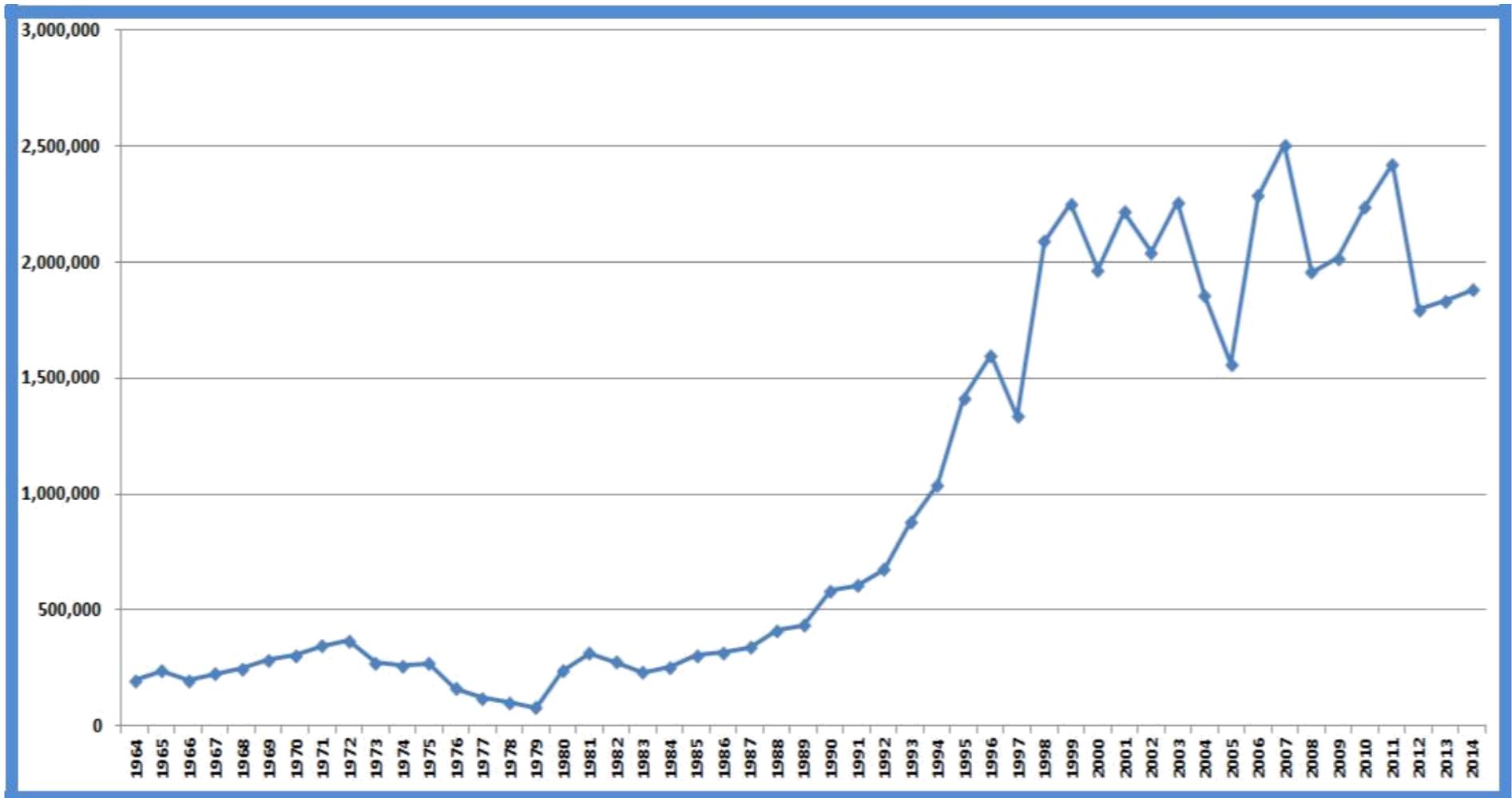


Figure 4.2: Foreign Tourist Arrivals Trend 1964-2014

Source: Adapted from ZTA Tourism, Trends and Statistics (2014)

4.2.3.1 Tourism in the colonial era (1888-1980)

Prior to independence, Zimbabwe was named 'Rhodesia' in honour of Cecil John Rhodes who led the colonial crusade (Mupfuvi, 2014:139). It is in this era, when the country adopted the import substitution strategy which became the anchor of the economy (Mzumara, 2012:33). This strategy helped to sustain the economy of the country. Until the end of the Second World War, the tourist industry grew at a slow pace most of the developments were largely in the hands of local individual entrepreneurs. These few individuals owned small rather primitive hotels which catered for the local white community and a limited number of South African visitors (Heath, 1986:28).

The 1950s saw the development of more hotels in resort areas of but these hotels were still largely the result of individual enterprise. The years of the Federation coincided with a world-wide increase in tourism and the growth of relatively cheap foreign package tours (Heath, 1986:29). Increased affluence and leisure time in the developed countries and the rapid increase in air passenger services meant that Africa (and Zimbabwe) benefited from a gradually increasing number of West European and North American visitors as well as a rising tide of South Africans. Lake Kariba was built (Hughes, 2006:823), creating a new tourist venue and hotels were developed both on the lake-shore and in other tourist areas. Local commercial companies became involved in the hotel industry and small hotel chains were established. Currency restrictions also affected the customary holidays on the South African coast so that an increasing number of local people spent at least some of their holidays within the country. By 1972, tourism, both internal and foreign, had reached its highest recorded levels in Zimbabwe (Heath, 1986:29). This is supported by the statistics presented in Figure 4:2. This period, too, saw the appearance of the first international hotel group the Southern Sun group (Ndoda, 2015). Hotels were acquired from individuals or small companies, and new hotels were built. However, as the war increased, foreign tourism dropped rapidly and even the South African market dropped as well. Many recreational areas were closed for security reasons and the local visitor trade also dropped significantly. Several hotels closed down and others struggled along, barely covering costs, or even running at a loss. The years 1972-1979 was marked by a rapid decrease as evidenced in Figure 4:2. Normalcy started to emerge late 1979 as there was a ceasefire bringing to an end the war which had caused a decrease in tourist arrivals (Heath, 1986).

4.2.3.2 Tourism in the Post-colonial era (1980 to present)

Major events which took the centre stage in this era, issues of international optimism and good will, civil war, issue of peace accord and the issue of land invasions. After independence in 1980, it appeared that the tourist industry would grow rapidly. Based on the independence which was attained in Zimbabwe it saw an influx of foreign tourists to the country (Heath, 1986:29). The years

1980 and 1981 saw a reopening of hotels and of recreational areas which had been closed during the war, and there was a rising feeling of optimism within the tourist industry (Chibaya, 2013:85). In 1981, the government formed the Zimbabwe Tourism Development Corporation (ZTDC). Its mandate was to invest in the tourism industry on behalf of the government.

- Civil war

Another disturbance arose in 1982 in the Matabeleland and Midlands Provinces the Gukurahundi (Scarnecchia, 2008). This disturbance affected the tourism industry causing tourism arrivals to drop in 1982 and 1983 as evidenced by statistics in Figure 4:2. This civil contention in these provinces resulted in an unsafe destination tag for the country when foreign tourists lost their lives (Rwafa, 2012:318) resulting in the overseas tourist market to collapse.

- Drought

Further problems affecting tourism in the 1980s were compounded by the drought of 1982 that affected most parts of the country Zimbabwe as well as the world recession of the early 1980s. The local White population, which had for so long formed the backbone of the tourist industry, was affected by large-scale emigration (Chibaya, 2013:85) which resulted in the decrease in tourism pace. Accommodation was also affected, although not quite so severely. The year 1983 was generally very poor for tourism, but the industry picked up slowly during 1984 and 1985, with increased numbers of foreign tourists visiting Zimbabwe. Although some hotels were still closed, the Holiday Inn group opened their second hotel, in Harare and the Sheraton organisation also entered the field (Heath, 1986:30). Another drought was experienced in 1992 leaving the wildlife resources to be under threat and vulnerable. The Victoria Falls resort for instance, lost some of its lustre as a result of reduced water discharge over the falls. The general economy also faced food shortages forcing the government of Zimbabwe to embark on food hand-outs to rescue the local people. This resulted in tourism to be given less attention in terms of funding as the funds were channelled to support the drought stricken populace. It was also during this time when the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in 1991 from 16-21 October was hosted which led to the massive infrastructural and super structural development in the resort town of Victoria Falls. For instance, the Kingdom Hotel was rebuilt; a golf course, an airport and sewerage ponds were built (Chibaya, 2013:87).

- All Africa Games and CAMPFIRE initiative

There was an increase of 35% in tourist arrivals from the previous year in 1995 as shown in Figure 4.2 This increase was attributed to the hosting of the All Africa Games (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:68; Muchapondwa & Pimhidzayi, 2011:72). This positively resulted in a significant rise in tourist arrivals in the country causing Zimbabwe to be ranked at the fourth position by World Tourism Organisation (WTO) in 1996 (Ndoda, 2015:149). This era was marked by new innovations; the introduction of the Communal Areas Management Programme For Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) which led to the active involvement of rural people in tourism (Siwadi & Chaderopa, 2012:70). It is one of the first programs to consider wildlife as renewable natural resources, while addressing the allocation of its ownership to indigenous peoples in and around conservation protected areas. Trends indicate that tourist arrivals grew at an average rate of 17.5% and tourism receipts increased at an average rate of 18% in USD (Ndoda, 2015:150). Access was not a problem as there was reliable internal access to tourists' resorts such as Victoria Falls, Kariba and Masvingo.

- Land reform

The Zimbabwean economy underwent a serious social economic melt-down during the period of 2000 to 2008 (ZTA, 2008; GoZ, 2011) causing decrease in tourists arrivals to worsen to the extent of recording 750 000 tourists arrivals with a contribution of 3.3% of the GDP (Chibaya, 2013:84). The government attributed this decrease to the sanctions which were imposed by the West when the government implemented the land reform policy (GoZ, 2011; ZIMASSET, 2013:7). This decrease opened opportunities for neighbouring countries like South Africa, Botswana and Zambia. Comparing tourists' arrivals with those in other African countries Zimbabwe had the least market share in high value markets of Europe and America (ZTA, 2005). It is during this era when Zimbabwe adopted the Look East policy as the western market had retreated backwards (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:90). This initiative resulted in a slight increase in tourists' arrivals from Asia and Middle East (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:69).

Of interest was the year 2000 when tourists' arrivals dropped drastically as a result of the introduction of the Fast Track Land Reform whose main objective was to improve the welfare of people and poverty reduction in Zimbabwe (Mkono, 2010; Mutsena & Kabote, 2015). This land reform programme was not welcomed by the white community which caused the country to become the target of negative publicity resulting in the country being perceived as unsafe destination in most western countries (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:68; Chipika & Malaba, 2011:2).

The land reform programme resulted in some national parks being invaded like the Gonarezhou in Masvingo province and other conservancies to experience human-wildlife conflicts for instance Save valley conservancy, Bubiana conservancy and Chiredzi river conservancy (Chibaya, 2013:86). Thousands of the black farmers turned to poaching the wildlife as a source of food, income, trapping animals for their own security in the parks or conservancy areas (Matsa, 2014:117). Travel bans were issued against travel to Zimbabwe (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:86). This drastically affected tourism business because Zimbabwe banked on the western market for business. This decline in business resulted in most companies closing down (Ndoda, 2015:151) and laying off workers (Mugwati, Nkala & Mashiri, 2016:107).

- Solar eclipse

In 2001, tourists' arrivals were rescued by the first total solar eclipse of the Third Millennium which was visible from within a narrow corridor traversing the Southern Hemisphere and could be conveniently seen from Zimbabwe (Mugwati *et al.*, 2016:107). This attracted a large number of visitors and saw a 12.7% annual increase in international arrivals for 2001. However, this increase was not sustained in subsequent years as 2002 was marked with a trough due to the September 11 Attack on the USA and the March 2002 presidential elections of Zimbabwe (Muchapondwa & Pimhidzayi, 2011:72). In 2004 (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:101) acknowledges that tourists arrivals decreased as a result of the introduction of Operation Restore order which saw the displacement of thousands of households, closure of banks and increase the widespread negative perception of Zimbabwe as an unsafe destination. Year 2004 was worsened by significant changes in the macro- economic environment.

Despite these difficulties the tourism sector in Zimbabwe came up with new initiatives as a measure to keep the flag of hope high. The signing of the Approved Destination status Memorandum of Understanding was done between Zimbabwe and the Republic of China. Flights to China the emerging market were introduced. ZTA helped in re-appraising the negative image of the country as a destination by marketing and perception management, contributing to improving tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2005). ZTA, through various stakeholders managed to promote Zimbabwe tourism industry through the hosting of international celebrities who would then become Zimbabwe's tourism ambassadors to their countries of origin (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:70). Travel writers were also hosted in a bid to counter negative publicity which was being faced by Zimbabwe as tourist destination (Ndoda, 2015:154). The national tourism organisation also increased its attendance and participation in international fairs. In promotion of sustainable tourism development and fulfilling the government policy of indigenisation and empowerment saw the introduction of community based tourism projects (Ndoda, 2015:155). It is again in this period

when big hotel groups expanded their wings into the region for example TA Holdings Cresta moved into Botswana, Malawi and Ghana. Rainbow Tourism Group sealed a management deal with DRC and African Sun followed suit and signed a management contracts in South Africa (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:103).

The woes of tourism continued though in 2005 ZTA continued with initiatives to revive the sector. ZTA hosted an international travel Expo which yielded promising results of new countries showing interest and the highest number was from Asia. During this era it also saw the fruition of the Tourism Development Zones concept. In June 2005 the first three areas were designated namely Great Zimbabwe - Lake Mtirikwi, Chiredzi- Gonarezhou and Beitbridge- Shashe – Limpopo. Tax holiday exemptions and duty exemptions were granted to organisations who were importing materials for use in the development of TDZs (Chibaya, 2013:88). ZTA developed one stop Investment Initiative which is a one shop investment promotion brochure as part of its marketing efforts in a bid to resuscitate the tourism sector (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:101).

- Global recession and other unfavourable happenings

Despite all attempts by ZTA year 2008 was not a favourable year for Zimbabwe tourism sector as it was hard hit by hyper inflationary environment, repeat cholera epidemics, and violent elections (Chibaya, 2013:84, Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:86). This resulted in a deep economic and social crisis characterised by a hyperinflationary environment and low industrial capacity utilisation, leading to the overall decline in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 50% in 2008 (ZIMASSET, 2013:7). This predicament was worsened by the global financial recession of 2008. The tourist arrivals declined to 1.8 million in 2008 from a 2.4 million recorded in 2004 (UNWTO, 2011). Tourism performance was further stifled in 2008 by severe shortages of electricity, fuel, foreign currency, recurrent droughts, price controls, an overvalued exchange rate regime, transport problems and the negative publicity which were being experienced by the country, this contributed to the decline of tourist arrivals and receipts (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:70). Foreign airlines withdrew their services/flights into the country Zimbabwe (Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:96).

- Peace accord

In 2009 the Government of National Unity (GNU) was signed and the use of multicurrency was adopted which brought about confidence to the tourism industry (Chibaya, 2013:85, Sanderson & Mudzonga, 2016:86). This formation of GNU brought an immediate positive effect on the tourism sector as travel warnings against Zimbabwe were lifted and the political stability and

economic stability were restored. Kurambakuwa *et al.* (2011:70), in their study on the impact of ZTA initiatives on tourists arrivals, established that stakeholders in the tourism industry contended that tourist arrivals increased by 53% in Zimbabwe during the period 2009 due to the changes which took place. This provided hope for the country. ZTA also lobbied government to implement price controls on tourist accommodation in hotels and lodges during the period. This made accommodation for tourists in Zimbabwe to be affordable and competitive in the African region (Karambakuwa, *et al.*, 2011:70). This stable macro-political-economic environment was thus supportive of the re-emergence of tourism and hospitality sector back into prominence (Chibaya, 2013:85).

- ZTAs Initiatives

In 2012 the old brand 'Zimbabwe, Africa's Paradise' was placed with the new brand, 'Zimbabwe a world of wonders' with the purpose of redefining and designing a refreshed brand identity for the country (Chibaya, 2013:87). Furthermore, ZTA hosted a congress of Africa Travel Association (ATA) where 500 delegates from around Africa attended the congress in Victoria Falls. The main thrust of the conference was on learning, networking and demonstrating the global cross-industry interest in leveraging tourism opportunities in Africa. Again in 2012 The Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry formulated a National Tourism Policy in 2012 to guide the tourism sector's development. The objective of introducing national tourism policy was to open up new opportunities to develop new tourism niche products such as cultural tourism, culinary tourism, medical tourism, industrial tourism, mega-eventing, agro-tourism, sports tourism, religious tourism, township tourism, historical and heritage tourism. The tourism sector had thoughts of spreading its tourism wings to other untapped forms of tourism. The idea was to remove the over reliance on wildlife tourism and enhance the competitiveness of the destination (National Tourism Policy, 2014).

Nevertheless, all these efforts Zimbabwe recorded a 26% decline in tourist arrivals in 2012 having fallen from 2 423 280 to 1 794 230. According to ZTA statistics from 1999 to 2013, European visitors declined by 66% from 380 113 to 128 901, while those from the Americas declined by 53% from 116 109 to 54 157 while tourists from Oceania also contracted by 65% from 65 281 to 22 689. In 2013, the country recorded a 2% growth in tourist arrivals from 1 794 230 in 2012 to 1 832 570 in 2013. The majority of 2013 arrivals were said to be low-spending tourists from mainland Africa numbering 1 570 799. Zimbabwe co-hosted the United Nations World Tourism Organisation General Assembly in 2013 together with Zambia. This somehow changed the perception of many tourists as a true picture of the country as was portrayed (Gapa, 2015) by foreigners.

- Efforts to revive tourism

Efforts have been made to revive the tourism sector. The tourism policy was launched in July 2014 to promote both international and domestic tourism in the country. The policy articulates tourism development and marketing and promotion strategies (Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy, 2014). The National Tourism aims to develop the following diverse innovative niche tourism products; cultural tourism, culinary tourism, mega-eventing tourism, medical tourism, industrial tourism, shopping tourism, agro-tourism, sports tourism, religious tourism, historical and heritage based tourism and township tourism among others (Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy, 2014:19) to be competitive in new emerging markets and as well regain the lost market share in the traditional western markets.

Successful projects already under implementation include the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA), Univisa pilot project between Zimbabwe and Zambia, launched on 28 November 2014. As a result, tourist arrivals were expected to increase to about 2.1 million in 2015 from 2 million in 2014. This translates into tourist sector growth of 4.7% in 2015, compared to 3.9% in 2014 (Munyao & Bandara, 2015:4). This also resulted in an increase in the employment rate of the businesses offering travel and tourism services. WTTC (2015:4) reports that the Travel and Tourism businesses in Zimbabwe generated 181,000 jobs directly in 2014 (3.1% of total employment) and it was forecasted to grow by 2.0% in 2015 to 184,500 (3.0% of total employment).

However, the discontinuation of direct flights to Harare by the Royal Dutch Airlines (KLM) in October 2014 and Egypt Air in September 2014 presented major blows to Zimbabwe's tourism fortunes, especially as the country continues to battle with air connectivity challenges with its major overseas markets (ZTA, 2014:14). The outbreak of the Ebola virus in West Africa also caused serious concerns worldwide, scaring away potential travellers to Africa since overseas travellers perceive the whole African continent as "one destination". Liquidity problems and power supply also worsened the challenges being faced by the tourism sector in Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2014:57).

The year 2015 witnessed a shift from targeting international market and focus on the domestic market. Attention has to be extended to the domestic market (Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy, 2014:21) which saw initiatives like the Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Events (MICE) strategy implemented by the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) and promotions by players such

as slashing prices as well as creating family packages have seen products becoming accessible to locals (Gapa, 2015; Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy, 2014:24).

This evolution of Zimbabwean tourism has been instrumental in bringing out the problems which are being faced by the country. However as seen the colonial era innovation can be used to solve some of the challenges which are making Zimbabwe not to be competitive as it used to be during the colonial era. Innovation can be used to help Zimbabwe regain its tourism status. The section to follow presents the methodological stance of the study. The research philosophy is to be presented first.

4.4 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research methodology rests on the foundation of ontological, epistemology and logical assumptions (Neuman, 2014:95). Ontology being an area that deals with the nature of being (Neuman, 2014:95). Epistemology is concerned with the creation and theories of knowledge and focusses on how ideas are known and about the nature of evidence and knowledge (Barbour, 204:35). Assumptions are further divided into paradigms which are also known as philosophies. Creswell (2013:16) defines a philosophy as the use of abstract ideas and belief that inform our research. Lopez and Willis (2004:726) observed that most research studies fall short on the linkage between the method used and the philosophical underpinnings. This results in a research which is ambiguous in its purpose, structure and findings. In his opinion (Creswell 2013:18) also finds philosophies important in research because it shapes how the research problem and research questions are formulated in the study and it helps to seek for information to answer the research questions. In other words a philosophy lays the foundation of the research methodology. To support Tuohy, Cooney, Dowling, Murphy and Smith (2013:18) highlighted that findings generated will depend on the philosophical approach used.

This section entails the paradigm used to conduct the research in relation to the research topic, objectives and research questions. There are a growing number of models of inquiry (paradigms), and the two most frequently used in researches are positivism/scientific and interpretivist paradigm (Barbour, 2014:35; Willis, 2007:8). Each theory is associated with different social theories and diverse research techniques (Neuman, 2014:96). Barbour (2014:35) posit that positivism, reality is believed to be objective and it seeks to control the natural world through establishing universal law as, which could be further tested through a set of scientific rules of method. Kroeze (2011) defines Interpretivist paradigm as a philosophical system that focusses on reality as a human construction which can only be understood subjectively. Table 4.1 below presents a summary of the differences between the positivist and the phenomenological paradigm according to (Gray, 2009:23).

Table 4.1: Summary of Positivist and phenomenological paradigms

	Positivist paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Basic beliefs	The world is external and objective The observer is independent Science is value free	The world is socially construed and Subjective The observer is partly to what is being observed Science is driven by human interests
The researcher should	Focus on facts Locate causality between variables Formulate and test hypotheses (deductive reasoning)	Focus on meanings Try to understand what is happening Construct theories and models from the data (inductive reasoning)
Methods include	Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured Using large samples from which to Generalise Quantitative methods	Using multiple methods to establish different views of a phenomenon Using small samples researched in depth over time Qualitative methods

Source: Gray (2009)

These facts were used and they helped in shaping the methodological stance of this study. Therefore the grounding of this study is laid in the interpretivist paradigm using interpretive phenomenology approach. Goldkuhl (2012) and Willis (2007:122) are also of the view that interpretivist implies working with subjective meanings already there in the social world; that is, to acknowledge their existence, to reconstruct them, to understand them, to avoid distorting them, to use them as building blocks in theorising. The interpretive paradigm gave the researcher the correct framework to advance the study goal of exploring perspectives and shared meanings so as to develop insights and a deeper understanding (Silverman, 2014:6) of the extent to which innovation contributes to organisational development by collecting pre-dominantly qualitative data. The following have been taken to be the examples of interpretivist philosophy;

- Symbolic interactionism
- Phenomenology
- Realism
- Hermeneutics
- Naturalistic inquiry, (Gray, 2009:21).

The interpretive case phenomenology approach was deemed fit for the study as it helps to understand and interpret the participant experiences (Tuohy *et al.*, 2013:18). Case study is defined as a method used for analysing elements of the social fabric through comprehensive description and analysis of a single or multiple cases. The fact that this study used different

participants from different sectors, a multiple case approach was used. Using this interpretive case approach the researcher was able to interpret the narratives provided by the participants in relation to how innovation is used in various tourism organisations. Collis and Hussey, (2009:56 & 57); Rubin and Babbie (2010:37) support this notion by saying the purpose of research in interpretivism is understanding and interpreting everyday happenings (events), experiences and social structures as well as the values people attach to these phenomena. Lopez and Willis (2004:729) highlight that this approach allows the use of a framework which allows a clear path of findings thus the researcher had a basis for the interpretation of the findings.

4.5 RESEARCH APPROACH

Depending on the research philosophy used the research can use the qualitative or quantitative approaches. The difference lies in the research process and assumptions about social life (Neuman, 2014:122 & Willis, 2007:7). While there is no doubt that these approaches are important in knowledge enhancement, there is also no doubt that the use of terms can be confusing, divisive and limiting (O'leary, 2014:121). Thus it is important to try to distinguish the two approaches for the sake of clarity in this study. Quantitative research approach is characterised as an objective positivist search for singular truths that relies hypotheses variables and statistics and is usually generally at a large scale but with without much depth (O'leary, 2014:121).

This study used a qualitative approach. Use of qualitative research approaches to hospitality and tourism research has been gaining attention as an alternative to the more traditional quantitative approach (Slevitch, 2011:73) thus the approach was deemed fit to suit the study. Whereas, Creswell (2013:42) defines the qualitative research approach as an intricate fabric composed of minute threads with many colours, different textures and various blends of material. O'leary (2014:130) is of the opinion that qualitative is a critique of positivism as the reigning epistemology and a recognition of the need for alternative ways to produce knowledge. In quantitative research respondents are usually not free to express data that cannot be captured by predetermined instruments whereas the opposite is true for qualitative approach (Mason, 2013:638). In qualitative the researcher is the key instrument as he or she guides the research through interaction with guests (Creswell, 2013:45).

Deeper meaning of innovation as a phenomena was sought through the interaction with participants. This view is supported by Creswell (2013:42) who believes that qualitative research is one in which the researcher seeks detailed and deeper information (perspectives) regarding a particular phenomenon. These cannot be pinned down or measured in an exact way (Willis, 2007:7). By its very nature, qualitative approach is more open to ambiguity, and requires the

identification of emergent key themes for its data to be organised, collated and interpreted. Qualitative research enables respondents to share their perceptions on a phenomenon without interference from a set of framework (Mason, 2013:635). Thus the qualitative approach was used to explore the views of tourism players concerning the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness. Qualitative data can be used very effectively to identify a pattern in relation to a specific phenomenon (Walliman, 2011). In this case, views on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness. Gray (2009:195) presents the following to be some of the advantages of using qualitative research approach over the quantitative research approach.

- Researchers are closer to the fields or settings they are trying to research – it is highly contextual.
- Qualitative research is not built upon a unified theory or methodological approach- hence its variety and flexibility.
- Data analysis does not necessarily follow data gathering- there can be a number of iterations between the two.

Following the advantages identified above the researcher deemed the qualitative research approach fit for the study. The next section presents the research design for the study.

4.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2006) define research design as a general strategy or plan for conducting a research indicating the study's basic structure and goals. Thus, a research design can be summarised as a blueprint, or outline, for conducting a study in such a way that maximum control will be exercised over factors that could interfere with the validity of the research results. The research design is also a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing needed information (Zikmund, 2000:92). Furthermore, the research design is the researcher's plan for acquiring answers to the research questions guiding the study.

There are a number of approaches to research design but the most mentioned are; exploratory, descriptive, and experimental research. (Gay *et al.*, 2006). This study adopted a cross sectional exploratory research design. This is because it is more concerned with exploring or identifying what happened, or what is happening. This design assisted the researcher to identify innovation types being implemented in organisations and assess how the innovations are part of tourism competitiveness by interrogating the stakeholders' perceptions towards the phenomena in question. Walliman (2011) concludes that it is a design that helps unearth deeper knowledge into a particular phenomenon.

4.7 POPULATION

O'leary (2014:182) defines a population as the total membership of a defined class of people, objects or events. In another definition, Robinson (2014:25) refers to it as the 'sample universe' to define the totality of persons from which cases may legitimately be sampled in an interview study. Thus, it can be summarised as the totality of all subjects that conform to a set of specifications, comprising the entire group of persons that is of interest to the researcher and to whom the research results can be generalised. The research population for this study comprised of managers from selected tourism businesses offering services to tourists and tourism policy makers. These businesses included the following categories; tour operators, accommodation providers, safari and hunting operators and entrepreneurs. However, working with such a population was not feasible, thus sampling was done.

4.7.1 Participant selection

Sampling is the process of selecting elements of a population for inclusion in a research study (O'Leary, 2014:183). There are different strategies which can be used when sampling. As alluded to earlier in the chapter the sampling strategy hinges on the philosophy used in a study.

The sampling strategies can either be probability sampling or non-probability sampling. In the first case, each member has a fixed, known opportunity to belong to the sample, whereas in the second case, there is no specific probability of an individual to be a part of the sample. Figure 4.3 presents the sampling strategies which can be used.

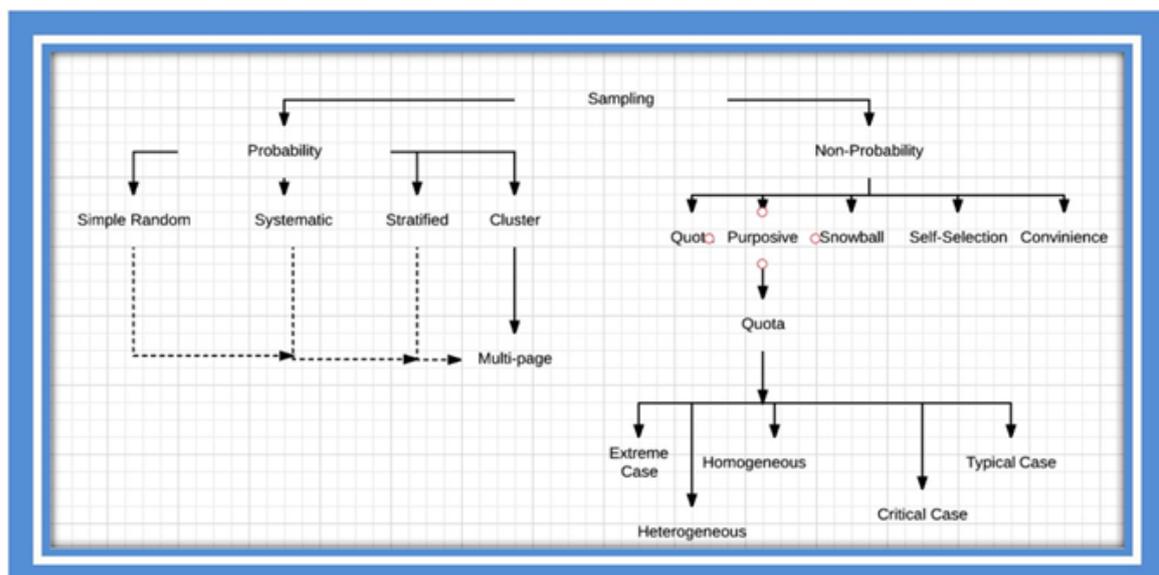


Figure 4.3: Overview of sampling techniques

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2009)

This study used non-probability sampling strategies due to the nature of the research which required establishing perceptions of selected tourism players. The study engaged purposive sampling to achieve its goal. Silverman (2013:141) identifies the strength of using purposive sampling in the researcher because it demands the researcher to think critically about the parameters of the population being studied. Thus the researcher used a criterion in selecting the participants.

The criteria set was the use of different sectors which make up the tourism industry so as to get different views from the stakeholders involved in the tourism industry. In addition the years of work experience were also considered, the minimum years were pegged at two (2) years was used so as to establish whether years of experience had any link with how the managers perceive innovation in the industry. The researcher also had to select a sample size which was easier to reach and effective in getting information from them. For this study, the researcher chose the management team in organisations as these tend to be among the spear-headers of innovation in organisations and they have practical information on the contributions of innovation in their particular organisation.

4.7.2 Sample size

A sample is defined as the number of individuals, items, or events selected from a population for a study, preferably in such a way that they represent the larger group from which they were selected (Gay *et al.*, 2006). The issue of how many respondents to be used for qualitative studies has been a bone of contention (Creswell, 2013). Although recommendations exist for determining qualitative sample sizes, the literature appears to contain few instances of research on qualitative sample sizes (Gutterman, 2015). Several authors propose that there is no rule of thumb with that regard but focus must be placed on the quality and quantity of data collected. In addition Gutterman (2015) echoes that sampling is not a matter of representative opinions, but a matter of information richness or appropriateness and adequacy.

Conversely, Robinson (2014:26) proposes three (3) to sixteen (16) respondents for an idiographic study and a bigger sample for nomothetic studies which either aim to develop or test a theory. However, the author also warns users of the danger of having an analytical overload thus he proposes the idea of having separate studies then combine them into a larger syntheses as a way of handling large qualitative studies. Gutterman (2015) in his study of describing qualitative sample size and sampling practices within published studies in education and the health sciences by research design established a mean sample size of 15 which ranged from 8 to 31 for

phenomenological studies. Therefore, this study used a sample size of eighteen (18) respondents. Table 4.2 below shows the distribution of the participants according to sectors chosen.

Table 4.0.2: Sample of participants

Sector	Number of participants
Accommodation Managers	5
Travel trade Managers	5
Hunting and Safari operations Managers	3
Entrepreneurs	3
Key informants	2

Source: Author's own compilation

Different players from the industry were selected because of the multifaceted nature of industry. The researcher also made an assumption that the level of innovativeness and types of innovation to be used were to differ by the virtue of having participants coming from different sectors.

4.8 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Data collection techniques refer to procedures, actions or specific fieldwork techniques or tools that are used to collect data to answer research questions. There are various data collection techniques which include using available information, observing, Interviewing, administering written questionnaires and the use of focus groups among others. This study in-depth interviews which consisted of open ended questions. According to Neuman (2014:217) an interview is a method of data collection that involves researchers seeking open ended answers related to a number of questions, topic areas or themes.

This method was selected for the study because interviews allowed the researcher to elicit for in-depth accounts from the participants (Barbour, 2014:113). This is unlike in quantitative approaches where the onus lies with the researcher to craft the instrument so that the maximum amount of precise information can be collected from the respondent as efficient as possible. This means that failure to come up with a good instrument can cause wrong data to be collected. The interview technique allowed the researcher to systematically collect information about the objects of study (people, objects, phenomena) and about the settings in which they occur as this helped in the analysis of data (Chaleunvong, 2009). Interviews were conducted at Sanganayi/Hlanganayi Tourism Expo tourism where a number of tourism players from all regions in Zimbabwe meet and share notes with each other. This expo started on the 14th of June 2016 to the 18th of June 2016. The study managed to capture the diverse views from industry players who the researcher

thought would provide rich information to the study which helped to increase the validity of the study.

The researcher first selected the participants using the criteria explained under the sampling strategy. Appointments were made with those players who indicated that they wanted to be involved in the study. The interviews were audio recorded using an audio recorder. Before conducting the interview the researcher sought for the participants consent to be recorded. Participants were given an option to refuse to take part in the study when they felt that they were not comfortable to be recorded. The interviews were conducted within a period of four (4) days since the players were at a single place. The duration of the interviews ranged from 20 minutes to 1 and half hours.

4.9 DEVELOPMENT OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The study used a semi structured interview guide which was guided by the key variables of the study that is innovation and tourism competitiveness. Some of the questions on innovation were informed by Macerinskiene and Mikaliuniene (2014:237) who used interviews to study the Peculiarities of tourism business in Lithuania. The rest of the questions were formulated in accordance to literature search done in Chapters two (2) and three (3). The interview guide was organised in three sections, namely: Section A comprised of demographic section, with questions concerning the biographical data of the managers of the tourism supply organisations to establish their different characteristics. The aspects which were captured included the following: gender, levels of qualifications, age, occupation, sector, region, and years of work experience. The second section asked participants about their understanding of innovation and tourism competitiveness. The purpose was to establish whether the participants had an idea of the focus of the study. The third section sought for the participants' views concerning determinants that affect tourism competitiveness of Zimbabwe. The question used was: Can you comment on the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. Fourth section gathered the managers' perceptions on the use of innovation as the driver for tourism competitiveness. The following questions were used: What are the innovations being practiced in your organisation and what are the reasons which motivate your organisations to innovate. The last section looked at the strategies that the organisations used to enhance their businesses and the questions included focused on innovation process and the government support. This was done to enable the researcher to recommend an informed strategy. Open ended questions were used which allowed participants the freedom to provide more information for the study. Some questions were used for all the participants though the sequence would differ depending on how the participants presented their answers. Table 4.3 gives a summary of the questions used for the study.

Table 4.3: Interview guide questions

Question number	Question asked
1	What is your understanding of the term destination competitiveness?
2	What makes a destination to be competitive?
3	Comment on the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination
4	What is your understanding of the term innovation?
5	What are the innovations being practiced in your organisation?
6	Explain the reasons which motivate your organisation to innovate?
7	Describe the innovation process which is used in the organisation
8	What do you think must be done by the government to ensure or encourage tourism players to be innovative?

Source: Author's own compilation

4.10 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Inductive or deductive reasoning can be used to interpret raw data to meaningful information. Not everything that can be counted counts and not everything that counts can be counted (O'leary, 2014:299). This study adopted a qualitative methodology thus posing challenges in the analysis. While there is inherent power in words and images the challenge is working through the options for managing and analysing qualitative data that best preserve richness, yet crystallise meaning (O' Learly, 2014:299). With this observation it meant that the researcher had to think through and choose the right strategy which was not going to compromise the findings of the study. The researcher is required to actively work between creativity and rigour though creativity needs to be managed (O'leary, 2014:304) so as to avoid bias.

For data presentation, the researcher used tables and to present findings. Thematic data analysis was used. The study used six (6) stages of data analysis and interpretation according to Creswell (2014:196-200). The stages are as follows:

Step 1: Organise and prepare data for analysis

This included the verbatim transcription of data which was done by the researcher. The transcribed data was typed by a research assistant. The researcher then organised typed data into Microsoft word documents and formatted the word documents - so that the data could be imported into Nvivo for easy management of data. The data was then cleaned so that clear variables could emerge for easy use on the analysis.

Step 2: Read through all the data

As the researcher was transcribing and organising the data, the data was read through in order for the researcher to be acquainted with the data and obtain a general sense of the information coming out of the data.

Step 3: Coding of the data

The coding process was guided by a data analysis framework see (Table 4.4). The following strategies were used to code the data. Firstly the researcher used grouping auto coding so that responses from the same category can be put together and then analysed to establish emerging themes and patterns. Matrix coding was also used so as to establish the link between cases in their responses. Aspects of analysis which acted as subthemes were developed.

Step 4: Description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis.

Further analysis was done to the aspects to establish the main themes which were emerging from the study. These allocated themes appear as the major findings in the results and were used to create headings in the findings section of this study.

Step 5: Present the results of analysis

A discussion of the findings was done where aspects were used to explain the main themes. It was mostly descriptive and narrative in nature though tables and figures were used to solidify the discussions.

Step 6: Interpretation of the results of the analysis

It involves making meaning of the data. Interpretation of data was done regarding the results. The analysis for interpretation was done by assessing the conclusions which came out of literature search against the results from the empirical data. Meaning was derived from the assessment and this enabled recommendations to be made for the study.

Table 4.4: Analysis framework for the study

Research objectives	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8
To establish the perceptions of tourism Stakeholders' towards the contribution of	X	X	XXX	X	XXX			

Innovation to tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe								
To determine the factors which determine the Competitiveness of Zimbabwe.						XXX		
To develop guidelines to be used by tourism Managers and the government on how to embrace Innovation to improve tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe							X	XXX

Source: Author's own compilation

Table 4.4 is a presentation of the summary of how the data was analysed. The objectives were married to the questions (see Table 4.4) which were used to gather data for the respective objectives. The number of Xs plotted under the questions meant it was a key question for the objective.

4.10.1 Use of Nvivo

The study used Nvivo (a statistical qualitative program) for data analysis. Raw data was typed into Microsoft word documents and formatted into using sub-headings so that it can be imported into Nvivo. The data was then cleaned so that clear variables can emerge for easy use on the analysis. The following strategies were used to code the data. Firstly the researcher used grouping auto coding so that responses from the same category can be put together and then analysed to establish emerging themes and patterns. Matrix coding was also used so as to establish the link between cases for analysis purposes. For data analysis the researcher used a data analysis framework which is presented in Chapter five.

4.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Whatever procedure for collecting data is selected, it should always be examined critically to assess the extent to which it is likely to be reliable and valid (Bell, 2010). Reliability is defined as the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions. According to Barbie (2010:150), there are a number of devices for checking reliability in scales and tests:

- Test-retest – administering the same test sometime after the first.
- Alternate forms method – equivalent versions of the same items are given and results are compared

- Split half method – items in tests are split into two matched halves and scores then collected.

For this study, the researcher used the test – retest method during question wording and piloting of the questions for the interview schedule. Before administering the questions for pilot testing the researcher consulted the supervisors of this study and colleagues at academic institutions for content validity and clarity of questions whether they were not ambiguous. Pilot testing was first done at Chinhoyi University Hotel with two participants. Questions which were likely to be interpreted differently were corrected so as to reduce a lot of subjectivity in the study. The test was meant to evaluate the level to which the questions would be understandable and relevant to the study. The pilot study also enabled the researcher to test the difficulties that the respondents could face and relevant adjustments were made. Clarity of questions was brought to maximum during this exercise.

Validity usually tells whether an item or instrument describes what it is supposed to measure or describe (Barbie, 2010:153). Interviews were audio recorded and the interviewer encoded by listening to the audios and transcribed the data. An independent person was given to type and the researcher had to go through again doing a random check to cross check if what has been captured was tallying with what has been said by participants. The researcher also engaged a neutral person to do a random check of five of the captured interviews.

Bell (2010) proposed the rough and ready method as another method which can be used to test for validity in qualitative studies. This entails telling other people (colleagues, pilot respondents, fellow students) what the researcher is trying to find out or to measure and ask them whether the questions and items available are likely to do the job effectively. The researcher conducted the rough and ready method with staff members at two Universities and fellow researchers to check whether the interview schedule was capturing the data required for the study.

During the conduct of the research, the researcher used the investigator triangulation method to cross check results. Stake (1995:114) said that triangulation includes, “data triangulation (from other sources), investigator triangulation (use of observers), methodological triangulation (using multiple sample types and sources).” Data triangulation involves the use of more than one method of collecting data to produce reliable findings (Bell, 2010). Key informants were used to triangulate data received from the tourism players.

4.12 ETHICS OBSERVED

In Social Sciences research ethics are integral to the authenticity of any study thus it is a key component. Barbie (2010:64) refers research ethics as the general agreements shared by researchers about what is proper and improper of scientific inquiry. In other words it is all about defining the moral principles governing or influencing conduct of the study. There are several reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research. One of the reasons of following ethical guidelines can be, to unintentionally enrich the analytic breath of research study (Silverman, 2010:172). Barbie (2010:84) is also of the opinion that measurement decisions can sometimes be judged by ethical standards thus bringing how powerful ethical considerations are to a study. Resnik (2015) also feels that norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth and avoidance of error. While there are many guiding principles on research ethics, Cooper and Schindler (2011); (Silverman, 2010:178) proposed the following to be the most prominent ones: honest research, obtaining informed consent, voluntary participation and protection of research participants.

Creswell (2013:57) is of the opinion that prior to conducting a study it is necessary to gather college or university approval from the institution's review board for data collection involved in the study. This was observed in this research as the study passed through the Ethics Committee of North West University and was given an ethical number and approval to proceed as the study did not contain information which could harm individuals. However, Silverman (2010:178) feels that good ethical practice means that one should think through the appropriateness of each ethical principle to the precise context of one's research. With that assertion in mind the following ethical principles were observed by the researcher for this study:

4.12.1 Informed consent

The researcher observed the 'Informed consent' and free from harm principles. According to Barbie (2007:66) informed consent is a norm in which subjects base their voluntary participation in research projects on a full understanding of the possible risks involved. The researcher also ensured freedom from harm by not exposing participants to undue risk like embarrassment and ridicule, as supported by Gay *et al.* (2006). In this study the participants were given the freedom to choose whether they wanted to be part of the study. Appointments were booked for interviews with participants; this was done so as to observe the ethics of research. Before appointments were booked the researcher made sure that purpose of the study was disclosed to the participants. Creswell (2013:57) supports this notion by saying disclosing the purpose of the study to the participants helps them to make informed decisions.

4.12.2 Respect for anonymity and confidentiality

The researcher also observed the rights of the research participants to be anonymous and their information to be strictly confidential. The issue of confidentiality and anonymity is closely connected with the rights of beneficence, respect for the dignity and fidelity. Barbie (2007:67) suggests that anonymity is achieved in a research project when neither the researchers nor the readers of the findings can identify a given response with a given respondent. On the other hand the author defined confidentiality as a situation when the researcher can identify a given person's responses but promises not to do so publicly (Barbie, 2007:67). In this study the subjects' identity were not be linked with personal responses. Names were withheld such that instead of using name of participants the researcher used the sectors from which the participants were representing.

4.12.3 Respect for privacy

The researcher ensured that the information attained from research participants was kept private and for academic purposes only by not publishing the information in other public domains other than the intended purpose. Privacy is the freedom an individual has to determine the time, extent, and general circumstances under which private information will be shared with or withheld from others (Marianna, 2011). Kelman (cited by Marianna, 2011), believes that an invasion of privacy happens when private information such as beliefs, attitudes, opinions and records, is shared with others, without the patient's knowledge or consent.

4.12.4 Voluntary participation

The study also observed the ethical principle of voluntary participation. Participants were not forced into participating but were given the option to choose whether they felt they needed to take part in the study. The researcher explained the goal of the study and the problem which the study seeks to address before getting the consent of the participants.

4.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The methodological framework of the study was presented in this chapter. The study was guided by the interpretivist philosophy. The fact that the focus was on acquiring views of participants it took a qualitative stance which enabled the researcher to extract themes emerging from the data. Cross sectional case research design was used and in-depth interviews were employed to a sample of eighteen (18) participants. Nvivo was used for data management and use of this

computer aided data analysis system added richness in the breadth and depth of the analysis of the study.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in chapter one the goal of the study was to provide a critical assessment of the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwean tourism industry. Chapter Four laid the foundational ground work of how empirical data was structured and collected. It adopted an interpretative philosophical stance to analyse different views of stakeholders in the tourism industry about the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness. In doing this, stakeholders' understanding of innovation and its link to tourism competitiveness from a developing country context were brought out as these two aspects are critical in policy formulation and implementation by entrepreneurs and managers. Therefore, the findings of the study are expected to contribute to the decision making process as well as adding new knowledge on effective and efficient utilisation of innovation in the Zimbabwean tourism industry. When fully capitalised this could lead to the industry's profitability, growth and a positive contribution to economic growth and job creation.

The presentation of findings and inferences are as follows:

- Presentation of demographic information
- Stakeholders' understanding of innovation
- Stakeholder's understanding of tourism competitiveness
- Determinants that affect tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe
- Views of stakeholders on how innovation can contribute to tourism competitiveness:
 - Motivating factors for innovation
 - Innovation types commonly used by stakeholders studied
 - Views of stakeholders on government's support mechanism for innovation

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

This section is a presentation of the descriptive data of the study to explain contents of Table 5.1.

5.2.1 Demographic data

The presentation of demographic data of study participants is presented in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Demographic data of the study participants

Participant number	Gender	Highest qualification level	Age range	Occupation	Sector	Region	Years of work experience in years
1	Male	HND	25-30	Manager	Accommodation	Kadoma	3
2	Female	Diploma	30-35	Supervisor	Travel trade	Harare	4
3	Male	Degree	50-55	Manager	Safari Operations	Vic Falls	25
4	Male	HND	35-40	Manager	Accommodation	Bulawayo	5
5	Male	Diploma	40-45	Supervisor	Safari Operations	Harare	11
6	Female	Diploma in Education	55-60	Lodge owner	Entrepreneur/ Accommodation	Bulawayo	2
7	Male	Degree	35-40	Manager	Travel trade	Vic Falls	3
8	Male	Masters	40-45	Manager	Safari Operations	Vic Falls	11
9	Female	Diploma	20-25	Supervisor	Travel trade	Vic Falls	2
10	Male	Diploma	65-70	Officer ZCT	Key informant	Harare	40
11	Male	Masters	50-55	Officer ZTA	Key informant	Harare	35
12	Female	Diploma in education	55-60	Lodge owner	Entrepreneur/ Accommodation	Bulawayo	4
13	Female	HND	40-45	Manager	Accommodation	Harare	17
14	Female	Masters	45-50	Manager	Accommodation	Mutare	8
15	Female	Masters	30-35	Manager	Accommodation	Chinhoyi	12
16	Male	Masters	40-45	Tour operator Owner	Entrepreneur/Travel trade	Harare	9
17	Male	Degree	30-35	Manager	Travel trade	Vic Falls	3
18	Female	Diploma	25-30	Supervisor	Travel trade	Vic Falls	3

Source: Author's own compilation

The gender was balanced as there were (8) (44%) female and (10) (56%) male study participants. This enabled a fair assessment of innovation from both genders. This showed a balanced work acceptance amongst the participants in the study. The level of qualification ranged from a Diploma (55%) to a Master's degree (28%) and (17%) of the study participants had obtained first degrees. This showed that the respondents had the intellectual capacity of taking part in the study as they were backed by their educational background. The sectors in which the participants operated from, were captured to allow a cross sectional representation. The sectors represented were grouped as follows: the travel trade, accommodation, safari operators, entrepreneurs and public sector which was represented by views from key informants. A representation of all the sectors in the tourism industry also helped to have a wide base of opinions from the people in the industry since the tourism industry is a multifaceted industry. Maráková and Medveďová (2016:34) are of the opinion that application of innovation in tourism destinations in comparison with the application of innovation in tourism businesses is much more difficult because of the fragmentation of a large number of stakeholders in tourism destinations. Thus it justifies the need of having various stakeholders to participate in order to promote the competitiveness of the destination.

In addition the respondents' years of work were also sought for to establish whether there is a link between the time one is in the industry and the urge to innovate. The long serving member had forty (40) years of experience and the lowest serving member had two years of work experience. Age of the respondents was also sought for. The rationale of establishing the age of the participants was to establish if age had an influence on how the participants viewed innovation. The ages were varied as the youngest participant was found in the 20-25 years age group. The results revealed that the majority of the participants were congested in the age group of 30-45 years which the working class. On the other hand the regions where the participants come from were sought for to establish whether there was a link between type of innovations used by organisations and the regions they are situated in. Profession had to be captured because some of the participants by virtue of the size of their organisations were referred to as supervisors though their role was to manage the organisations. Entrepreneurs were used to confirm literature assertions which states that entrepreneurship is associated with innovation. Chief executives were used as key informants representing the opinions of the public sector.

5.3 RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY- A CROSS CASE ANALYSIS

This section is a presentation of the description and discussion of findings from the interviews that were conducted with 18 participants from different tourism sectors in Zimbabwe on innovation and tourism competitiveness. A cross case analysis approach was used. The section comprises of four (4) key sections which are: the analysis of the respondents' understanding of innovation and competitiveness; determinants affecting the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination and the views of the study participants on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness. To address the objective on the views of the stakeholders on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness the following sub-sections; motivating factors for innovation, innovation types commonly used by study participants and the stakeholders' views of government support mechanism for innovation were used to guide the analysis.

5.3.1 Participants' understanding of innovation

The segment is a representation and analysis of the participants' understanding of innovation. In this study the participants' understanding of innovation was translated to mean the participants' use of innovation for tourism competitiveness. The assumption was that if the participants had a better understanding of innovation they would definitely have an urge to venture into innovation. To establish the participants understanding of innovation the following question was asked to participants: What is your understanding of the term innovation?

The word frequency analysis technique was used to establish words participants used when explaining what innovation meant to them. Themes were established from these key words which appeared most in the study. Figure 5.1 below is a representation of the top fifty (50) frequently used words used by participants to explain their understanding of the innovation concept.

5.3.1.1.1 Aspect 1: Newness

The word new was one of the key words which was used by study participants to explain their understanding of innovation and it was mentioned twenty (20) times by seven participants (1, 3, 5, 9, 13, 14 and 15) in explaining their understanding of innovation. Participant 1 emphasised the understanding of innovation by saying that, “innovation is to come up with something new on the planet”. In addition Participant 9 added that innovation is “creating something new, coming up with new ideas, processes, services and products. That’s all I can say”.

The finding by the participants is in line with Marakova and Medvedová (2016:2) who also view innovation as creativity which applied to the production of new ideas, new approaches and inventions. Similarly, Zbigniew (2015:489) posits that innovation is the finding of a new solution for issues within a company, region or other entity. Innovation is associated with the newness in the product, service, processes, idea or system. OECD (2010) emphasises the issue of implementation for any idea to be called an innovation. In support Booyens and Rogerson (2017:50) point out that innovation involves the application of new and creative ideas and the actual implementation of inventions and improvements. Mei *et al.* (2013:521) also suggest that innovation needs to have some degree of newness, but a product or process is not necessarily an innovation if it is simply new and does not have an impact to the users. In other words there must be some change to be felt by the intended users when the innovation is introduced. Boycheva (2017:138) then concluded that primarily innovation is the application of new knowledge to the production of goods and services.

Further analysis using a cross sectional analysis, participants from the Accommodation sector participants 1, 4, 13, 14 and 15 emerged to be the ones who understood innovation by associating it with creativity and creation of new products. This finding is contrary to the finding by (Gyurácz-Németh *et al.*, 2013:651) who posit that in hotels which falls under the accommodation sector there are more signs of incremental innovations instead of radical type of innovations. This could be attributed to what Pivčević and Praničević (cited by Čivre *et al.*, 2015:315) found in their empirical study that a high percentage of hotels tend to imitate and copy innovations introduced by competitors. However, when participants were further probed about the types of innovations they were using to promote tourism competitiveness it appears that there was no link between their understanding of innovation and the types of innovations which were being implemented in their organisations. It emerged that they are using incremental innovations to improve competitiveness. Nevertheless, Macerinskiene and Mikaliuniene (2014:253) reiterate that there is a strong likelihood that failure to understand the real meaning of innovations can result in tourism business development being referred to as ‘innovative’ without any involvement of any

innovations. Thus it is important for stakeholders to have a clear understanding of what innovation entails to avoid such misconceptions.

5.3.1.1.2 Aspect 2: Unique offering

In addition to the term “new” mentioned by study participants, the word ‘unique’ also emerged to be one of the terms used to describe innovation. The two terms appear to be similar but different in that for something to be unique must either be new or an improvement of something to give the product some uniqueness. The word appeared ten (10) times when participants were defining the term innovation. The participants associated innovation with the word ‘unique’ which was used to refer to unique ‘ideas, processes, systems and products’ to meet the needs of the clients. In the study innovation was defined by participants 1, 10,13,17,11 and 15 as coming up with something unique that had never been introduced previously. There is an element of observation or scouting of what other competitors are offering and try to be innovative enough to offer something that has never been offered and different from competitors. This finding is in line with (Kanagal, 2015:5) who posit that innovation means ‘something different’ that is not seen or experienced or understood earlier by the customer/consumer. In addition the same author states that ‘creativity’ would include building ‘newness’ and/or ‘differences’ by extending the known to the unknown and connecting things from among the known (Kanagal, 2015:4). Study participants feel that there is a need to always offer something unique that will attract customers because competition has become stiff. Participant one (1) said “we are offering accommodation with nice beds and nice food but for us to be innovative we need to come up with things that make us unique and so special”, This statement suggests that the participant is acknowledging that providing quality services and products is not enough to warrant a competitive advantage but there is need for innovation to be unique from others.

More effort is needed to come up with innovative ideas that are implemented to provide an edge that is completely unique from everyone else. Participant’ one (1) made an observation that something can be different but not responsive to the needs of clients or different and responsive. It is not about being stagnant at one point but there is need to move forward as rightfully said by participant ten (10) who indicated that it is all about continuously thinking about unique ideas to counter competition. This supports the view of Booyens and Rogerson (2017:58) who established that organisations need to innovate continually to maintain their market position or face pressure to remain competitive.

5.3.1.1.3 Aspect 3: Improvement and value addition

Seven (7) study participants viewed innovation from an improvement value addition perspective. Participant six (6) was of the opinion that innovation is not only about coming up with new products but improvements to an existing product or service can also constitute an innovation. The results are in line with (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:50) who argue that innovation in tourism is usually incremental, as it derives from everyday practices and interactions, and only rarely is driven by formalised internal research and development. A quote by Tom Freston concludes this idea by stating that “Innovation is taking two things that already exist and putting them together in a new way”. To strengthen the above thinking participants 6, 8 and 4 included the dimension of value addition to their definition. Participants eight (8) and four (4) defined innovation as value addition using the following wording; “Innovation is about adding value to what you already have so that you satisfy your customers” and “Well innovation to me is about adding value to the product, service process or system by means of adding a differentiator.”

The views of these participants clearly show that value addition is crucial when thinking of an innovation. Innovation should be a well thought through activity in order to establish what will be in it for the customer to be enticed by the innovation, finding ways of increasing the buying power and at the same time finding new effective ways for creating added value for customers (Macerinskiene & Mikaliuniene, 2014:231). Participant eleven (11) acknowledged the fact that if there is value addition this can give an organisation a competitive edge over others because of a differentiating factor which would have been added to the tourism product of the organisation.

5.3.1.2 Theme 2: Views on the contribution of innovation to business

As indicated in the introduction of the section the second major theme which emerged from the study was the contribution of innovation to business which is coming in the form of functions of innovation. The key functions which were frequently mentioned by study participants were: growth of a business and the marketing function.

5.3.1.2.1 Aspect 1: Growth of business

Four of the study participants used several responses to describe innovation and all seemed to be pointing to the growth of an organisation. This finding supports Čivire, Gomezelj and Omerzel (2015:314) who purport that in dealing with the turbulent external environment in today’s dynamic global market, firms have to innovate to achieve long-term success and performance. In addition

Gyurácz-Németh *et al.* (2013:651) hold the view that there is no company which can survive in this changing environment without being able to innovate from time to time.

In this category productivity emerged to be the key term as it appeared three (3) times and mentioned by participants 2 and 3. These participants viewed innovation as an enhancer of productivity. Participant three (3) defined innovation as follows: Innovation is to better up productivity and upper sales in the organisation. Similarly, Participant 2 understood innovation to be an enhancer of productivity. This finding supports Crépon, Duguet, and Mairesse (1998) in (Čivré *et al.*, 2015:314) who posit that firms invest in research (and innovation) not only to improve innovation activities but also, because of the contribution of such efforts to firm productivity and, consequently, to firm performance.

Furthermore, Participant 1 said, “So innovation is coming up with new ideas that embrace your business and that makes you grow to become more stable”. This shows that innovation makes an organisation grow and brings stability to an organisation. From the participants definitions innovation featured as something very significant to the development and growth of an organisation or business. This finding corresponds with Booyen and Rogerson (2017:57) who established that there is a positive, statistically significant relationship between innovation and firm survival.

5.3.1.2.2 Aspect 2: Marketing

Another sub theme which came out of the study to support the theme of functionality was the issue of marketing which was mentioned by Participants 8, 7, 12, 13, 14 and 16. These participants understood innovation as a way of satisfying customers by producing products which attract their attention. To support this finding participant 12 said, “Innovation is producing something which entice the guests”. In addition Participant 16 talks of innovation being a helper in building a good brand for the organisation.

Lastly in this section Participant 7 understood innovation from a dimension of diversification. Above all Participant 14 indicated that innovation is done for an organisation to get a competitive edge over others. These dimensions discussed above show that participants derive their understanding of terms from how they view the concept. Equally important to this sub theme is that two (2) of the entrepreneurs who participated in the study associated their understanding innovation with attracting customers by building a strong brand. The finding supports Gyurácz-Németh, Friedrich and Clarke (2013:643) who indicate that innovation raises attention, helps positioning, brand recognition and differentiation with the aim of satisfying customers.

5.3.2 Respondents' understanding of the term competitiveness

This part of the study aimed at establishing the respondents' understanding of the term tourism competitiveness. The question which was used was as follows: what is your understanding of the term tourism competitiveness? The rationale of putting this question was to establish the epistemological footing of the participants on the issue of tourism/destination competitiveness. Key concepts were identified and sub themes were established from the key concepts given by the participants. Several responses were given by the respondents as illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Definitions of competitiveness according to the participants' understanding

Interview No	Sector	Key concepts of definition given	Sub-themes
1	Accommodation	Interaction of players and viability of a business	Interaction and economic value
14	Accommodation	Ability to produce and deliver products to target markets	Products
13	Accommodation	The attractiveness of a destination when it surpasses that of competing destinations.	Attractiveness and competitive advantage
15	Accommodation	Focusses on the why part of the destination	Reason for choice
4	Accommodation	It is about having friendly people giving a destination an edge over others	Competitive edge
3	Safari	The advantage that a destination has over Competitors	Competitive edge
5	Safari	Destination has an upper edge because of the attractiveness of its attractions, facilities, activities and others	Competitive edge and attractiveness
8	Safari	Destination has a competitive edge with respect to amenities, attractions, access, ancillary services, activities	Competitive advantage
10	Key informants	When a destination compares favourably with others	Comparative advantage
11	Key informants	What sets a destination apart from others	Uniqueness
16	Entrepreneurs	Unique products that make a destination to Tourists	Uniqueness
6	Entrepreneur	End service, how product is competing with others	Comparative advantage

12	Entrepreneur	Producing services that compete with others	Services and comparative advantage
17	Travel trade	Unique offerings used to attract tourist	Uniqueness
18	Travel trade	Differences in prices as well as quality of products offered at a destination to compete with others	Price and products
9	Travel trade	A destination when it has a lot of activities and services as compared to others	Services and comparative advantage
7	Travel trade	Destination is about appeal, activities, proper pricing of the destination products	Attractiveness and pricing
2	Travel trade	It is about being competent in the market and how competent are we putting towards the Market	Competitive advantage

Source: Authors own compilation

Different perspectives were presented which gave an indication that the players' approach to destination competitiveness is determined by his or her understanding of the term. The following themes were identified from the interviews: comparative and the competitive advantage of products and services and economic value of the destination.

5.3.2.1 Theme: Comparative and the competitive advantage of products and services

Comparative and competitive advantage of products and services emerged to be the key finding in this section. Different opinions though related were presented by the study participants. Close analysis indicates that eleven (11) of the participants viewed destination competitiveness from the perspective of the ability of a destination to be leading other countries in terms of unique products, services, amenities. Destination competitiveness is explained by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) to be based on the comparative and the competitive advantage of the destination. This means that competitiveness cannot be attained without the existence of other players to compete with as rightfully said by participants 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15 and 16. Participants two (2), twelve (12), sixteen (16) and ten (10) had additional opinions to this view. Participant two (2) stated that: "you are looking at how competitive other players are in that destination." Participant ten (10) added to this by saying: "Destination competitiveness to me it includes that we have a product in the form of a destination that compares favourably with others in the vicinity region and even in the world that is it is a sought after product where people would want to come and experience their holidays so that they can share with their families when they go back home." In

addition Participant 12 said: “Oh it is about producing services which compete with other destinations. If I am to clarify is to make sure that the product you are providing is up to scratch to the expected standards. The rooms must be looking quite appealing to the eyes of the customers”. Lastly Participant 16 said: “In brief it is those unique products which make the destination appeal to tourists more as compared to other destinations in the same region. These unique products might not be necessarily the natural attractions but other products which the stakeholders come up with to make the destination competitive”.

The participants indicated that products being offered should be unique such that a destination becomes more appealing to tourists and compares favourably than other destinations. The result supports findings by Du Plessis *et al.* (2015;11) who postulate that although South Africa’s natural resources are unique and attract tourists, other attributes should also form part of the marketing campaign. In addition Participant twelve (12) stressed that competitiveness means how products or services rank when compared to similar products being offered by others. Therefore, if a product ranks better in the minds of the clients than the rest then a destination is very competitive.

What is highlighted here is the fact that for an organisation to assume the position of a leading destination amongst other destinations, the destination must produce products which out compete destination with similar products. The participants’ understanding of destination competitiveness is in line with the definition which was proposed by Dwyer and Kim (2003:375) who defines destination competitiveness as the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of the tourism experience considered being important by tourists.

Participant sixteen (16) indicated that “In brief it is those unique products which make the destination appeal to tourists more as compared to other destinations in the same region. The finding supports results by Marakova and Medvedová (2016:1) who postulate that it is now a prerequisite for success in tourism to offer new, unique products to help tourism destinations, as well as the individual providers of services, who should be able to differentiate themselves from the competition. Emphasis is also made to the ability of the products of services to appeal to the target market. It was also stressed that it is important to create a place that is appealing to the eyes for it to be regarded as competitive. However, there is an expected standard within the industry according to participant twelve (12) and therefore there is a need to always meet this expected standard for any business to be regarded as competitive. The products being provided should be of a very high quality. Product quality was also stressed as important as part of destination competitiveness. This finding supports Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008:301) who posit

that competitive advantage can be achieved if the overall appeal of a tourism destination is superior to alternative destinations with similar target market segments.

This result also correlates with Dwyer (2010) who view tourism competitiveness from the perspective of delivering goods and services that perform better than other destinations on aspects of the tourism experience that are important to tourists. The same author emphasises the fact that there is need for all stakeholders to know how destination competitiveness is changing and why these changes are occurring.

5.3.2.2. Theme 2: Economic value of the destination

Participants 1, 7, 14 and 18 viewed destination competitiveness from a perspective of the economic value of the destination. To bring out the theme, price and quality were referred to when study participants were defining destination competitiveness. Participant 14 said “Destination Competitiveness refers to the ability of a destination to produce appropriate tourism products to the target market and delivering them in such a way that leads to consumer satisfaction resulting in sustained economic benefits to the host destination and its society”. Participant fourteen (14) indicated that it is not about just producing products at the destination but there is need to identify the target market and find innovative ways of delivering the products to customers so that they get satisfied with the price and quality that equals value for money. This finding also supports Du Plessis, Saayman & Van der Merwe (2015:11) who hold the view that “product owners must strive to be price competitive and deliver a value-for-money experience, which means delivering excellent service at good prices”. Value of the destination is evaluated by the customers who are targeted for the product.

In the same way Participant eighteen (18) indicated that destination competitiveness “is a concept that includes the differences in pricing in the tourists’ destination as well as the quality of the products in the different tourist destination”. However, Participant seven (7) had a strong conviction that price is crucial as it can chase away visitors if not regulated. This finding concurs with Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) who believe that what makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination. Hong (2008:45) is of the opinion that it is not about the issue of price only but it is also about the ability of a destination to integrate and deliver tourism experiences including value added goods and services considered to be important by tourists which sustain resources while maintaining market position relative to other destinations.

Participant one (1) also brought in the dimension of viability of individual business as compared to the other businesses. The participant had this to say to support the finding, “Is their business viable and is the competition at the destination fierce or there is no competition where there is only one big player who is dominant at that destination or there are many other players who are competing within each other”. Viability is linked to competitiveness of the organisation so as to bring tourism competitiveness. It is pointless to engage in a business venture which does not bring economic benefits to the destination.

5.3.3 Determinants that influence tourism competitiveness of Zimbabwe

Participants were asked about the determinants which impact the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. Further probing was done to establish how the participants were using innovation to improve the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. The participants singled out the following determinants to be the crucial determinants which gives or kills the competitiveness of Zimbabwe. The following question was the main question used to gather data to answer this objective though probing questions were also used: May you please comment on factors that affect the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination.

The following are the themes which were singled out by study participants to be contributing factors of destination competitiveness in Zimbabwe: 1 economic environment at the destination, 2 political will and 3 a strong base of attractions which act as pull factors, 4 importance and maintenance of tourism infrastructure, 5 hospitality and ambience of the destination and lastly 6 accessibility were mentioned as important factors in determining the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. However, it is important to note that participants did not necessarily focussed on factors that contribute positively to tourism competitiveness but also factors that hindered the competitive advantage of the country. Amongst the factors mentioned three of the determinants were negative, one positive and two were indifferent.

5.3.3.1 Theme 1: Economic environment

In the study Participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 16 and 18, considered the economic environment as the key reason for the negative impact towards the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. Several factors linked to economic environment were referred to by participants among them were liquidity, unemployment and resources. The economic challenges facing Zimbabwe continue to be stressed by Participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 16 and 18, as the main challenge facing the tourism sector. Participant three (3) commented that “Economic challenges we are facing as a country. If we look at Zimbabwe as a country we can talk of liquidity challenges we

are facing, high rate of unemployment, people might want to improve on the facilities or standards they are offering but it might not be possible because they do not have the resource”.

The unstable economic environment has impacted negatively on the business of operators in the Zimbabwean tourism industry. Liquidity crisis also appeared to be crippling the business for operators. Participant nine (9) said this with concern, “However on a sad note finance is crippling all this. Some of our attractions are no longer in good shape the likes of Hot springs in Manicaland”. Lack of the financial resource has negatively affected Zimbabwe as a destination from becoming competitive. Indeed this confirms ZTA (2016:16) who reiterate that the on-going cash crisis continue to affect the tourism sector as both domestic and international tourists find it difficult to access cash for use in the country as banks were imposing cash withdrawal limits.

Expressed as another major concern was the issue of foreign exchange and dollarization of the currency. The currency in Zimbabwe continues to change and according to Participant eighteen (18) this is an indication of economic instability. This challenge has made it difficult to do business that is profitable in Zimbabwe. This instability has also impacted on the number of tourists entering Zimbabwe. “The constant change in currency is a sign of economic instability as well as the political instability”. This has made it impossible for the operators particularly the Safari operators to be profitable in their business as they rely much on foreign visitors.

The issue dollarisation has impacted negatively on the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination and has made products and services to be more expensive when comparing with other regional destinations. This is specifically mentioned by Participants eight (8) and ten respectively. “Definitely definitely aah due to the devaluation of the rand and us using the US dollars you come to realise that we are now three times more expensive as a destination. It’s now easier to sell Mauritius or Dubai for Southern African countries as compared to Zimbabwe because of the rating structure that we have. We are becoming a very expensive destination so that has affected our volumes as a result we have basically lost the regional market” and “The competitiveness of Zimbabwe can be stretched to before dollarisation and after dollarisation. If I may to comment before dollarisation we were using our own currency despite the very high interest rates were prevailing in the country and the high inflation rates prevailing at that time. When we compare with the US dollar at that moment. The people with US dollar were at an advantage in other words it was still competitive and affordable to visit”. This finding is in keeping with Zhou (2016:10) who established that there was consensus that the pricing system used by all service providers is biased in favour of the local customer yet discriminative and unfriendly towards the regional and international patrons making the tourism product to be expensive. This has weakened the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination as rightfully pointed to by participant ten (10). Participant seven (7) even pointed out that because of this poor economic

environment the destination Zimbabwe is “losing out to destinations like South Africa and Botswana” yet it was once “the glory of Africa” as rightfully said by Participant ten (10). This is in contrast to (Nhavira, 2015:264) who established that numbers of tourist arrivals were not affected by inflation as a result of dollarisation. These opinions expressed by the above participants clearly show that Zimbabwe as a destination has the potential to be one of the best destinations, there is something being missed by operators which can resuscitate the tourism industry.

Basically Zimbabwe has lost its competitive edge and continues to lose the regional market due to the aforementioned challenges based on the opinions of the participants. This is in line with Zhou (2016:10) who established that visitors indicated no intention to return to Zimbabwe but intimated that they would rather substitute Zimbabwe with other regional destinations with comparable and superior tourism offerings that are reasonable priced. Therefore, Zimbabwe is levelled as an expensive destination with no competitive advantage. Tourists are now taking their holidays in Zimbabwe’s neighbouring countries like South Africa, Botswana and Mozambique where they are able to stretch their budgets because of the exchange rates differentials between their currencies and local currencies like the Rand, the Pula and the Meticals respectively which is not the case in Zimbabwe (Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017:4). Indeed according to the model of destination competitiveness by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) the global macro environment has a huge bearing on the success of a destination. These economic challenges have dampened progress in terms of upgrading and development of the various tourist attractions to meet the world standard. Nevertheless, Participants 10, 11 and 16 highlighted that innovation is the way to go although these participants still felt that economic environment must be made conducive to allow must be innovation to thrive. Hence it was clear that the factors that support the theme of economic value include: unemployment, liquidity, resources and the most important factor according to the participants, foreign exchange.

5.3.3.2 Theme 2: Political environment

The political environment was also mentioned by participants as an important theme in destination competitive. Zimbabwe has been having political challenges for years and some of the policies which have been put in place have been making it difficult for tourism operators to operate successfully. This has come in the form of travel bans being imposed at tourists generating regions making the destination to be politically unstable. Participant nine (9) said, “Yeah the political climate is not favourable. Of late the politics of the country has been affecting the tourists’ arrivals. Bans were imposed for some countries causing arrivals to drop partially for the western market”. In addition Participant seven (7) highlighted that, “Obviously our economy, it is not stable, political environment is not very conducive but despite that quests are still keen on coming to

Zimbabwe. We are getting more and more enquiries of Zimbabwe”. According to Participant nine (9) the political environment has impacted negatively on tourism business. However, despite these challenges there is a ray of hope according to Participant seven (7) in that there are still more enquiries about Zimbabwe from potential tourist. The question, however is that are these enquiries translating into more business at all. Participant nine (9) begs to differ when he says “Yeah the political climate is not favourable. Of late the politics of the country has been affecting the tourists’ arrivals” The participant further said that some countries have travel bans imposed on them due to the current political environment in Zimbabwe. This finding confirms Mkono (2012:206) who posit that in the last decade, the political and economic antics of Zimbabwe were not favourable and the tourism industry has been struggling causing a drastic drop in arrivals. Similarly Zhou (2016:9) established that the residual memories of orgies of political violence which once occurred in the country have caused the tourism arrivals of the country to go down.

Therefore, the political environment has adversely affected business. This finding is in sync with the findings by ZIMSTAT (2015/16:46) who posit that there is a strong relationship between attitudes developed by visitors and long term prospects of repeat visits. However, Participants 10, 11 and 16 were convinced that innovation can solve some of the challenges being faced by the country. Participant ten (10) said, “I believe that innovation has to be in place to assist us to grow so that we don’t destroy ourselves. Equally important Participants eleven (11) and sixteen (16) had this to say, “Obvious innovation is the answer to competitiveness” and “Innovation is very crucial in every industry, tourism included. Innovation could do a lot to solve our problems”.

The participants were asked some of the innovations they have employed to regain the competitiveness of the country. Participant eleven (11) highlighted that the government has adopted an innovative strategy of ‘Ease of doing business’ trying to encourage business and investors in the country. Meanwhile, some of the participants felt that the issue to deal with political challenges lies with the government as pointed out by participant eleven (11). Participant eleven (11) one of the key informants pointed out that, “Perceptions are changed from within. I strongly believe that aaah if you want to change the way people look at you must change the way you look to them. Over the years we have been looking at outside, blaming and saying that people out there don’t understand us as if they owe us to understand us as a destination. Forcing them to view us in that manner they want will end up being a reality in the sense that they start to believe that that’s what you are. So I say it is within us to change their perceptions about us so we have to sort our house, put it in order in so many aspects. Some of them are very little such that we can deal with them. Participant 11 is bringing out the fact that the power to change lies with the people at the destination. In line with this Litvin (2015:18) is of the opinion that business success is directly affected by political decisions that influence the environments.

5.3.3.3 Theme 3: Attractions and activities as pull factors

Availability of attractions and activities emerged to be another key theme which was pointed out by the participants 1, 3, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 18 in the study. Participants five (5) and eight (8) believe that attractions can give a competitive edge to a destination. This finding supports earlier work by Mirimi, Vengesayi, Kabote and Chikafu (2014:116); Zhou (2016:8) who established that Zimbabwe as a country has a rich biodiversity concentrated in its national parks, heritage sites and prime tourist destinations. In addition the existence of major national parks like Hwange national park has made Zimbabwe to have an advantage over other regional destinations. According to Participants one (1) and eleven Zimbabwe's wildlife resources compares favourably with other countries in Southern Africa. This shows that the destination already has a competitive advantage considering the availability of natural wonders and the wildlife at the national parks. To support this finding the following participants commented on the attractions of Zimbabwe. Participant one (1) said, "Zimbabwe as a destination is very competitive because it is mainly known for its attractions like Victoria Falls, Hwange National Park, there are many attractions in Zimbabwe. Comparing with other southern African countries we are very competitive". Furthermore Participant nine (9) said, "The reason why I said we are competitive is we have good attractions the likes of Victoria Falls, places to see the big five in their national environment and not in zoos. We have Hwange National Park and Mana Pools. In addition our natural heritage of Great Zimbabwe, Matopos and the local culture itself provides a motive for the tourists to come". This automatically makes Zimbabwe to be a better destination with something unique to offer natural heritage and local culture. This also support literature by Vutete and Chigora (2016:29) who reiterate that there was a common agreement between the locals and foreigners on the attractiveness of tourism variables and there is high attractiveness in the culture activities, music played in Zimbabwe and national heritage. The untapped culture of Zimbabweans is also something that can attract more tourists. Participant eleven (11) said, "Our hospitality- the people there have an untapped cultural aspect you find that when you go to the Eastern Highland it's more of cultural tours which is what most guests are looking for. It is actually a trend picking up. We have noticed many French tourists are coming to Zimbabwe because of that aspect". Indeed this result confirms findings by ZTA (2014:6) when culture is considered to be one of the strengths of Zimbabwean tourism and has a potential of boosting tourism growth and development when fully exploited.

Activities were also mentioned as another a factor which can contribute to destination competitiveness. However, according to Participant three (3) when comparing with other regional destinations Zimbabwe as a destination seems to have limited activities to offer. Yet Ritchie and Crouch (2003) advocates that core resources and attractors are instrumental in shaping tourism

competitiveness as pull factors that influence the potential visitors to choose a destination over the other. According to the results of the Visitor Exit Survey (2015/2016:22) it was established that the majority of visitors (82.4%) who visited Victoria Falls had come to the country mainly for holiday and leisure. Similarly, highest proportions of people who visited Hwange, Kariba, Mana Pools, Gonarezhou and Matopos had come to the country mainly for holiday and leisure. An observation was made that participants continue to make reference to known attractions such as Victoria Falls, Hwange National Park and activities such as bungee jumping and water rafting which have since been introduced as innovations in their time. They seem to be running short of innovative ideas to offer in order to improve the competitiveness of the country. Failure to come up with innovative ideas on attractions the destination is likely to be faced with extinction of some attractions thereby reducing the attraction base of the destination. This observation is in line with Mirimi (2013:1370) who posits that visitors are no longer fascinated by viewing Zimbabwe's known tourist resources such as the Victoria Falls, Kariba and Hwange but want something new to augment excitement provided by these attractions.

Participant nine (9) had this to say, however on a sad note finance is crippling all this. Some of our attractions are no longer in good shape the likes of our attractions are no longer in good shape, the likes of Hot springs in Manicaland. Very soon it is going to cease to be the attraction in that place. Finance still emerges to be a crippling factor of innovative ideas. This implies that there is an urgent need to look into this factor as this can continue to weaken the competitiveness of the destination.

5.3.3.4 Theme 4: Importance of maintenance of tourism infrastructure and superstructure

Another theme which emerged from the study is the importance of maintenance of tourism infrastructure and superstructure which were indicated to be important for tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe. The finding confirms results by Du Plessis *et al.* (2015:9) who also established that quality of tourism services is an important factor in determining the competitiveness of a destination. The participants made reference to it as lagging behind which is one of the reasons why the competitiveness of Zimbabwe is ranked low. These results support the latest ranking of the country on tourism infrastructure where it was overall ranked number 106 out of 136 countries (TTCI, 2017). However, on another note the results are contrary to the ranking which was given to quality of tourism infrastructure where it was ranked number 74 out of 136 countries in 2017 (TTCI, 2017). Quality superstructure is needed to complement the availability of attractions and activities at a destination as explicitly stressed by participant thirteen (13). Participant thirteen (13) said, "I think our level of competitiveness is lagging behind. Most of the facilities which have are now tired. They have since built during the Smith era yet tourism

does not want that kind of approach. We need to move with time". The participants revealed that this component of tourism competitiveness is falling short in Zimbabwe. Nothing much has been done as Participants thirteen (13) and ten (10) referred to the product as tired because it has not been refurbished for a long time or innovated for a long time. There has not been much development in terms of the super-structural development. Instead of revamping the facilities some facilities are closing down as indicated by Participant twelve (12) who said, "I have seen that big giants in the industry the likes of African Sun and Rainbow Tourism Group are falling because of they are failing to get money to upgrade their facilities. They have since closed some of the facilities so that they exert effort on the few units they are left with". This is has an effect of reducing the bed space.

From the comments by the participants Zimbabwe as a destination is falling short on created and supported resources. Dwyer *et al.* (2004) advocated that created resources (such as tourism infrastructure, special events, shopping, etc.); and supporting resources (such as general infrastructure, accessibility, service quality are key in building up the competitiveness of a destination. According to Participant one (1) Zimbabwe cannot be compared to other destinations because of the infrastructure that leaves a lot to be desired.

The economic challenges facing Zimbabwe have negatively impacted the building and upgrading of hotels to be at par with other world destinations. According to Participant thirteen (13) most of the buildings were lacking in lustre. Most of the hotels had been built years back and they have not been upgraded to suit the advancement taking place in the world. This finding concurs with (ZTA, 2014:20) who established that whilst efforts have been made to address the demand side of tourism through destination marketing, the supply side has lagged behind because of a tired product. Furthermore (ZTA:20) acknowledges that the lack of maintenance of tourism facilities, poor waste management, limited investments and new products offering has further reduced the destination competitiveness often distracting visitors' experience and mostly damaging the image of Zimbabwe as a destination. This is an indication that availability of attractions and superstructure at a destination is not enough but the state and quality of the facilities are crucial to bring competitiveness to a destination. Zimbabwe is endowed with rich attractions but the state in which the attractions are is destroying its competitiveness.

5.3.3.5 Theme 5: Hospitality and ambience of the destination

The hospitable traits that Zimbabweans have continue to be stressed as an important selling point that should be taken advantage of as a means of attracting more tourists. It cannot be overemphasised that the majority of the participants felt that the hospitable nature of

Zimbabweans is a major tourist attraction. Participants used words such as friendly, happy people, peaceful, security and peace which were then used as to develop the theme of hospitality and ambience of the destination. Participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9 and 11 mentioned that Zimbabwe as a destination is endowed with hospitable people. According to Participant three (3) Zimbabweans are generally friendly and despite the economic and political challenges the nation is facing the citizens continue to be generally happy people. In addition Participant 4 views destination competitiveness from the dimension of using the local people. He says, "For instance a destination with friendly people has a competitive edge over a destination with unfriendly people." To this participant having friendly people at a destination can add to the competitiveness of that destination.

To support the same theme of hospitality Participant five (5) says, "People in Zimbabwe are very peaceful as compared to other regional destination per say". To support the finding Participant three (3) said, "Zimbabweans generally are friendly and peaceful people and maybe the peace in the country that we are not at war like our neighbours. For instance if someone decides to go to Mozambique can opt to come to Zimbabwe because of the prevailing peace in the country. We are also secure as compared to South Africa. Our security is better than South Africans. You are safer in Zimbabwe in terms of personal risk. Also Participant eleven (11) strengthens the theme by saying, "In Zimbabwe we have what we call the peace dividend. It is one of the most peaceful destination aah ummm on the surface of this earth. Then you go to people their hospitality, friendliness nature gives Zimbabwe an upper hand over other destinations". All the participants seemed to concur with the view that Zimbabweans are a very friendly and peaceful people, which is very attractive. Participant three (3) also brought in the issue of peace. Zimbabwe compared to other countries is considered to be peace. However, contrary to this finding Nyaruwata and Runyowa (2017: 6) brought to the attention of both the public and private sector to be concerned as 6.5% of the tourists interviewed on Visitor Exit Survey indicated that they would not return to Zimbabwe as they considered the people unfriendly. This is unlike the character of the Zimbabweans as historically the friendliness of Zimbabwean people has been a major selling point for the country. Muzapu and Sibanda (2016:56); ZTA (2014:20) assert that Zimbabwe has a wonderful asset that cannot be replicated by any other country in the form of its people who are welcoming and friendly. Thus this creates an urgent need of coming up with more innovative ways to retain its competitiveness with regard to this factor.

Participant one (1) even used the term greatest asset referring to the people of Zimbabwe to show that it is an outstanding factor. The friendliness of the citizens as a selling point was also stressed by Participant four (4) when he says "I think our backbone is our people because we don't have much in terms of infrastructure required and we have the natural resources". In the preceding

statement the participant also highlights that Zimbabwe has not much infrastructure development but its hospitable people as a selling point. This might sound as a consoling statement but it is a positive which can be capitalised by Zimbabweans to increase the competitiveness of this destination. Meanwhile participants seem to boost of the positives for the destination they seem to be complacent with these unique selling points and forget that there is need to come up with new ideas to complement the existing selling points. Therefore, there is need for Zimbabwe to take advantage of the plus factors already in its favour and develop new products or employ incremental innovation to augment the existing products.

5.3.3.6 Theme 6: Accessibility of destination

Access emerged as another theme from the study. Key aspects which came out to describe the issue were connectivity, state of the roads and number of police road blocks. However, participants presented mixed views on how accessible Zimbabwe as destination is. Participant 1, 3 and 18 stressed that Zimbabwe is very accessible to international markets. According to these participants the immigration officers were doing a good job and were friendly and welcoming to visitors. Participant one (1) said, “We have nice airports like Victoria Falls airport has been renovated to a state of the art airport so to us we are very accessible by road, by air and our borders provide easy entry”. Likewise, Participant eighteen (18) indicated that access to attractions “are all accessible, we recently improved on accessibility by building and opening another international airport in one of our most popular tourist destination Victoria Falls”. Closer analysis indicates that these participants gave positive responses an indication which portrays their level of patriotism. When juxtaposed with the positions of most of the participants this is more of a positive view than the negative views from most participants about immigration officers. Participants 1 and 18 were happy with services being provided by the immigration officers and were said to be helpful. The same participants highlighted that there are state of the art airports which make it easier for tourist to come and visit the various tourist attractions from anywhere in the world in Zimbabwe. There are also various modes of transport available in Zimbabwe. Interestingly the rail network was not even mentioned by the study participants because it is non-existent due to the economic challenges in Zimbabwe.

Conversely, Participants 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17 shared different views concerning the issue of access. The participants showed their disgruntlement about the state of access which they posited to be one of the factors which was making Zimbabwe to be less competitive. This finding is in line with the results of the study carried by ZIMSTAT (2015/16) where roads were rated poor and very poor by 42.4% of visitors (15.9% being very poor). Similarly, police services were rated poor and very poor by 25.1% of visitors (12.7% being very

poor). Telecommunications (20.4%) taxis (14.6%) and airports (12.5%) were among facilities and services also lowly rated (very poor and poor). Different dimensions of access were highlighted by the participants. Firstly it was access in terms of air connectivity. Participant fourteen (14) posited that, “Zimbabwe is not very accessible especially the areas which are connected by air”. To add on Participant ten (10) to show how serious the problem was, even indicated that “the airlines flying into Zimbabwe have been reduced from 45 airlines to almost nothing”. This implies that there is little activity taking place in terms of visitors flying into the country.

According to Participants ten (10) and fourteen (14) the connectivity is not at the level it is expected to be. When compared to other countries in the region, Zimbabwe’s air network has been lagging behind resulting in it ranking very low in terms of connectivity. Currently, there are limited direct flights from various destinations to Zimbabwe and yet at one point the country had a lot of flights from most destinations. However, Zhou (2016:13) reiterate that industry players in Zimbabwe seem to have limited influence on the crafting of aviation policies which support or lure more airline carriers to address the lack of direct flights leaving the government to play this role.

The lack of direct flights is a challenge in that it makes Zimbabwe a very expensive destination to visit because one has to go via South Africa to get a flight to Zimbabwe. This makes Zimbabwe not a very accessible destination this is expressed by Participant 3 below. Participant three (3) indicated that, “Connectivity of Zimbabwe as a destination. It is okay but it is not as good as what it is with our neighbouring countries like for example someone who wants to visit Zimbabwe say coming from USA, UK, Australia or just say from Europe or USA we have few if any I don’t think we have any direct flights to Zimbabwe from those destinations.” Furthermore Participant five (5) still talked about the issue when he said the “Issue of connectivity is an issue here. No direct flights. People base on flights to South Africa then connect to Zimbabwe. This makes our destination to be very expensive”. Participant thirteen (13) also stressed the terrible state of roads in Zimbabwe. The roads were said to be riddled with pot holes and most roads had never been resurfaced since they were first constructed. When Participant thirteen (13) stressed that most facilities were built in the Smith era he is highlighting that most of the infrastructure had been constructed during the colonial era in Zimbabwe which magnifies the extent to which Zimbabwe as a tourist destination had not progressed to suite modern times. Participant thirteen (13) even went on to say “It reminds me of social media joke which was saying that if you see a road without potholes you need to ask passer-by to confirm whether you are still in Zimbabwe or you got lost”. The extent of the problem has become so grave such that citizens try to lighten the extent of their disappointment by using humour. These sentiments show how passionate the participant is about the country yet he is being let down by the progress at which industry is moving. This finding supports earlier work by Nyaruwata and Runyowa (2017:6) who postulate that the roads in

Zimbabwe are littered with potholes which makes travelling very difficult especially for tourists that prefer self-drives. Furthermore, Zhou (2016:2) posits that variables like infrastructure, human resource capital and accessibility can stifle the competitiveness of a destination. Likewise the finding also supports (ZTA 2014:7) who postulate that lack of adequate and quality transport services (air, road and rail) domestically, regionally and internationally remains a major setback to tourism development in Zimbabwe.

Linked to the issue of access is the high number of police roadblocks which was highlighted as a major challenge for tourists. The roadblocks have become a menace to travellers and delaying them to their destination. Participants 2, 4, 5, 8 and 9 indicated that it has become costly to use road network because the money which is supposed to be spent by tourists on the safari tours was now being spent paying fines on the road. It also becomes expensive for tourist because their journeys are often delayed. Another challenge was these police officers were actually harassing tourists. Some of the road blocks were not sanctioned such that robbers were taking advantage and extorting money from the tourists. The participants even stressed there was a need for the roadblocks to reduce. There was also a need to educate those manning the roadblocks so they become ambassadors so that they portray a better picture of Zimbabwe (Nyaruwata & Runyowa 2017:5). This all is stressed by Participant 8 when he said; "Of course there is a concern on the issue of road blocks especially using the Beitbridge to Harare Rd. Most tourists complain about being harassed by these road blocks. At times you get more than 20 road blocks in that route. We also realised that some of these road blocks are unauthorised and end up looting from tourists. In terms of their numbers we just have to go through our minister to lobby for a reduction in their number. I also feel those who man road blocks must go for training so that they become our ambassadors". This finding is in agreement with Anderson *et al.* (cited by Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017:5) who recorded a total of 20 road blocks between Harare and Victoria Falls on 6th January 2013 when travelling between the capital city and the resort town. In addition (Nyaruwata & Runyowa, 2017:5) indicate that the attitude and practices of the police is therefore contributing to the unpopularity of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.

5.3.4 Motivation for Innovation

To establish the participants views on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness, the participants were asked the following question: What are the factors which motivate your organisation to innovate? Several reasons were mentioned by the participants to be some of the key reasons which motivate their organisations to innovate. However, Gyurácz-Németh *et al.* (2013:647) reiterate that in as much as many hospitality firms recognise the importance of innovation, but there seems not to be clear on how to prepare for developing and introducing the

new services in their organisations. Nevertheless, the following themes emerged to be influential in the study participants’ decisions to innovate. Table 5.2 presents the themes which emerged as factors which motivate organisations’ of the study participants to innovate. The themes which emerged are: 1 customer satisfaction, 2 to be unique, 3 financial gain, 4 sustainability and 5 crises control.

Table 5.3: Motivation for innovation

Participants remarks on the drive for innovation	Theme
<p>Excite our clients It’s all about making sure that we give exciting products to our clients. We also want to offer exciting services to our products which will make them to always choose us as their destination of choice You have to try to innovate and change things so that it keeps on giving interest to those that are interested in it. To satisfy your guests with the unique offering To create a loyal customer base for instance a case of Boma, people always go there because they know how exciting they are I believe innovation is key to make your customers satisfied.</p>	Customer Satisfaction
<p>To add a differentiator to what you giving to your guests so that you cannot be compared with no one To satisfy your guests with the unique offering All I can say is to be different from others and to make money. Another reason is we want to be ourselves and only known for that. All I can say is to be unique and be different from what is being offered by others. To produce unique packages which cater for our guests needs</p>	To be unique
<p>This is all done in the name of getting revenue for the organisation. To add value to the offering to justify prices offered All I can say is to be different from others and to make money Ummm that is obvious we want money and be on top of the situation All this makes us to get more money</p>	Financial gain
<p>For us as an organisation dealing with fauna and flora we are most motivated by finding ways of protecting the environment from further damage We also thrive to see activities which also benefit the local community. Another reason is for us to offer environmentally friendly services to our clients</p>	Sustainability
<p>One of the reasons is deal with crisis for instance we were forced to go for technology because of issue of cash shortage</p>	Crises control

Source: Authors own compilation

5.3.4.1 Theme 1: Satisfaction of customers

The theme of satisfying customers emerged to be the main reason why participants were motivated to innovate in this study as it was mentioned by Participants 1, 3, 7, 10, 11, 13 and 16. They pointed that it is a deliberate main motivator or determinant for innovation for several reasons. Words used by participants to describe the theme of satisfaction of customers were; to excite, creation of interest, added value and loyalty. Amongst the reasons highlighted by participants was the need to excite their clients. Participant one (1) indicated that the major reason is for us to be on top and excite our clients. In addition Participant ten (10) indicated that “you have to try to innovate and change things so that it keeps on giving interest to those that are interested in it”. This study finding concurs with (Gyur  cz-N  meth, 2013:645) who posit that the innovation of tourism products is receiving greater emphasis, as all tourism related products are being renewed which is being driven by the increased needs for satisfaction. Similarly, Macerinskiene and Mikaliuniene (2014:231) reiterate that on-going innovation processes in a wide range of business areas are mostly targeted at finding new and more effective instruments created added value for customers. Thus customers are fundamental when thinking of innovating in an organisation. While exciting customers emerged to be the key drive of innovation in the study participant 8, 11 and 16 reiterated the need to create a loyal customer base. To these participants innovation is only intended for the customers so as to create loyalty amongst these customers. This is in line with (Otterbacher, 2008:340) who also believe that innovation assists in increased loyalty of existing customers. Furthermore, Participants 3, 5, 7, 6, 13 and 14 linked the satisfying of guests to the production of unique offerings. Hence, satisfaction of guests is being linked to the provision of unique offerings. When guests are offered with a unique offering they then become loyal to the organisation as suggested by participant eleven (11) who gave an example of the Boma restaurant. The clients always go to the Boma restaurant because of their unique offering which excites clients. This finding concurs with Booyens and Rogerson (2017:56) who recognise that firms innovate in order to sustain interest in their product and engagement from customers.

5.3.4.2 Theme 2: Need to be unique

The participants further aver that the need to be unique as another core reason which drives the need to innovate amongst them. Participants 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 13 and 14 unanimously agree that the epicentre of innovation is the provision of unique offering to gain a competitive advantage. They are putting emphasis on producing a unique offering in all facets. Participant one (1) stressed that in their organisation the drive for motivation was the constant need to become market innovators whilst others were market laggards in terms of their adoption of new innovation. There was also

the need to always be unique which provides an edge over other competitors and as a result becoming a selling point to customers and for new business. Therefore, the drive is to set one's business apart from the rest as a competitive edge. Participants fourteen (14) and thirteen (13) had this to say, "The desire to be unique and profitable" and "We want to provide a unique product which cannot be copied by other organisations and always want set pace for others".

The whole essence of innovating is about getting on top of the situation and gain a superior market share over competitors. There is also a sense of pride in becoming far ahead of others in the same business as proven by Participant thirteen (13). This sounds normal as (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:55) postulate that the motivation in terms of enhancing market position (and share) is usually a response to strong competition.

5.3.4.3 Theme 3: Financial Gain

Participants 1, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13 and 14 overwhelmingly regarded the need for a financial gain to be another reason why their organisations innovate. Maravić, Križaj and Lesjak (2015:52) are of the opinion that successful introduction of innovation for tourism organisations increases the value of the tourism product or experience, and also represents profitability for the organisation in a competitive market. Participant thirteen (13) posited that the bottom line for them to innovate was to get more revenue for their organisations. This indicates that the driving force behind innovation is to have a financial gain. Similarly, Participant one (1) indicated that "The major reason is for us to be on top and excite our clients. We always thrive to bring new things on the market so that others follow. This is all done in the name of getting revenue for the organisation".

Participant one (1) stated that organisations produce unique offerings to excite guests but above all a financial gain is expected from the offering. This finding supports the Booyens and Rogerson (2017:56) who hold the view that enhancing efficiency and productivity towards improving profitability were identified as core innovation motivators in their study as well. They went to say that enhancing efficiency and productivity is linked to cutting costs, optimising operations, increasing visitor numbers, maximising or generating additional revenue, and looking for ways to "do things better," and this forms the basis for innovation.

Participant eleven (11) also shared the same view with Participants one (1) and seven (7) who view that need for a financial gain is the end result of all when he said Ummm that is obvious we want money and be on top of the situation. Participant eleven (11) brought in another dimension of adding value to the offering; this means that the unique offering must be backed by value addition in-order to realise a financial gain from the innovation. Participant ten (10) mentioned another dimension of going concern. Without innovation a business ceases to exist. There is need

for continuity. This is evidenced when the participant said; “Innovation is the essence of future business. If you don’t innovate your business as it stands today will come to a time where it will no longer be interesting”. There is need to be proactive to ensure viability of the organisation and ensures its life.

Further analysis indicates that the male counterparts are the ones who were mostly motivated to innovate for a financial gain. Out of the eight participants who indicated that attainment of a financial gain was one of their motive only three participants were females.

This finding supports the Barbato, 2003 (cited by Marvel & Lee, 2011:286) who established that most men are motivated financially which then forces them to venture into entrepreneurship as opposed to women who think of balancing work and family before they move on to issues to do with innovation.

5.3.4.4 Theme 4: Sustainability

Drive for coming up with sustainable ways of doing business also emerged as another reason why participants engaged into innovation as Participants 5, 3, 8, 12 and 13 constantly referred to it. This finding confirms Gyurácz-Németh *et al.* (2013:645) who indicate that the issue of sustainability has been in the spotlight where innovative solution for the challenges of climate change, sustainability and seasonality are being sought for. Similarly ZTA (2014:21) postulate that trends of global competitiveness is shifting towards sustainable tourism development in pursuit of achieving a triple bottom-line which is economic growth, ecological sustainability and social responsibility. This makes it an important drive for survival for many organisations. Participant eight (8) had this to say, “For us as an organisation dealing with fauna and flora we are most motivated by finding ways of protecting the environment from further damage. I think you have picked up from my previous discussion with you. We also thrive to see activities which also benefit the local community”. Participant five (5) also shared the same thinking where she talked of offering environmentally friendly services to clients. This can be likened to the utilitarianism which is associated with firms who implemented innovation with social, environmental, or wider structural benefits (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017:56). Equally important, Macerinskiene and Mikaliuniene (2014:232) indicate that it is through these sustainable innovations which help in the achievement of the organisation’s objectives and the society at large. Chief among the reasons mentioned under this theme was the need to reduce costs. This is in line with Booyens and Rogerson (2017:56) who also established that some firms that implemented environmentally friendly practices highlighted that they have done so primarily in order to reduce costs and to enhance efficiency.

5.3.4.5 Theme 5: Crises control

Crises control was singled out as a motivator of innovation. This was not a popular motivator as it was only mentioned by Participant 6. However, the researcher decided to include it under the factors because it has a role to play in innovation. Participant six (6) indicated that “Like I said earlier one of the reasons is deal with crisis for instance we were forced to go for technology because of issue of cash shortage. . .” Usually it can be a way to survive as (Booyens & Rogerson 2017:57) point out that firms tend to be reactive respondents to change and this is usually driven by necessity. They innovate in order to survive in the current situation they will be operating in.

5.3.5 Dominant innovation types

In a bid to establish the stakeholders’ views about the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness the types of innovation being used by the stakeholders were sought for. The participants were asked to indicate the types of innovations they were using in their respective organisations. The question asked was: What are the innovation initiatives being implemented in your organisation? The researcher grouped the initiatives into different types of innovation in accordance to what literature says. Table 5.4 below presents the statements which were given by the participants and the emerging types of innovation coming out of the statements.

Table 5.4: Dominant innovation types

Statement	Type
We were forced to go for technology because of issue of cash shortage. Use of plastic money, online payments Use of social media to reach clients: sms, Facebook page, Twitter, WhatsApp In our organisation we now use social platforms Online marketing and use of social media We are now adopting social media marketing	Technological Marketing
Offer environmentally friendly services Having models that are in line with the ecosystem Use of solar geysers Buying produce from famers practising sustainable ways of farming All our lodges are friendly to the environment in that we use what is there be it stones or rock features, wood, dead wood, all that is incorporated into our designs We are trying to go green especially in energy we are trying to introduce solar energy to support the electricity energy and we use boreholes instead of city council water.	Environmental

<p>We have a laboratory where we rescue injured animals, birds etc. We also have an orphanage of elephants we started with about 33 then we have released about 17 so we are left with 16</p> <p>We also do an extra mile in getting the communities to understand that it's us who moved into areas where these animals were. It is not the animals so what we do each and every Friday of every week we target school children within the 50km radius we go and pick them up and bring them to the wallow where we have these elephants we give them some snacks, drinks and we do presentations.</p>	
<p>Walk with lions</p> <p>Express check in</p>	Process
<p>Being offered coffee whilst check in</p> <p>Provision of a wet cloth in places with high temperature</p> <p>Provision of electric blankets in a areas where it is cold</p>	Service
<p>Introduction of township and religious tourism</p> <p>To improve business in our lodges we have brought elephants, buffalos, lions and other animals so that it becomes a one stop shop.</p> <p>We also conferencing besides it being a safari lodge, we have also designed our product in a manner that people can come for staff retreats and they can do team building as well. We also have three house boats in Kariba and these house boats also have conferencing facilities in them.</p>	Product

Source: Author's own compilation

A total of five (5) types of innovation indicated in Table 5.4 emerged to be the dominant innovation types in use in the study however; product, process and service were grouped as one leaving the types of innovation to be discussed to be three. In tourism it has been established that innovation comes in different forms as alluded to by Gyurácz-Németh *et al.* (2013:645). Therefore this study established techno-marketing, environmental, process, product and service innovations as key types of innovations in use. These types of innovations are supporting findings by Booyens and Rogerson (2017:50) who identified the following to be typical examples of innovation in tourism; the use of new or improved information and communication technologies, environmentally friendly practices, management and operational practices (particularly in hotels) and the development of niche forms of tourism. Besides marketing, participants indicated that they are using technological innovation for online procurement which has improved their business operations.

5.3.5.1 *Techno-marketing innovation*

Topping the list was the technological innovation which was combined with a marketing component. This was coined techno-marketing in this study. Participants 1, 2,3,4,7,12,13,15 and 17 indicated that they use technological innovation as a way to enhance their marketing effort.

Use of social media emerged to be the most common means of marketing which has been chosen by the participants. This finding is in sync with Maráková and Medvedřová (2016:35) who states that social networking has generally stronger impact in comparison with marketing communication through the traditional media. Participants 2, 3,7,13 and 15 supported this view of using social media as the only way to go considering that people now spend much of their time on social media. This is evidenced by the sentiments echoed by Participant 3 I think social media is the way to go because nearly everyone is on line. Thus organisations are using it to market their products as it is a low hanging fruit to be used.

Besides marketing, participants indicated that they are using technological innovation for online procurement which has improved their business operations. Apart from marketing using social media Participant three (3) who was very vocal on the types of innovations being used also mentioned some marketing innovations which are being done by his organisation. Some of the initiatives mentioned are; organisations are coming up with exciting rates, promotion such as stay now and pay later for group of Hotels. They also have auctions where clients actually bid online for accommodation to promote business..

5.3.5.2 Environmental innovation

Environmental innovation also was said to be in use by the participants 4, 8 and 12. The participants in the Safari industry are the ones who indicated that this is the type of innovation they are using as organisations. Their innovation is centred on conservation where they target programmes which promote sustainability issues. Participant 8 said, "We also go an extra mile in getting the communities to understand that it's us who moved into areas where these animals were". Efforts are being made by the participant in raising awareness amongst the local communities so that they appreciate nature and be able to leave with wildlife. To support this finding Participant eight (8) had this to say, "People who look after these elephants, we target people who were once poachers coming from surrounding village. It becomes easy to cascade the message of anti- poaching and they also assist us in removing snails and things like that. This is because they have been into so basically they know how it works". Environmental innovation or green innovation is said to be the way to go to promote sustainability of resources. This is in line with Nilsson-Andersen and Andersen, (2012) who state that there is need to move away from just ordinary innovation to green innovation for value creation. Similarly OECD (2013) uphold the view on the importance of incorporating green innovation so as to move toward a green economy which is sustainable socially culturally and economically and noting that there is no single recipe when implementing green innovation rather there are diverse approaches which can used.

Social innovation is also emerging to be another type of innovation which is related to environmental innovation. This is coming in the form of local communities are being taken as part of the value chain. It is not enough just to pamper them with gifts but there is need to involve them and they will appreciate your operations. This result is in sync with Maclean, *et al.*, (2012) who also conducted a similar study and established that in social innovation it is important to engage communities.

Apart from wildlife conservation participants from the accommodation also indicated that they are into sustainable consumption to 'promote green eating'. Participant four (4) shared a lot on this type of innovation he also talked about use of green energy systems where they are using solar for lighting. In addition environmental innovation is being practised in the form of managing the supply chain system to ensure sustainable farming practices are being used. To support Participant four (4) said, "Nowadays as part of the management of the supply chain we go straight to the producer or farm and see how the farmer is working. Is he using sustainable ways of farming"?

5.3.5.3 Process, Product and service innovations

In addition to the aforementioned innovation types; process, product and service innovation also emerged to be in use in this study. Participants 4, 5,12,14,15 and 17 indicated how their organisations are manipulating the products so as to come up with new products. For instance Participant ten (10) talked about the provision of ice chilled wet cloths in places with high temperature like Victoria Falls and the provision of electric blankets in areas where it is cold like Nyanga. This also serves as an indication that weather has a role to play in determining the type of innovations which can be employed by an organisation. The finding supports Macerinskiene and Mikaliuniene, (2014:232) who view product innovation to refer to the development of a new product or improvement of an existing product so that it appears unique and hence persuades consumers to make a purchase. In addition Maráková and Medved'ová (2016:34) who hold the view that product and service innovations indicate changes that are observed directly by customers and they are considered to be new, respective to a specific enterprise and usually from the perspective of the customer, these factors influence their buying behaviour.

Over and above the participants seem to be copycatting each other except for a few individuals who have their own peculiar ways of exciting guests the likes of Boma restaurant in Victoria Falls. The participants know very well that innovation is about coming up with new ideas but they themselves seems to be running short of unique ideas to bring out the innovation which is being sought for in the country. Ideas cease to be unique if everyone is into it. This could be attributed

to the view by Pivčević and Praničević (cited by Čivre & Gomezelj Omerzel, 2015:315) who established that a high percentage of hotels tend to imitate and copy innovations introduced by competitors. Thus players in the industry need to be more proactive rather than being reactive to what others have done which is what is killing the creative minds of many.

5.3.6 Government's support mechanism for Innovation

The last question that was asked focussed on how the government was assisting organisations to innovate. The question asked was: How is the government assisting you to innovate as an organisation? The study participants were ambivalent in terms of their views on the level of government support. Participants 1, 2 3, 5, 9 and 11 were of the view that there was definitely support from the government and its policies were conducive enough to allow them to innovate. This is explicitly expressed by Participant one (1) when he said; I can say the government is supporting tourism so much, Sanganayi is an innovative initiative of the government. Similarly Participant nine (9) acknowledged the support of the government by them providing platforms where they share ideas as tourism players. This corresponds with Mei *et al.* 2013:520 who assert that the national government plays a crucial role in stimulating platforms where networks and collaborations can be done in order to stimulate innovation at national level.

However Participant five (5) showed some disgruntlement when he said that, "The only challenge with us Zimbabweans is we are fond of meetings and a lot of talking without any action from both the government and other stakeholders". This implies that some of the meetings or workshops done do not yield any benefits they just remain as resolutions without any action implemented.

To add Participant two (2) even mentioned the issue of being given free stands to exhibit to market their products. In addition Participant eleven (11) the voice of the public sector acknowledged the support when he talked about stakeholders being offered with a conducive battlefield for them to innovate. This was made reference to the events and workshops which are hosted for tourism players where they meet and discuss pertinent issues which affect their businesses. This finding confirms Mei *et al.* (2013:520) who posit that national governments play a crucial part in stimulating such networks and collaboration in order to facilitate tourism innovation at the national level.

In addition Participant eleven (11) representing the public sector pointed out that the government is there to extend an advisory gesture to the stakeholders. To show the level of seriousness the ZTA has a division which is responsible for research and development. It is again this institution which plays a facilitating role on issues that concern tourism players. Participant eleven (11) went

on to mention some of the initiatives which were taken by the government to promote swift operation which leads to innovation. He had this to say, "We also assist the tourism players in lobbying for favourable conditions in their business operations for instance of late we are in support of the Office of the President and Cabinet of their initiative of ease of doing business". Furthermore, he made reference to the issue of provision of tax exemption for all those tourism businesses who wished to expand their product portfolio. Participant three (3) acknowledged to be a beneficiary of this initiative when he said, "The government introduced rebate on the importation of game drive or safari vehicles basically equipment bought for tourism purposes". This brings out the support which stakeholders get from the government through its wings.

However, Participants 3, 5, 6, 8, 12, 13 and 18 had different views. The participants felt government was not providing enough support especially financial support to the tourism players. Participants twelve (12) and thirteen (13) were of the opinion that government must avail funds to innovative thinking. Explicitly Participant thirteen (13) said, "More funds to be availed to promote think tankers to come up with new ideas. I also feel they should invest in institutions of higher learning like universities so that they also impart that knowledge to the students". Participant thirteen (13) held the view that availability of funds can help to increase the levels of innovation in the country by using institutions of higher learning. Indeed lack of financial support has become a hindrance to innovative ideas. However, Participant five (5) and fifteen (15) felt that the problem was that the government itself is not financially stable and it somehow lacks capacity and resources to promote innovation. To support the finding Participant five (5) said, "The government itself is hard stricken, in a normal scenario it must be the one financing tourism business owners but it can't". This shows that the players themselves doubt the capacity of the government to assist them financially.

Participants six (6) and eighteen (18) felt the government was not giving them to support with regard to the issue of taxes. Instead of providing the players with conducive environments for innovation they are reaping them off through high taxes and too many fees which need to be paid to the government. They feel that fees they pay to the government are too many and high. Tourism players agreed that they turn the burden to the tourist which then destroys the country's competitiveness. Participant eight (8) also made reference to the issue of road blocks by police officers whereby he said it is the role of the government to make sure that tourists are safe and secure when they travel. Participant eight (8) had this to say, "I also feel those who man road blocks must go for training so that they become our ambassadors". Police force is an agent of the government so the government must exercise control over them. In addition participant 8 feels customer care training must be given to the police force for them to be good ambassadors of the Zimbabwean flag.

Another challenge stressed was that the government was not incentivising ideas as they come from tourism players. This has resulted in the stagnation and slow advancement of innovative ideas. Participant four (4) and fifteen (15) made reference to this fact. Participant fifteen (15) proposed that to encourage organisations to innovate the government must provide incentives to those innovative organisations. These incentives can be in the form of reduction in taxes for those organisations which would have innovated.

There was also the aspect of government not being open to innovative ideas in that when innovative ideas were suggested they were not readily accepted. This is stressed by Participant four (4) when he said “In Zimbabwe there is a spirit of shooting each other down”. The environment was also criticised for not being enabling in terms of the policies implemented by the government.

To support the drive for innovation amongst the tourism players the study participants proposed some initiatives which can be adopted by the government. Participants four (4) and fifteen (15) felt the government should also have competitions for more innovative ideas. Participant four (4) said the government can run a competition to allow players to send in innovative ideas. Similarly Participant fifteen (15) was of the same idea of running competitions to bring in innovative ideas.

The participants were again of the opinion that through the government initiatives innovation must be incorporated and being made mandatory in every degree to be offered in the country. Maráková and Medved'ová (2016:34) stress that innovative policies for the service sector could be more effective if they would be systematically incorporated into the regulatory environment thus the idea of having a policy to that regards will pay dividends to the country. Hall and Williams (cited by Maráková and Medved'ová 2016:36) emphasise that that policy may be a way to a better understanding of the role of the public sector in the innovation process in the tourism industry. Participants eleven (11) and fifteen (15) were very vocal about this issue. Participant ten (10) even suggested that innovation must be inculcated from early stages of childhood. He went to talk about Zimbabweans lack the culture of innovation. Even if young children have innovative ideas at tender ages they get stifled by elders. There is need to promote innovation from the early stages so that they children in it. Lastly participants proposed the issue of adopting the vernacular language as a formal language. The argument being that success stories of innovation are found in areas where the use of the vernacular language has be taken to be the main language. To support the finding Participant 14 said, “The establishment of innovation events where people will be showcasing or reporting on their achievement. To embrace the vernacular language even in work places as it enables the employees to fully express themselves, it appears most countries which are able to innovate use their mother tongue at work places good examples being the British, Americans Chinese, Germany, Japanese, etc.”

5.4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This section presents a summary of the findings. Figure 5.2 and 5.3 are a presentation of the summary of findings. The summaries have been divided into two. The first part is focussing on the participants views on innovation and the second part provides the participants perspectives on destination competitiveness.

5.4.1 Summary on innovation

In Figure 5.2 below participants showed that they had a clear understanding of what innovation entails as they associated with newness, creativity, production of unique offerings and value addition. This is in line with the scholarship on innovation. Participants felt there was need to continually innovate in order to provide a unique product that gives their business an edge over all the others. Innovation was also highlighted an important issue of pride whilst others become laggards in terms of adoption of new innovations. However a point of concern was the lack of appreciation on the value which is attached to innovation in improving competitiveness of the tourism sector. According to the participants views the following themes emerged to be main motivating factors of innovation. These themes were: customer satisfaction, to be unique, financial gain, sustainability and an answer to a crisis. Also views on the types of innovation which were being used by participants were sought for. The study participants admitted to be using five (5) innovation types that are techno marketing, environmental, product, process and service

5.3.5.1 Techno-marketing innovation

Topping the list was the technological innovation which was combined with a marketing component. This was coined techno-marketing in this study. Participants 1, 2,3,4,7,12,13,15 and 17 indicated that they use technological innovation as a way to enhance their marketing effort. Use of social media emerged to be the most common means of marketing which has been chosen by the participants. This finding is in sync with Maráková and Medvedčová (2016:35) who states that social networking has generally stronger impact in comparison with marketing communication through the traditional media. Participants 2, 3,7,13 and 15 supported this view of using social media as the only way to go considering that people now spend much of their time on social media. This is evidenced by the sentiments echoed by Participant 3 I think social media is the way to go because nearly everyone is on line. Thus organisations are using it to market their products as it is a low hanging fruit to be used.

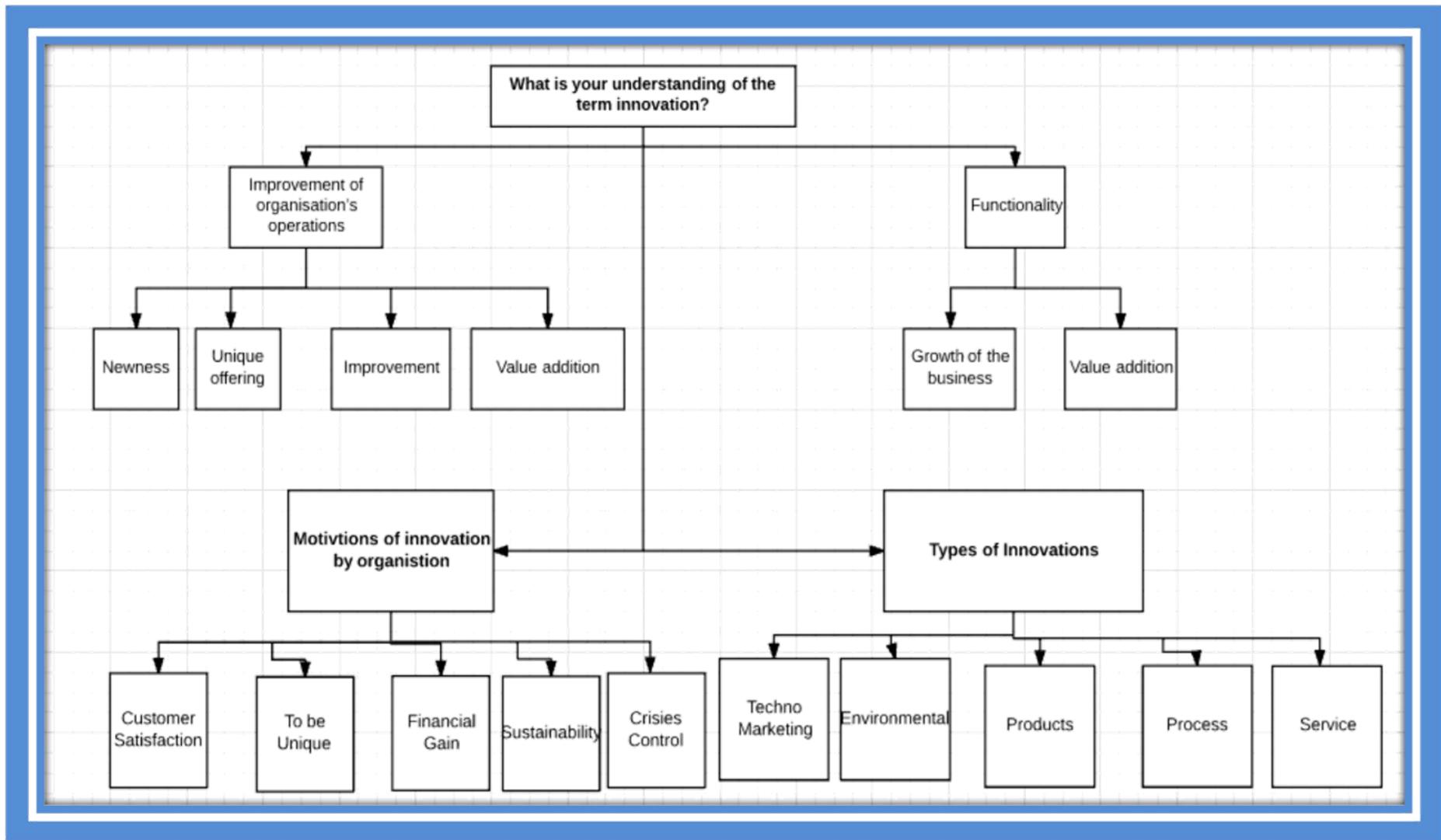


Figure 5.2: Summary of findings on innovation

Source: Own compilation

Furthermore, some of the study participants agreed that they were getting support from the government through provision of platforms where tourism players can meet and share notes. However, the majority felt that the government was not providing them with the support they expected from it. Chief amongst the reasons were lack of financial support to promote innovation amongst the players and they also felt that the government was failing to provide them with incentives to promote the culture of innovation in organisations.

5.4.2 Summary on destination competitiveness

The participants were also asked about their views concerning the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a country. The participants professed to be knowledgeable of what tourism competitiveness is. In their definitions two key themes emerged that is comparative and competitive advantages of products, services and amenities which were taken to be referring to the same thing. When asked about the determinants which affect the competitiveness of Zimbabwe. The following were identified in the study to be some of the determinants affecting the tourism competitiveness of Zimbabwe. The participants mentioned: availability of iconic attractions and the ambience of the country to include hospitable people and the peace dividend of the country to be the key draw cards of the destination. However, unfavourable economic and political environments, poor access and unappealing superstructure were mentioned to be some of the determinants which were deterring Zimbabwe to be competitive like other destinations.

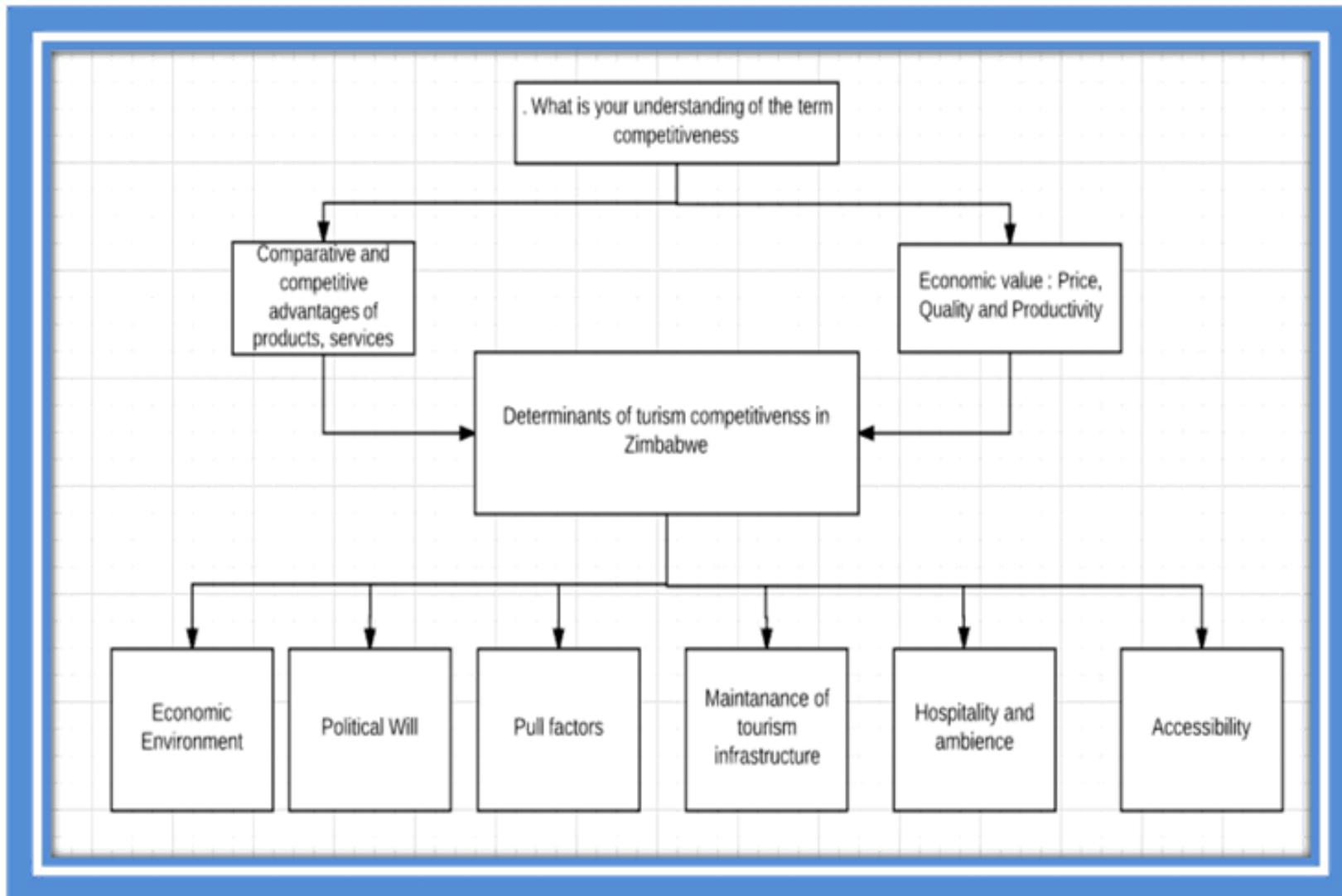


Figure 5.3: Summary of findings on destination competitiveness

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.3 is a presentation of how the study participants viewed tourism competitiveness. Conclusively the participants proposed some initiatives which they felt could assist tourism players to embrace innovation and improve the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. Firstly it was the introduction of innovation competitions where innovative ideas are to be rewarded to stimulate the culture of innovation amongst the players. They also proposed incentives for innovative organisations in the form of reduction of taxes being paid to the government. Inculcation of innovation from the early stages was again proposed and the incorporation of innovation component in every Tourism and Hospitality degree programme being offered in the country.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main goal of the thesis was to critically assess innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness for Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. The study was informed by five (5) key objectives. The first objective was a literature objective which sought to establish the link between management and tourism competitiveness by investigation of previous studies. The objective was achieved in chapter two. The second objective was to critically assess the role of innovation in tourism through obtaining background information from literature search which was achieved in chapter three. The third objective was to establish the determinants that contribute to tourism competitiveness from a stakeholders' perspective while objective four was to determine the stakeholders' perceptions towards the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness in the Zimbabwean tourism industry. Objective three and four were both covered in chapter five. Objective five sought to develop a strategy which promotes use of innovation to enhance tourism competitiveness in the Zimbabwean tourism industry. The final objective of the study was achieved by consolidating information gathered in literature chapters and the empirical survey and it was achieved in chapter six of the study.

The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the main contributions and findings of the study and making recommendations. The chapter begins by highlighting the personal journey followed by the contributions to be made by the study, conclusions in relation to the objectives which were formulated in chapter one and recommendations.

6.2 PERSONAL JOURNEY

My journey in pursuit of attaining a PhD qualification was embarked on towards the end of the year 2013 when I was given an acceptance letter from North West University. It was a dream which was fulfilled because the thought of attaining this type of qualification came into my mind when I graduated with a Master's qualification in 2009. Also pressures from my work place motivated me to start this journey for me to remain relevant in the system.

My initial thought of a PhD study was to focus on innovation and culture as a gateway of improving tourism competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. The idea was about having hotels forming synergies with local people surrounding their units so that when visitors visit hotels they will also experience the local culture by engaging in various indigenous activities and stay with them. The rationale which motivated me to have that idea was to add more activities to the Zimbabwean product by having visitors extend their stay in the area hence it would help in poverty alleviation

and decrease the social delinquencies which local community always suffer as a result of tourism. This was also going to improve the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination through that initiative. I was so fascinated with the idea and I would see this type of study benefiting the whole of Zimbabwe by having this type of a project being taken on board by hotels across the country.

However, due the challenges of the practicality and scope of my initial idea it was then fine - tuned to focus on a critical assessment of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness and I delimited the idea to perceptions of tourism stakeholders. I was motivated by the fact that Zimbabwean tourism product is now being referred to as tired which is affecting its tourism competitiveness. I convinced myself that the desire to improve the competitiveness of the country lies with the industry players thus I decided to focus on tourism stakeholders. Before using them as problem solvers of challenges being faced by the Zimbabwean tourism industry. I found it prudent enough to establish the status quo and then suggest solutions based on what they think and what literatures also says about innovation and tourism competitiveness. This is how I ended up embarking on this journey.

In my quest to attain the PhD qualification, it was not an easy journey as I met up with a lot of hurdles along the way. Some were work related where I got difficulties in balancing the two. Work demands were too much nevertheless, many thanks to my dean who allowed me time out to concentrate on my study. On the other hand I had medical challenges and it is during the same period I lost my dad in 2016. I got so devastated to the extent of wanting to pull out of the race because he was my pillar of inspiration in whatever I did. He was there for me when I lost my husband in 2009. Nevertheless, with God's grace, guidance and comfort from my supervisor, family members and fellow colleagues I am where I am today.

6.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The following discussion is a presentation of the contributions which were derived from the study.

- The major contribution of the study came out in the form of a set of guidelines which can be used by policy makers, entrepreneurs and managers of organisations if they want to embrace innovation as a strategy for tourism competitiveness.
- Secondly the study extended the scholarship of innovation and tourism competitiveness into the tourism academia as (Hjalager, 2002:467) reiterates that there is a gap between existing literature emphasising the importance of innovation in tourism, which is currently not reflected in the academia. Thus this study added a discourse to that respect.
- Thirdly most of the literature on tourism innovation presented by scholars has a bias on the use of developed countries as points of reference leaving very few which concentrates

on developing countries. Therefore, this study has closed that gap by adding literature on tourism innovation from a developing country perspective using views of various stakeholders.

- Fourthly in previous scholarship on the determinants of destination competitiveness, it appears innovation is not being given the attention it deserves as one of the determinants. This study contributed to the body of literature by unravelling how innovation can be used to attain tourism competitiveness for a destination. From the literature study it has established that if left unattended, innovation can jeopardise the competitiveness of a destination.
- Fifthly the study also provided of some theories which can be used by managers advance innovation in an organisation. See Figure 3.1 in Chapter three (3)

6.4 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

The conclusions of the study were guided by the goal of the study which was to provide a critical assessment of innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness. In light of the above observation a theoretical framework was formulated which was used to give insights of how innovation can be used to enhance tourism competitiveness by tourism firms.

Figure 6.1 is a presentation of the basis of how the assessment was concluded in this Chapter. Thereafter, conclusions were drawn from the assessment and guidelines for use were provided for Zimbabwean tourism players to use so as to improve the competitiveness of the destination.

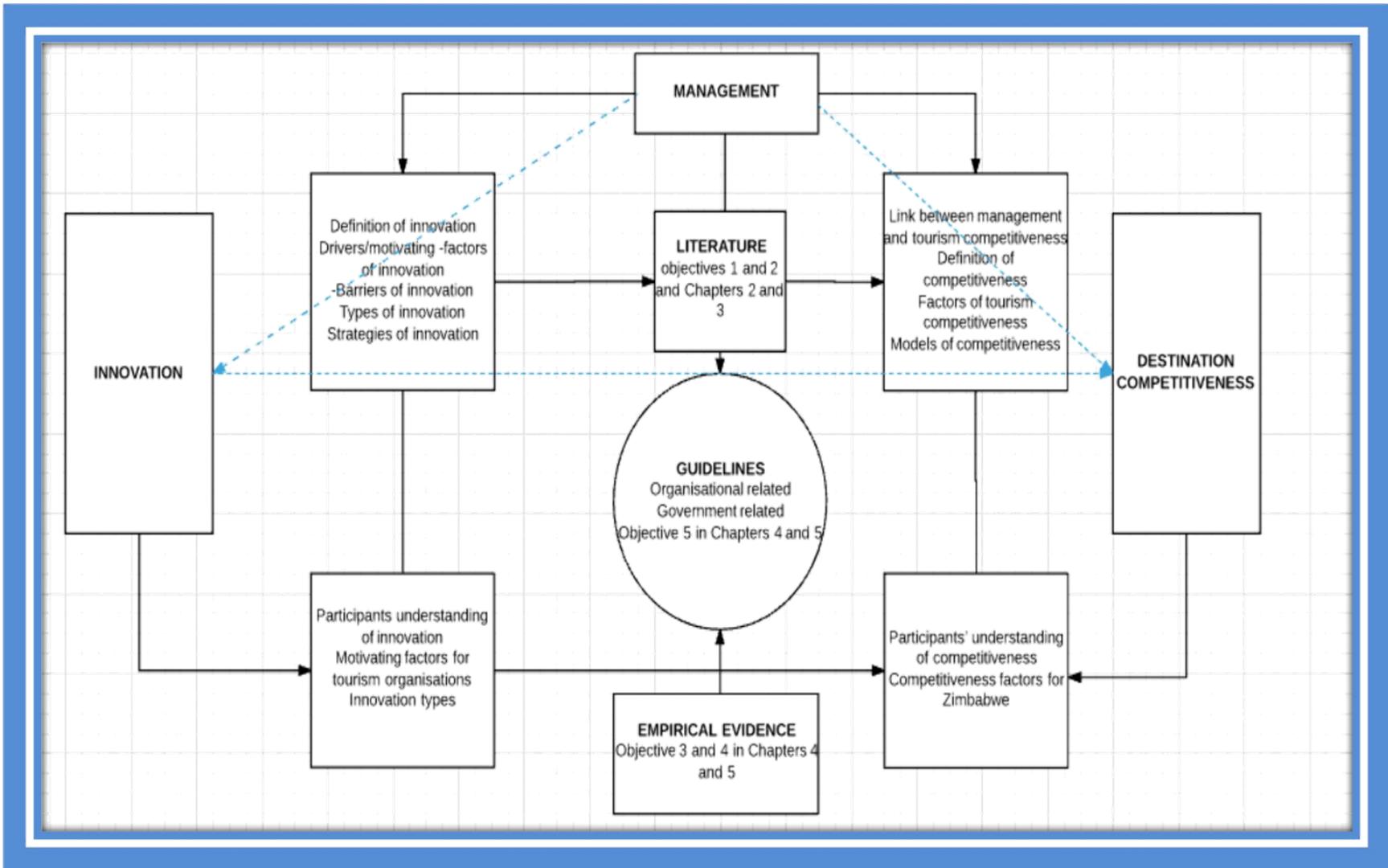


Figure 6.1: Framework of the base of conclusions and recommendations

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 6.1 is a diagrammatical presentation showing a summary of the study. Management is the theoretical framework wherein innovation and competitiveness lie and where the two link. It is clear from literature as well as the empirical results that innovation foster competitiveness and therefore answering the goal of the study. To demonstrate and confirm this, a review of literature was done in Chapters 2 and 3 to answer objectives 1 and 2. Also an empirical study was conducted in Chapter 5 to achieve objectives 3 and 4.

To come up with the recommendations of the study an assessment of conclusions from both literature and empirical evidence was done. Objective 1 which provided a theoretical underpinning of management and tourism competitiveness was twinned with objective 3 which provided the views of the managers on how they understood tourism competitiveness and what contributes to the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a country. Objective 2 focussing on the theoretical background of innovation was paired with objective 4 which provided the views of the participants on what is innovation, motivating factors of innovation and the types of innovation in use in their organisations. This analysis provided the base to develop a set of guidelines for Zimbabwe to use innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness. The next section is a presentation of conclusions of study objectives based on the assessment of both literature and empirical searches.

6.4.1 An assessment of objective 1 and 3

Table 6.1 is a presentation of the assessment done on conclusions drawn from objectives 1 and 3. The assessment was used to inform the recommendations which were proposed for the study.

Table 6.1: An assessment of objectives 1 and 3:

OBJECTIVE 1: To conduct a literature study on the link between management and tourism competitiveness.	OBJECTIVE 3: To establish determinants that affect tourism competitiveness in Zimbabwe using a stakeholder perspective.
<p>It has emerged that management is crucial in an organisation as it is all about the effective and efficient use of resources so as to achieve organisational resources (c.f.2.1).</p> <p>Management is multi-dimensional and its role in an organisation can be likened to a visionary imagery of the relationship between a hub and</p>	<p>In the same way it has been concluded empirically that management forms the basis of tourism competitiveness as it was associated as the foundation of producing comparative or competitive advantages of products and services for tourism competitiveness (c.f.5.3.2.1)</p>

spoke (c.f.2.1). Management has emerged to be one of the tourism competitiveness drivers as one of its key characteristics (c.f.2.2).

It has emerged that management sets the foundation of the competitiveness theory (c.f.2.3).

It is within the field of management which gives birth to the concept of strategy which forms the basis of comparative and competitive advantages (c.f.2.4). Comparative and competitive advantages link tourism competitiveness with management (c.f.2.5.1).

In tourism comparative and competitive advantage, management and success have proved to be inseparable components (c.f.2.6).

It can also be concluded that each country has its own unique factors such that strategies of improving competitiveness must be in line with the competitive factors of the respective country

The following were concluded to be factors of tourism competitiveness c.f.2.5.1

State of cluster development, Sophistication of company operations and strategy, Social infrastructure, Political institutions, Microeconomic policies, general infrastructure, Accessibility, Facilitating resources, Hospitality, Enterprise, Political will, Physiography and climate, Culture and history, Mix of activities, Special events, Entertainment, Superstructure Market ties, Marketing, Quality of service, Information research, Human resource management, Finance and venture capital, Visitor management, Resource stewardship, Crisis management, System definition, Location,

It has emerged that economic value of the destination and tourism destination play a reciprocal role where price and quality of the destination are crucial for an effective and efficient management of a destination (c.f.5.3.2.2).

It has emerged from the empirical study that poor management strategies can jeopardise the competitiveness of a destination (c.f.5.3.3).

Failure to have a coordinated approach to management of a destination can result in tourism competitiveness to be weak c.f.5.3.3).

Economic environment has emerged to be a central determinant in improving the competitiveness of Zimbabwe. Without a good economy all systems have proved to be paralysed (c.f.5.3.3.1).

Equally important is the political environment which acts as a silent factor in reducing the competitiveness of Zimbabwe. Also politics and economy are two inseparable components when it comes to tourism competitiveness. A favourable political environment results in a healthy economy and prosperity to the organisations (c.f.5.3.3.2).

Another determinant which emerged from the study was the aspect of attraction and activities as pull factors. Emphasis was placed on variety and quality of these products (c.f.5.3.3.3).

Importance maintenance of tourism infrastructure also emerged to be another determinant which was considered important in the study (c.f.5.3.3.4).

<p>Safety and security, Price competitiveness, Interdependencies, Awareness/image, Carrying capacity, Natural resources, Tourism infrastructure, Entertainment, Shopping, Provision of information, Monitoring and evaluation systems, Global (macro) environment, Competitive environment, Price competitiveness, health and safety, crime, improve responsiveness to customers' needs, income in the country of origin and Innovation .</p>	<p>Second from last was the issue of hospitality and ambience of the destination which was stressed to be the selling point of Zimbabwe. However, there are indications that this determinant will cease to be a selling point if nothing is being done about it (c.f.5.3.3.5).</p> <p>Lastly accessibility of the destination was made reference to as another determinant of tourism competitiveness. It has emerged that without access the competitiveness of a destination is compromised greatly (c.f.5.3.3.6).</p> <p>Amongst the determinants mentioned for tourism competitiveness innovation was mentioned, this can be an indication on lack of appreciation of the value of innovation as a determinant to resuscitate the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.</p>
---	--

Source: Author's own compilation

6.4.2 An assessment of objectives 2 and 4

In order to come up with the guidelines to be used for the study an assessment of conclusions for objectives 2 and 4 was done so as to establish the gaps to be used as recommendations.

Table 6.2: An assessment of objectives 2 and 4

<p>OBJECTIVE 2: To critically assess the role of innovation in tourism through obtaining background information from a review of literature in chapter 2</p>	<p>OBJECTIVE 4: To determine the stakeholders' perceptions on how innovation contributes to tourism competitiveness in the Zimbabwean tourism industry in chapter 5</p>
<p>The field of innovation in the service sector still remains an underestimated and not well understood phenomenon (c.f.3.2).</p> <p>It can be concluded that it is a necessity for tourism firms to innovate in-order to survive the pressures of the dynamic business environments and ever- changing needs of customers (c.f.3.2).</p>	<p>Relating back to the objective of the study, it can be concluded that stakeholders under consideration had similar perceptions and common views concerning the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness (c.f.5.3.1.1).</p>

<p>A combination of resource based theory, knowledge based view, organisational learning theory and stakeholder theory can be used to explain how firms can embrace innovation for tourism competitiveness (c.f.3.2).</p> <p>Internal and external characteristics of firms are important determinants of innovation for service industries like tourism (c.f.3.3).</p> <p>There seems to be a dearth of information on models which explain the determinants of innovation process in the tourism industry (c.f.3.3).</p> <p>Political and the economic environments play a leading role in the environments of innovation</p> <p>Understanding the determinants is key in the formulation of the strategy to be taken by the organisation (c.f.3.3).</p> <p>The people component particularly managers and employees play a leading role in the innovation process (c.f.3.3).</p> <p>The following emerged to be the types of innovations which can be used by an organisation to gain competitiveness: product, process, service, marketing, technological, architectural organisational or institutional, management (c.f.3.4.1).</p> <p>Innovation in the tourism can either be radical or incremental and either be sustaining or disruptive in nature (c.f.3.4).</p>	<p>Participants showed a clear understanding of what innovation was though they viewed it from two perspectives, the improvement of organisation's operations through offering of new, unique products and services and functionality of innovation in an organisation. However, seem to be short sighted with regard to the value that innovation has on improving the competitiveness of a destination (c.f.5.3.1.1).</p> <p>It has also emerged that in some instances the participants do not put into practice what they know about innovation.</p> <p>Tourism competitiveness was viewed mainly from the perspective of comparative and competitive advantages of products and services (c.f.5.3.2.1).</p> <p>Customer satisfaction followed by edge for organisations to be unique, need for a financial gain, sustainability and answer to crises emerged to be main motivating drivers for organisations to innovate (c.f.5.3.4)</p> <p>The most dominant types of innovation which were being by organisations which were represented by study participants were techno-marketing which is a combination of technology and marketing innovations, environmental, product, service and process (c.f.5.3.5).</p> <p>It has also come out in the study that there is a thin line between service and process innovation (c.f.5.3.5).</p> <p>However, overall incremental and sustaining innovations types emerged to be the main innovation forms which were being used by the participants for their organisations (c.f.5.35).</p>
---	--

<p>The motivation to innovate is two pronged; it can be customer oriented or organisational oriented (c.f.3.6).</p> <p>Cost saving and/or differentiation of tourism product offerings, improvements in company image, customer satisfaction, improving service quality, increasing and maintaining market share and profitability have been concluded to be some of the motivating factors which drive the edge to innovate in the tourism industry</p> <p>In the tourism industry it has emerged that barriers can reduce level of intensity of innovation (c.f.3.7).</p> <p>Tourism competitiveness is a result of the concerted effort of innovations implemented by tourism firms in the tourism system (c.f.3.8).</p> <p>Embracing innovation a strategy of competitiveness can also be through the use of case studies where innovation was used as a strategy (c.f.3.8).</p>	<p>The following were singled out to be factors which motivate organisations to innovate: customer satisfaction, desire to be unique, financial gain, sustainability and crises control (c.f.5.3.4.)</p> <p>From the participants view the government of Zimbabwe is willing to support innovation initiatives by companies though all its efforts are being hampered by a dwindling budget resulting in minimum support for the tourism players (c.f.5.3.6).</p> <p>The budgetary constraints being faced by the government has resulted in the government putting in place which are milking away the little proceeds companies get leaving them without money to do innovations (c.f.5.3.6).</p> <p>Participants were also of the view that innovations are those large projects which require a lot of money yet innovations can still be done with limited budgets and offer unique products and services (c.f.5.3.6).</p> <p>Zimbabweans still show traces of colonial captivity in the way they perceive things. The study participants seem to be blinkered when it comes to how they view innovation. They think innovation is only about adopting conventional types of innovations and fail to recognise that use of local resources can be an easy way to make Zimbabwe a destination of choice (c.f.5.3.6).</p>
--	--

Source: Author's own compilation

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

It is clear from the assessment of literature and empirical evidence that innovation is one of the solutions to some of the problems being faced by Zimbabwe as a country. Guidelines on how innovation can be used as an intervening factor of tourism competitiveness have been provided.

The guidelines are going to be divided into three categories; guidelines to be followed by organisations, guidelines to be used by the government and the recommendations for the future studies.

6.5.1 A set of guidelines for organisations to follow

In as much as the managers appreciate that tourism competitiveness comes in the form of competitive and comparative ideas of tourism products, services and amenities, however they seem not know how that can be used to their advantage. The following are the guidelines which organisations can use if they are to follow the innovation route.

6.5.1.1 The need to adopt corporate entrepreneurship as a strategy where innovation is central for business growth

This can be achieved through:

- Placing innovation at the forefront and making it prominent in the organisation's activities this is done through incorporating it in the vision of the organisation
- Allocating funds through the creation of an innovation fund to show the seriousness of the company to advance the strategy of innovation to promote competitiveness.
- Promoting a culture of innovation amongst the employees through valuing the ideas of every employee and incentivising them to recognise their effort
- Provision of knowledge through organisational learning by developing staff members through exchange programmes or sending them to institutions of higher learning such as universities and polytechnics. Collaborations with educational institutions can also be considered where staff members can be trained at low or no cost. Organisations might also consider having workshops to share ideas and learn from each other.
- Top management to support initiatives to encourage more innovative ideas from the employees. Support from the top management can come in the form of allocating a budget for innovation initiatives. Allowing staff members time to concentrate on innovation activities and incentivising innovative ideas or attempts. Another way can be through registering of patents from the innovative products, the ownership of employees tend to increase when they realise they will also benefit from the proceeds of innovation.
- To establish an innovation team and identify organisation champions who can lead the innovation activity in the organisation and the team to be relieved of some of their duties. The performance of the team to be appraised based on the magnitude of the innovation

output in the organisation. This encourages the team members to work hard so as to achieve set targets.

- Need to decentralize the approval process so as to reduce the bureaucratic style of management which is considered to be rigid. This rigidity can derail and demotivate team members if the process is too long. However, managers still need to make a follow up on what is being done by the team as they remain answerable to the activities being undertaken by the team. There is need for checks and balances to monitor the process.
- Have frequent meetings with team members because communication is crucial.

6.5.1.2 Collaborations of industry players through Private public partnership, networks amongst players in the industry or the formation of synergies with players in other industries.

- This can be achieved through having workshops, meetings and exhibitions where innovation will be the central theme of discussion. Topics to be discussed different types of innovation, barriers to innovation, how to embrace innovation for tourism competitiveness, how to create networks to promote competitiveness through innovation, what corporate entrepreneurship is and how organisations can use it to promote innovation and how to innovate in a distressed economy. The target members of such workshops must be managers, shop floor employees, academics and students.
- Key note speakers can be invited and present practical strategies of how innovation can be used by the organisations.
- Targets must be set so that an evaluation can be done thereafter to profile activities which have been done by organisation to promote innovation. This helps to reduce the aspect of having gatherings with no results which end up being talk shows.
- After profiling the innovations in the country the managers can partner with government to promote collaborative marketing which in the end enhances the destination competitiveness.

6.5.2 A set of guidelines to be used by the government of Zimbabwe

Based on the assessment done on the conclusions from the review of literature done and empirical research it has emerged that the government has a key role to play in ensuring that the destination is competitive. This can be done in a number of ways. The following are the guidelines which are being proposed in the study to be used by the government of Zimbabwe to promote use of innovation for tourism competitiveness.

- Providing incentives to innovative organisations in the form of fiscal incentives like tax reductions for those organisations to stimulate the drive to innovate.
- To run innovation competitions for both the academia and industry players to search for innovative ideas which can be used to improve the competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a destination. This can be started from the early stages like secondary schools going up to university level. For secondary schools the competitions can start from district level going to provincial level and lastly at national level. Prizes must be offered at each level to motivate the students innovate. The government can use the organisations to donate prizes since they will be the beneficiaries of the innovations to be brought in by students. As for university students the same concept can be followed and innovation hubs or garages can be constructed to foster innovation at these institutions.
- The government to make it mandatory for all Tourism and Hospitality qualifications offered at universities and polytechnics to incorporate innovation in their curriculum.
- Adoption of the vernacular language as a medium for instruction for learning can also be considered to remove some of the barriers which can be caused by use of English as a medium of instruction.
- Investing in Science through introducing pure and early stage applied research, enabling legislation and regulation (Stem Cells), building science and innovation infrastructure innovation (hubs), capacitating by providing innovation scholarships to enhance education and skill. Universities and polytechnics to have innovation hubs where innovative ideas can be tried and tested before the industry implements the ideas.
- Create incentives for business investment through compensating for technology and financial risk for business, and provision of grants.
- Investing in underpinning infrastructure through establishment of standards and accreditation of properties.
- Enforcing the use of Intellectual Property to protect organisations' innovations. Government through its agents to educate members in the tourism organisations about how they protect their innovations through intellectual property. They also need to be informed about how they can benefit by using patents, trademarks or copyrights.
- Creating platforms and enabling environments which can allow collaborations to take place. This can be done through creation of indabas, conferences where both the academics and industry stakeholders meet and discuss ways of embracing innovation.

6.5.3 Recommendations for future studies

- The study was carried out using the qualitative study research paradigm and used the cross sectional case study approach. The results cannot be generalised for all tourism

firms in Zimbabwe but just give guidance. Henceforth, a survey is recommended to replicate the study for all tourism firms in the country for the results to be generalised. The proposed topic can be: A survey of tourism stakeholder perspective on the contribution of innovation to tourism competitiveness using a cross sectional analysis.

- Also considering future research, on the one hand, it would be fruitful to match the stakeholder perspective with the tourist perspective and identify common perceptions and gaps. The proposed topic can be: A comparative study of stakeholder and tourists perceptions on how innovation can be used to promote tourism competitiveness.
- Another proposal for future study is to look at the hindrances to innovation. The proposed topic could be: Why do some entrepreneurs or DMOs shy away or are unable to innovate?
- This study used managers, key informants and entrepreneurs as respondents and employees were excluded for the reasons discussed in the study. Therefore, it is being recommended that another study can focus on the views of shop floor employees. The proposed topic can be: Innovation as a determinant of tourism competitiveness: An employee's perspective.

REFERENCE LIST

- Agandona, A. 2011. Stakeholder theory and value creation: school working paper WP 922 1-13. IESE Business-University of Navara.
- Alsos, G. A., Eide, D. & Madsen, E. L. 2014. Introduction: Innovation in tourism industries. (In Alsos, G. A., Eide, D. & Madsen, E.L. Eds. Handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries p. 1–24. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar).
- Anderson, E.E. 2006. A qualitative study of non-affiliated, non-scientist institutional review board members. *Accountability in research*, 13(2):135-155.
- Andrades, L. & Dimanche, F. 2017. Destination competitiveness and tourism development in Russia: issues and challenges. *Tourism management*, 62:360-376.
- Antonites , A.J. & Haguma, J.J. 2011. Assessing the innovative nature of the agricultural based small businesses in Rwanda: the case study of the coffee industry. *African journal of agricultural research*, 6(3):757-770.
- Arauzo Carod, J.M., Faggian, A. & Mañé Vernet, F. 2010. Internal and external determinants of radical and incremental innovation in SMEs: the case of Catalonia (No. 2072/179605).
- Arslan, N. & Tathdil, H. 2012. Defining and measuring competitiveness: a comparative analysis of Turkey with 11 potential rivals. *International journal of basic & applied sciences*, 12(2):31-43.
- Astarlıoğlu, M. 2012. Moderating effect of porter's diamond framework between firm strategies and export performance: a conceptual model. *EUL Journal of social sciences*, 3(2):35-65.
- Australian Innovation Survey. 2003. The Australian Government's Tourism. White paper. <https://www.oecd.org/sti/inno/34609098.pdf> Date of access: 12 Jun 2015.
- Awang, K.W., Hassan, W.M.W. & Zahari, M.S.M. 2009. Tourism development: a geographical perspective. *Asian social science*, 5(5):67.
- Ayuso, S., Rodríguez, M.A., García-Castro, R. & Ariño, M.A. 2011. Does stakeholder engagement promote sustainable innovation orientation? *Industrial management and data systems*, 111:1399-1417.
- Azam, M. & Sarker, T. 2010. Governance of green tourism and sustainable development: towards greening the economy. Germany: Institute of forest and environmental policy.

- Babbie, E. 2007. *The practice of social research*. 6th ed. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E. 2010. *The practice of social research*. London: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Bakan, I. & Dogan, I.F. 2012. Competitiveness of the industries based on the Porter's diamond model: an empirical study. *International journal research and reviews applied science*, 11:441-455.
- Barbour, R. 2014. *Introducing qualitative research: a student's guide* 2nd ed. London: Sage
- Barney, J.B. 2007. *Gaining and sustaining competitive advantage*, 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Becic, E., Crnjar, K. & Licul, M. 2014. Measures of innovation activities in tourism according to CIS survey. *Tourism and hospitality industry 2014, Congress Proceedings trends in tourism and hospitality industry*, p.90.
- Bell, J. 2010. *Doing your research project*. UK: Open University Press.
- Blanke, J. & Chiesa T. 2013. *The travel & tourism competitiveness report reducing barriers to economic growth and job creation*. World Economic Forum.
- Block, E. 2013. <https://www.voazimbabwe.com/a/zimbabwe-petition-to-spare-life.../1760673.html> Date of access: 10 Jul. 2016.
- Blunck, F. 2006. What is competitiveness? <http://www.caps.am/data.php/877.pdf> Date of access: 15 Feb 2014.
- Boddy, D. & Paton, S. 2011. *Management: an introduction*. 5th ed. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Boer, H. & During, W.E. 2001. Innovation, what innovation? A comparison between product, process and organisational innovation. *International journal of technology management*, 22(1-3):83-107.
- Boonzaaier, C. 2009. The Applicability of Government Policies to Community-Based Catering Services: The Hananwa of Blouber, Limpopo Province. In *Tourism Strategies and Local Responses in Southern Africa*. Petri Hottola, ed. Pp. 73–89. Wallingford: CABI.
- Booyens, I & Rodgerson, C. 2016. Tourism innovation in the global: evidence from the Western Cape South Africa, *International journal of tourism research*, 18:515–524.

Booyens, I. & Rogerson, C.M. 2017. Networking and learning for tourism innovation: evidence from the Western Cape. *Tourism Geographies*, 19(3):340-361.

Booyens, I. 2012. A new focus for research and policy development in South Africa. *Africa insight*, 42(2):112-126.

Borzyszkowski, J. 2015. The past, present and future of destination management organizations—The example of national tourism organizations. Paper presented at the *International management conference*. Bucharest: Romania
<http://conferinta.management.ase.ro/archives/2015/pdf/6.pdf> 15 Jul. 2016.

Bosch-Sijtsema, Petra M. & Postma, T. 2004. A knowledge-based approach to innovation: An application for project-based firms. Paper presented at the organizational knowledge, and learning capabilities conference, Innsbruck, Austria <http://docplayer.net/15223654-A-knowledge-based-approach-to-innovation-an-application-for-project-based-firms-petra-bosch-sijtsema-a-theo-j-b-m-postma-b.html> Date of access: 23 Jun. 2016.

Boycheva, C. 2017. Innovation and competitiveness in the context of the Bulgarian tourism industry. *Economic alternatives*, 1:137-148.

Bradley, C., Dutt, S., Mohsenzadeh, S., Pogue, M., & Sun, R. 2012. Small business, entrepreneurship, and innovation. Institute for competitiveness & prosperity. working paper 15 https://www.competeprosper.ca/uploads/ICAP_WP15_Final.pdf Date of access: 15 Sep. 2014

Brida, J.G., & Risso, W.A. 2009. Tourism as a factor of long-run economic growth: An empirical analysis for Chile, *European journal of tourism research*, 2(2):178-185

Britannica concise encyclopedia. <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Robert-Mugabe>: Date of access 15 Feb. 2015.

Buhalis, D. 2000. *Marketing the competitive destination of the future*. *Tourism management*, 27(1):97-116.

Burns, T. & Stalker, G. 1960. *Management and innovation*. London: Tavistock Publication.

Butler, R.W. 1980. The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: implications for management of resources. *The Canadian geographer*, 24(1):5-12.

- Camisón, C. & Monfort-Mir, V.M. 2012. Measuring innovation in tourism from the Schumpeterian and the dynamic-capabilities perspectives. *Tourism management*, 33(4):776-789.
- Carvalho, L. and Costa, T. 2011. Tourism innovation—a literature review complemented by case study research. *Tourism and management studies*, 1-12-22.
- Chaleunvong, K., 2009. Data collection techniques. training course in reproductive health research Vientiane. GFMR - WHO - UNFPA -LAO PDR, 25 September.
- Chen, C.M., Chen, S.H. & Lee, H.T. 2011. The destination competitiveness of Kinmen's tourism industry: exploring the interrelationships between tourist perceptions, service performance, customer satisfaction and sustainable tourism. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 19(2):247-264.
- Chibaya, T. 2013. Zimbabwe Africa's paradise to Zimbabwe a world of wonders': benefits and challenges of rebranding Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. *Developing country studies*, 13(5):84-91.
- Chigora, F. & Vutete, C. 2015. Further insight into the tourist market equilibrium *International economics and business*, 1(2):24-31.
- Chingono, H. 2010. Zimbabwe sanctions: an analysis of the lingo guiding the perceptions of the sanctioners and the sanctionees. *African journal of political science and international relations*, 4(2):66-74.
- Chipika, J & Malaba, J. 2011. Indigenisation and economic empowerment in Zimbabwe, Harare: Business Council of Zimbabwe.
- Christensen, C. M. 2003. The innovator's dilemma: when new technologies cause great firms to fail. New York: Harper Collins.
- Civre, Z. & Omerzel. 2015. The behaviour of tourism firms in the area of innovativeness. *Economic research*, 28:312-330.
- Collins Dictionary. 2009 <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/zimbabwe> Date of access: 15 Feb. 2015.
- Collis, J. and Hussey, R. 2009. Business research. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Connor, T. 2003. Managing for competitiveness: a proposed model for managerial focus. *Strategic change*, 12(4):195-207.

- Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. 2011. Qualitative research. *Business research methods*, 160-182.
- Cosma, S., Paun, D., Bota, M. & Fleseriu, C. 2014. Innovation—a useful tool in the rural tourism in Romania. *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 148:507-515.
- Countryman, C.C. & Jang, S. 2006. The effects of atmospheric elements on customer impression: the case of hotel lobbies. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 18(7):534-545.
- Cracolici, M. F. & Nijkamp, P. 2008. The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destination: a study of Southern Italian regions. *Tourism management*, 30:336-344.
- Creswell, J.W. 2014. Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches. 4th ed. California: Sage.
- Croes, R. 2010. Measuring and explaining competitiveness in the context of small island destinations. *Journal of travel research*, 20(10):1-12.
- Crouch, G I. & Ritchie, J.R. 1999. Tourism, competitiveness and societal prosperity. *Journal of business research*, 44(3):137-52.
- Crouch, G.I. 2007. Modelling destination competitiveness. CRC for sustainable tourism. Queensland, Australia. p. 54 (Published report)
- Crouch, G.I. 2011. Destination competitiveness: an analysis of determinant attributes. *Journal of travel research*, 50(1):27-45.
- Curta, N.C. 2016. Competitiveness and performance in tourism. case study for Romania. *Quaestus*, (8):31-46.
- D'Emidio, T., Dorton, D. and Duncan, E. 2015. Service innovation in a digital world. *McKinsey quarterly*.
- Damanpour, F. & Schneider, M. 2006. Phases of the adoption of innovation in organizations: effects of environment, organization and top managers. *British journal of management*, 17(3):215-236.
- Damanpour, F., 1996. Organizational complexity and innovation: developing and testing multiple contingency models. *Management science*, 42(5):693-716.

Davila, T., Epstein, M. & Shelton, R. 2006. Making innovation work: how to manage it, measure it, and profit from it. Upper Saddle River: Wharton School Publishing.

Decelle, X. (2004) (*In Innovation and Growth in Tourism Lugano, Switzerland: OECD*).

Demming, 1980 (*In Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies.*

Dmitrović, T., Knežević Cvelbar, L., Kolar, T., Makovec Brenčič, M., Ograjenšek, I. & Žabkar, V. 2009. Conceptualizing tourist satisfaction at the destination level. *International journal of culture, tourism and hospitality research*, 3(2):116-126.

Dobrivojevic, G. 2013. Analysis of the competitive environment of tourist destinations aiming at attracting FDI by applying Porter's five forces model. *British journal of economics, management trade*, 3(4):359-371.

Doğan, H., Nebioğlu, O., Aydın, O. & Doğan, İ. 2013. Architectural Innovations are competitive advantage for hotels in tourism industry? What customers, managers and employees think about it? *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 99:701-710.

Dragičević, V., Jovičić, D., Blešić, I., Stankov, U. and Bošković, D., 2012. Business tourism destination competitiveness: A case of Vojvodina Province (Serbia). *Economic research*, 25(2):311-332.

Drucker, P. 1954. The principles of management. New York: Harper and Row.

Du Plessis, E., Saayman, M. & Van de Merwe, A . 2017. Explore changes in the aspects fundamental to the competitiveness of South Africa as a preferred tourist destination South *African journal of economic and management sciences*, 20(1):1-11.

Du Plessis, E., Saayman, M. & Van Der Merwe, A. 2015. What makes South African tourism competitive? *African journal of hospitality, tourism and leisure*, 4(2):1-14.

Du Plessis, M. 2007. The role of knowledge management in innovation. *Journal of knowledge management*, 11(4):20-29.

Dupeyras, A. & MacCallum, N. 2013. Indicators for measuring competitiveness in tourism. A Guidance Document", OECD Tourism Papers, 2013/02, OECD Publishing, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5k47t9q2t923-en> Date of access: 12 March 2014.

- Durna, U. & Babur, S. 2011. Otel işletmelerinde yenilik uygulamaları. *Uluslararası alanya İşletme fakültesi dergisi*, 3:74-97.
- Durst, S., Mention, A.L. & Poutanen, P. 2015. Service innovation and its impact: what do we know about? *Investigaciones europeas de dirección y economía de la empresa*, 21(2):65-72.
- Dwan, S. 2003. Juggling management basics. *NZ Business*, 17(5):44.
- Dwyer, L & Kim, C. 2003. Destination competitiveness: a model and determinants. *Current issues in tourism*, 6:369-414.
- Dwyer, L. Livaic, Z., Mellor, R. 2003. Competitiveness of Australia as a tourist destination. *Journal of hospitality and tourism management*, 10(1): 60–79.
- Dwyer, L., Dragičević, V., Armenski, T., Mihalič, T. & Cvelbar, L. 2014. Achieving destination competitiveness: an importance–performance analysis of Serbia. *Current issues in tourism*, 17(1):1–28.
- Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Livaic, Z., Edwards, D. & Kim, C. 2004. Attributes of destination competitiveness: a factor analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 9(1–2):91–101.
- Elkjaer, B. 2003. Social learning theory: Learning as Participation in Social Processes. (In M. Easterby-Smith & M. Lyles (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of organizational learning and knowledge management* (p. 38-53). Malden, Oxford, Melbourne, Berlin: Blackwell Publishing.
- Enright, M. J., Frances, A., & Scott-Saavedra, E. 1996. What is competitiveness www.tci-network.org/media/download/1185 Date of access: 25 May 2014.
- Enright, M.J. & Newton, J. 2004. Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach. *Tourism management*, 25(6):777-788.
- Enz, C.A. 2009. *Hospitality strategic management: concepts and cases*. London: John Wiley and sons.
- Enz, C.A. 2012. Strategies for the implementation of service innovations. *Cornell hospitality quarterly*, 53(3):187-195.
- Escribano, A., Fosfuri, A. & Tribo, A. J. 2009. Managing external knowledge flows: the moderating flow of absorptive capacity. *Research policy*, 38(1):96-105.

Ezreth, P. 2014. Ppp & cppp models for sustainable tourism development in kerala tourism in kerala – an introduction. *International journal of business and administration research review*, 2(3):11-17.

Fayol, H. 1916. Translated by Storrs, C. *General and industrial management*. London: Pitman

Fayol; H. 1949. *General industrial management*. London: Pitman.

Ferreira, D. & Perks, S. 2016. The influence of the political climate on South Africa's tourism industry the at the International academic research conference in London -Zurich p.263.

Figueired, P., Gomes, S. & Farias, R. 2010 Innovative technological capability in firms of the tourism sector: a study of the hotels in the city of Rio de Janeiro during the 1990-2008 period *Rap-Rio de Janeiro*, 44(5):1139-170.

Fleuren M, Wiefferink K. & Paulussen T. 2004. Determinants of innovation within health care organizations: literature review and Delphi study. *International journal in quality health care*, 16:107–23.

Follet, 1868-1933. (*In* Saayman, M. 2009. *Hospitality, leisure and tourism management*. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University.

Fouka G & Mantzorou, M. 2011. What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health science journal*, 5(1)3-14.

Freeman, R.E. 1984. *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach* . Boston: Pitman.

Freeman, R.E. 2010. *Strategic Management: a stakeholder approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Gantt, 1861-1919. (*In* Saayman, M. 2009. *Hospitality, leisure and tourism management*. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University).

Garelli, S. 2014. The fundamentals and history of competitiveness. *IMD World competitiveness yearbook*, p.492-507.

Gatignon, H., Tushman, M. L., Smith, W., & Anderson, P. 2002. A structural approach to assessing innovation: construct development of innovation locus, type, and characteristics. *Management science*, 48:1103–1122.

Gay, L.R., Mills, G.E. & Airasian, P. 2006. Educational research: competencies for analysis and research. Upper-Saddle River: Pearson.

Ghirelli, S. 2013. From destination management to destination governance. *After journal. esperienze e strumenti per cultura e territorio*, 5:1-5.

Gilbreths, 1908-1924 (In Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University).

Goffi, G. 2013. A model of tourism destination competitiveness: the case of the Italian destinations of excellence. *Anuario turismo y sociedad*, 14:121-147.

Goldkuhl, G. 2012. Pragmatism vs interpretivism in qualitative information systems research. *European journal of information systems*, 21(2):135-146.

Gomezelj, D.O. & Mihalič, T. 2008. Destination competitiveness—applying different models, the case of Slovenia. *Tourism management*, 29(2):294-307.

Gould R. W. 2012. Open innovation and stakeholder engagement. *Journal of technology management and innovation*, 7(3):1-11.

Grant, Robert, M. 1996. Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm, *Strategic management journal*, 17(special issue):109-122.

Gray P S. 2009. The research imagination: an introduction to qualitative and quantitative methods. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Guetterman, T.C., 2015, May. Descriptions of sampling practices within five approaches to qualitative research in education and the health sciences. In *Forum Qualitative: Qualitative Social Research*, 16(2). <http://dx.doi.org/10.17169/fqs-16.2.2290> Date of access: 2 May 2015.

Guisado-González, M., Guisado-Tato, M. and Vila-Alonso, M. 2012. How public funding and firms'innovation strategies affect the innovation of the Spanish hotel industry. *The innovation journal*, 17(2)1-18.

Gulick, 1892-1993 (In Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University).

Gunn, C. 1988. Vacation Space, Designing Tourists Regions: New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Guyer & Feuler, 1905. <https://cecevy.wordpress.com/2015/03/14/definition-of-tourism/> Date of access: 10 Dec. 2015.

Gyurácz-Németh, P., Friedrich, N. & Clarke, A. 2013. Innovation in special hotels—as a key to success. Paper presented at the Management, knowledge management and innovation International Conference, Zadar, Croatia, 19-21 June. <http://www.toknowpress.net/ISBN/978-961-6914-02-4/papers/ML13-301.pdf> Date of access: 14 May 2015.

Halawi L., Aronson, J. & McCarthy, R. 2005. Resource-Based View of knowledge management for competitive advantage. *Journal of knowledge management*, 3(2):75-86.

Hall, J., Matos, S., Sheehan, L. & Silvestre, B. 2012. Entrepreneurship and innovation at the base of the pyramid: a recipe for inclusive growth or social exclusion? *Journal of management studies*, 49(4):785-812.

Hallman, K., Muller, S., Feiler, S., Breuer, C. & Roth, R. 2012. Suppliers's perception of destination competitiveness in a winter sport spa resort. *Tourism review*, 67(2):12-21.

Harradence, F. 2009. New models of innovation for economic growth and sustainability <https://www.oecd.org/sti/inno/44282359.pdf> Date of access: 20 Nov. 2017

Harrison, J., Wicks, A. 2013. Stakeholder theory, value, and firm performance. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 23(1):97-124.

Harvard Business Essentials, 2003. Managing creativity and innovation. Boston: Harvard business school press.

Hassan, S.S. 2000. Determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable tourism industry. *Journal of travel research*, 38(3):239-245.

Heath, E. 2002. Towards a model to enhance Africa's sustainable tourism competitiveness.

Heath, R. 1986. The national survey of outdoor recreation in Zimbabwe. *Zambezia*, 13:25-42.

Herbst, F. & Coldwell, D. 2004. Business research. Cape Town: Juta and Company.

Hitt, M.A. 2011. Relevance of strategic management theory and research for supply chain management. *Journal of supply chain management*, 47(1):9-13.

Hjalager, A. M. 2010. A review of innovation research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31:1-12.

- Hjalager, A. M. 2015. 100 Innovations that transformed tourism. *Journal of travel research* 54(1):3-21.
- Hjalager, A.M. 2002. Repairing innovation defectiveness in tourism. *Tourism management*, 23(5):465-474.
- Hjalager, A.M. 2014. Disruptive and sustaining innovation: the case of rural tourism. Handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Hong, S.W.C., 2008. Competitiveness in the tourism sector: a comprehensive approach from economic and management points. Springer science & business media.
- Hong, W. C. 2009. Global competitiveness measurement for the tourism sector. *Current issues in tourism*, 12(2):105-132.
- Hoskisson, R.E., Hitt, M.A., Ireland, R.D. & Harrison, J.S. 2012. Competing for advantage. Boston: Cengage Learning.
- Hove, M. 2012. The debates and impact of sanctions: the Zimbabwean experience. *International journal of business and social science*, 3(5):72-84.
- Huda, K., Haque, A. & Khan, R. 2014. Effective recruitment challenges faced by the hospitality Industry in Bangladesh: a study on selected star rated residential hotels. *Economia. seria management*, 17(2):210-222.
- Hughes, D.M. 2006. Whites and water: how Euro-Africans made nature at Kariba dam. *Journal of Southern African studies*, 32(4):823-838.
- Huttasin, N., Mommaas, H. and Knippenberg, L. 2015. Towards tourism development of the Isan region, Northeastern Thailand. *International journal of Asia-Pacific studies*, 11:103-128.
- International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2007. Promoting rural innovations through grants. <https://www.ifad.org/pub/newsletter/preview/tags/5421035> Date of access: 24 Jun. 2015.
- ITC, 2014. Fostering sustainability in tourism. <http://www.tradeforum.org/article/Fostering-sustainability-in-tourism/> Date of access: 29 Nov. 2017.
- Jesson, J., Matheson, L. & Lacey, F.M. 2011. Doing your literature review: traditional and systematic techniques. London: Sage.

Jonker, J.A., Heath, E.T. and Du Toit, C.M. 2004. The identification of management-process critical success factors that will achieve competitiveness and sustainable growth for South Africa as tourist destination. *Southern African business review* 8(2):1-15.

Journal of public administration, 37(3.1):327-353.

Jurevicius, O. 2013. PEST & PESTEL analysis. *Strategic management insight*, 13.
<https://www.strategicmanagementinsight.com> › Strategy Tool Date of access: 15 May 2015.

Karambakuwa, R.T., Shonhiwa, T., Murombo, L., Mauchi, F.N., Gopo, N.R., Denhere, W., Tafirei, F., Chingarande, A. & Mudavanhu, V. 2010. The impact of Zimbabwe tourism authority initiatives on tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe 2008-2009. *Journal of sustainable development in Africa*, 13(6):68-77.

Katz, D. , & Kahn, R. L. 1966. *The social psychology of organisations*. New York: John Wiley and sons

Kelman, H. C. 1977. Privacy and research with human beings. *Journal of social issues*, 33(2):169-195.

Kilipiris, F. & Zardava, S. 2012. Developing sustainable tourism in a changing environment: issues for the tourism enterprises (travel agencies and hospitality enterprises). *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 44:44-52.

Kippy, J. 2013. Innovation needs foundation support: the case of Social Impact Bonds. *Community development investment review*: 75-78.

Kokkranikal, J.& Morrison, A. 2011. Community networks and sustainable livelihoods in tourism: the role of entrepreneurial innovation. *Tourism planning & development*, 8(2):137-156.

Komppula, R. 2014. The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination– a case study. *Tourism management*, 40:361-37Kooontz, H. 1961. The management theory jungle. *Academy of management journal*, 4(3):174-188.

Kreitner, R. 1989. Career and stress management. R. Kreitner (ed.), *Management (pp. A1-A9)*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Kroeze, J.H. 2011. Interpretivism in information systems: a postmodern epistemology. *All sprouts content paper*, 48(5)1-12.

Lazzeretti, L. Petrillo, C. S. 2013. *Tourism local systems and networking*. London: Routledge.

- Leiper, N. 1979. The Framework of tourism: towards a definition of tourism, tourist and the tourist industry. *Annals of tourism research*, 6 (4):390-407.
- Leiper, N. 1990. Partial industrialization of tourism systems. *Annals of tourism research*, 17:600-605.
- Litvin, S. W. 2012. Hospitality, tourism and politics. *Boston hospitality review* : 18-21.
- Lopez, K.A. & Willis, D.G. 2004. Descriptive versus interpretive phenomenology: their contributions to nursing knowledge. *Qualitative health research*, 14(5):726-735.
- Luecke, R. & Katz, R. 2003. Harvard business essentials: managing creativity and innovation. Harvard business school press.
- Lynch, B.K. 2001. Rethinking assessment from a critical perspective. *Language testing*, 18(4):351-372.
- Macerinskiene, A. & Mikaliuniene, G. 2014. Peculiarities of tourism business innovations in Lithuania. *European journal of tourism, hospitality and recreation*: 231-255.
- MacGregor, D. 1960. The human side of enterprise. 21(166-171): New York.
- MacGregor, D. 1960. The human side of enterprise. 21(166-171): New York.
- Maclean, M., Harvey, C. & Gordon, J. 2013. Social innovation, social entrepreneurship and the practice of contemporary entrepreneurial philanthropy. *International small business journal*, 31(7):747-763.
- Mahmood, Z., Basharat, M. and Bashir, Z. 2012. Review of classical management theories. *International journal of social sciences & education*, 2(1):512-522.
- Marakova, V. & Medvedvova, M. 2016. Innovation in tourism destinations. *Forum scientiae oeconomia*, 4:33-43.
- Maravic, M., Križaj, D. & Lesjak, M. 2015. Innovation in Slovenian tourism organisations. *Tourism and hospitality management*, 21(1):51-62.
- Marcelle, G., Nkhumise, L., & Vawda, S. 2013. Making innovation and science relevant for poor communities: the case of a water management project in South Africa. Paper presented at the University of Manchester centre for development informatics, Institute for development policy

and management, and Manchester institute of innovation research, Manchester, 4-5 July Date of access: 25 Jun. 2015.

March, J. G. 1991. Exploration and exploitation in organizational learning. *Organisation science*, 2(1):71-87.

Martinez-Roman, J. A., Tamayao, J. A , Gamero, J. & Ramero, J. 2015. Innovativeness and business performances in tourism SMEs. *Annals of tourism research*, (54):118-135.

Martinez-Ros, E. & Orfila-Sintes, F. 2009. Innovation activity in the hotel industry. *Technovation*, 29(9):632-641.

Marvel, M.R. & Lee, I.H. 2011. Gender and the innovation activity of entrepreneurs: a multilevel analysis. *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research*, 31(8):283–296.

Mason, H.D. 2013. Meaning in life within an African context: a mixed method study. *Journal of psychology in Africa*, 23(4):635-638.

Mathieson, A. and Wall, G. 1982. *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*, New York: Longman.

Matsa, M. 2014. *Connecting people with wildlife: Lessons from selected education and conservation projects of Zimbabwe*. *African journal of social sciences*, 4(1):115-126.

Mayo, E. 1930. The human effect of mechanization. *The American economic review*, 20(1):56-176.

Mazanec, J. A. & Ring, A. 2011. World Economic Forum reports. Tourism destination competitiveness: second thoughts on the *Tourism economics*, 17(4):725-751.

Mazanec, J.A., Wöber, K. & Zins, A.H. 2007. Tourism destination competitiveness: from definition to explanation? *Journal of travel research*, 46(1):86-95.

Mazurek, M. 2014. Competitiveness in tourism—models of tourism competitiveness and their applicability. *European journal of tourism, hospitality and recreation*, Special issue: 73-94.

McIntosh, R.G., Goeldner, C.R. and Ritchie, J.R., B. 1995. *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Mechinda, P., Serirat, S., Popaijit, N., Lertwannawit, A., & Anuwichanont, J. 2010. The relative impact of competitiveness factors and destination equity on tourist's loyalty in Koh Chang, Thailand. *International business & economics research journal*, 9(10):99–114.
- Mei, X. Y., Arcodia, C., Ruhanen, L. 2013. Innovation and collaboration: the role of the national government in Norway. *Tourism analysis*, 18:519–531.
- Mei, X.Y., Arcodia, C. and Ruhanen, L., 2010. A national government's tourism innovation initiatives: A review of tourism development policies in Norway. Paper presented at The 21st Council for Australian university tourism and hospitality education annual conference (CAUTHE 2011) (p.1-20). School of Management, University of South Australia.
- Mirimi, K., Shumba, K., Chiutsi, S., Hurombo, B. & Mangwiwo, M. 2013. Zimbabwe tourism branding in perspective: can the undiscovered tourism gems be the panacea to destination competitiveness? *International journal of development and sustainability*, 2(2):1365-1376.
- Mirimi, K., Vengesayi, S., Kabote, F. & Chikafu, J. 2014. Tour operators perceptions on “Zimbabwe: a world of wonders” tourism brand. *IOSR journal of business and management*, 16(1):107-117
- Mkono, M. 2012. Zimbabwe's tourism woes in the last Decade: hindsight lessons for African tourism planners and managers. *Tourism planning and development*, 9(2):205–210.
- Mortensen, P.S. & Bloch, C.W. 2005. Oslo manual-guidelines for collecting and interpreting innovation data: proposed guidelines for collecting and interpreting innovation data. Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development, OECD.
- Mpofu, B. 2015. Zimbabwe drops in global index
<https://www.theindependent.co.zw/2015/10/02/zim-drops-in-global-competitive-index/> Date of access: 10 May 2015.
- Muchapondwa, E. & Pamhidzai, O. 2011. Modelling international tourism demand for Zimbabwe. *International journal of business and social science*, 2(2):71-81.
- Mugwati, M., Nkala, D. & Mashiri, E. 2016. Lessons from the Zimbabwe hotel sector during the hyper-Inflationary period. (In Kararach, G. & Otieno, R.O. eds. 2016. *Economic management in a hyperinflationary environment: the political economy of Zimbabwe, 1980-2008*. London: Oxford University Press.

Munoz, M., Munoz, M. & Zuniga-Collazos, J. 2013. Tourism and innovation in China and Spain: a review of innovation research on tourism. *Tourism economics*, 19 (2):319-337.

Munsterberg, 1863-1916. (In Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University).

Mupfuvi, B. 2014. Land to the people: peasants and nationalism in the development of land ownership structure in Zimbabwe from pre-colonialism to the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) period. Manchester United: Salford (Thesis-PhD).

Mutambanengwe, J. 2012. Zimbabwe: obstacles to SME success in the country. Harare: Financial Gazette. Available on www.smeaz.org Date of 12 March 2014.

Mutsena, C. and Kabote, F. 2015. Zimbabwe policy environment and domestic tourism performance. *International journal of safety and security in tourism and hospitality*, 1(13):1-13

Muzapu, R. & Sibanda, M. 2016. Tourism development strategies in Zimbabwe. *Management*, 6(3):55-63.

Mytelka, L.K. 2000. Local systems of innovation in a globalized world economy. *Industry and innovation*, 7(1):15-32.

Mzumara, M. 2012. An overview of Zimbabwe's macro-economic environment international. *Journal of economics and research*, 3(1):32-68.

Najda-Janoszka, M. & Kopera, S. 2014. Exploring barriers to innovation in tourism industry—the case of southern region of Poland. *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 110:190-201.

National Tourism Policy **see** Zimbabwe.

Ndoda, R. G. 2015. An overview of the tourism and Hospitality industry in Zimbabwe and the World. Harare: University of Zimbabwe Publications.

Neuman, W. L. 2014. Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.

Nilsson-Andersen, P. & Andersen, J. 2012. Green business model innovation in the tourism and experience economy-Cases from Austria, Portugal, Denmark, Finland, Mexico, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Russia and South Korea. Nordic Council of Ministers.

Novelli, M., Schmitz, B. & Spencer, T. 2005. Networks, clusters and innovation in tourism: a UK experience. *Tourism Management*, 27:1141–1152.

Nyaruwata, S. & Runyowa D. 2017. Visitor perceptions on Zimbabwe as a tourist destination and implications for policy directions. *African journal of hospitality, tourism and leisure*, 6(2):1-8

Nylander, M & Hall, D. 2005. Rural Tourism Policy European perspectives. (In Hall D Kirkpatrick, I. & Mitchell, M. eds. *Rural Tourism and Sustainable Business*: Channel view Cleverdon.

O'leary, Z. 2014. *The essential guide to doing research project*. 2nd ed. London: Sage

Okpara, F.O. 2007. The value of creativity and innovation in entrepreneurship. *Journal of Asia entrepreneurship and sustainability*, 3(2):1-14.

Olum, Y. 2004. *Modern management theories and practices*. Uganda: Makerere University.

Omerzel, D.G. 2016. A systematic review of research on innovation in hospitality and tourism, *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 28(3):516-558.

Organisation for Economic Corporation Development (OECD), 2005. SME and entrepreneurship outlook <http://www.oecd.org/cfe/smes/oecdsmehandentrepreneurshipoutlook-2005edition.htm> Date of access: 12 May 2015.

Organisation for Economic Corporation Development (OECD), 2010. Tourism trends and policies. <http://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/oecdtourismtrendspolicies2010.htm> Date of access: 25 Jun 2015.

Organisation for Economic Corporation Development *OECD*, 2013. *Green innovation in tourism services*. *OECD Tourism Papers*, 2013/01, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5k4bxkt1cjd2-en>. Date of access: 7 May 2014.

Oster, G. 2009. Emergent innovation: a new strategic paradigm. *Journal of strategic leadership*, 2(1):40-56.

Ottenbacher, M. 2007. Innovation management in the hospitality industry: different strategies for achieving success. *Journal of hospitality & tourism research*, 31(4):431-454.

Papp, Z. & Raffay, A. 2011. Factors influencing the tourism competitiveness of former socialist countries'. *Journal of studies and research in human geography*, 5(2):21-30.

- Penrose, E., 1959. *The theory of the firm*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Peters, T.J., Waterman, R.H. & Jones, I. 1982. *In search of excellence. Lessons from America's best-run companies*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Petrou, A., & Daskalopoulou, I. 2013. Social capital and innovation in the services sector. *European journal of innovation management*, 16(1):50-69.
- Platzer, M.D. 2014. *US travel and tourism: industry trends and policy issues for congress*.
- Poon, A. 1993. *Tourism, technology and competitive strategies*. Wallingford: CABI
- Porter, M.E. 1980. *Competitive strategy: Techniques for analyzing industries and competition*. New York: The Free Press.
- Porter, M.E. 1985. *Competitive advantage creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: The Free Press.
- Porter, M.E. 1990. The competitive advantage of nations. *Harvard business review*, 68(2):73-93.
- Porter, M.E. 2000. Locations, clusters, and company strategy. *The Oxford handbook of economic geography*. 253-274.
- Quinlan, T. 2008. *A stakeholder approach to the branding of urban tourism destinations* Waterford: WT (Thesis-Phd).
- Quintane, E., Mitch Casselman, R., Sebastian Reiche, B. & Nylund, P.A. 2011. Innovation as a knowledge-based outcome. *Journal of knowledge management*, 15(6):928-947.
- Ransley, J. & Ingram, H. 2001. What is "good" hotel design? *Facilities*, 19(1/2):79-87.
- Reguia, C. 2014. Product innovation and the competitive advantage. *European scientific journal*, special ed. (1):140-157.
- Resnik, D. B. 2015 What is ethics in research and why is it important. <https://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/index.cfm> Date of access: 20 Feb. 2017.
- Ritchie, J.R.B. & Crouch, G.I. 2000. The competitive destination: a sustainability perspective. *Tourism management*, 21(1):1-7.

Ritchie, J.R.B. & Crouch, G.I. 2003. The competitive destination: a sustainable tourism perspective. Wallingford: CABI.

Robbins, S. & Coulter, M. 2013. Management. New Jersey: Prentice hall.

Robinson, O.C. 2014. Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: a theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 11(1):25-41.

Rodriguez-Sanchez, I. Williams A. M. & Brotons, M. 2017. The innovation journey of new-to-tourism entrepreneurs, *Current issues in tourism*, p. 1-27 DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2017.1334763 Date of access: 10 Nov. 2017.

Ronningen, M. & Lien, G. 2014. The importance of systemic features for innovation orientation in tourism firms handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, p.27-55.

Rosen, Y. & Tager, M., 2013. Computer-based performance assessment of creativity skills: a pilot study. Pearson Research Report. Paper presented at the International Association for Educational Assessment Conference, May 25-30, 2014, Singapore.
OnlinePerformanceAssessmentofCreativitySkills.pdf Date of access: 16 Feb 2014.

Rousse M. 2016. Data and data management. <http://searchcio.techtarget.com/definition/data-collection> Date of access: 16 Jul. 2016.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. 2010. Research methods for social work Belmont: Cengage/Brooks and Cole.

Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University.

Sachdeva, A. 2013. Encounter with March's organizational learning model. *Review of integrated business economic research*, 2(2):602-615.

Sanderson, A. & Mudzonga, E. 2016. The performance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe during the 2000–08 economic crisis. Economic management in a hyperinflationary environment: the political economy of Zimbabwe, 1980-2008. p.85 ed. by Kararach, G., Otieno, R. O. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Santos, L. & Teixeira, A.A. 2013. Determinants of innovation performance of Portuguese companies: an econometric analysis by type of innovation and sector with a particular focus on Services (No. 494). Universidade do Porto, Faculdade de Economia do Porto.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2009. Research methods for business students. 5th ed. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Scarnecchia, T. 2008. The urban roots of democracy and political violence in Zimbabwe: Harare and Highfield, 1940-1964:35. Rochester: University Rochester Press.
- Schumpeter, J. A. 1934. The theory of economic development: an inquiry into profits, capital and the business cycle. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Shelton, R. 2009. Intergration of product and service innovation. *Research technology management*, 52(3):38-44.
- Sidharth T. & Richtie, L. 2010. <http://www.brighthubpm.com/project-planning/101201-history-of-the-pest-analysis/> Date of access 3 March 2016.
- Silverman, D. 2010. Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook. 3rd ed. London: Sage.
- Silverman, D. 2013. Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook. London: Sage.
- Silverman, D. 2014. Interpreting qualitative data. 5th ed. London: Sage.
- Siwadi, P., & Chaderopa, C. 2012. Cultural tourism: the alternative. *The Dyke*, 6(3):36-52.
- Slevitch, L. 2011. Qualitative and quantitative methodologies compared: ontological and epistemological perspectives. *Journal of quality assurance in hospitality & tourism*, 12(1): 73-81.
- Smaranda, Cosma., Paun, D., Bota, M. & Fleseuri, C. 2014. Innovation – a useful tool in the rural tourism in Romania. *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 148:507-515.
- Smit, A.J. 2010. The competitive advantage of nations: Is Porter's diamond framework a new theory that explains the international competitiveness of countries? *Southern African business review*, 14(1):105-130.
- Smith, D. 2006. Exploring innovation. London: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Smith, D. 2010. Exploring innovation. 2nd ed. London: McGraw-Hill Education.

Sørensen, F. 2007. The geographies of social networks and innovation in tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 9(1):22-48.

Souitaris, V. 2003. Determinants of technological innovation: current research trends and future prospects. *The international handbook on innovation*, 7(7):513-528.

Stake, R.E. 1995. The art of case study research. London: Sage.

State, O. & Iorgulescu, M. 2014. The impact of management and organizational culture on creativity in the hotel industry. *Contemporary Approaches and Challenges of Tourism Sustainability*, 16(8):1205-1221.

Stickdorn, M., Zehrer, A. 2009. A service design in tourism: customer experience driven destination management first Nordic Conference on service design and service innovation. Oslo 24th – 26th November p.1-15.

Sundbo, J. 2009. Innovation in the experience economy: taxonomy of innovation organisations. *The service industries journal*, 29(4):431-455.

Sundbo, J., Orfila-Sintes, F., Sørensen, F. 2007. The innovative behaviour of tourism firms - Comparative studies of Denmark and Spain research policy. 36:88-106.

Takeuchi, H. 2013. Knowledge-based view of strategy. *Universia business review cuarto trimestre*, 1698-5117.

Taylor, F.W. 1911. Principles of scientific management. New York: Harper and Row.

The Failte Ireland National Tourism authority. 2009.

http://www.failteireland.ie/FailteIreland/media/WebsiteStructure/Documents/3_Research_Insights/3_General_SurveysReports/TourismFacts2009.pdf?ext=.pdf Date of access: 28May 2014.

The Mirriam- Webster dictionary. [www.wordcentral.com/cgi-](http://www.wordcentral.com/cgi-bin/student?book=Student&va=assessment)

[bin/student?book=Student&va=assessment](http://www.wordcentral.com/cgi-bin/student?book=Student&va=assessment). Date of access: 15 Feb. 2015.

Thenint, H., 2010. Global review of innovation intelligence and policy studies. Innovation in the public sector. INNO-GRIPS. grips-public.mediactive.fr/knowledge_base/dl/889/orig_doc_file/ Date of access: 10 Mar. 2016.

Tsai, H., Song, H. & Wong, K.K. 2009. Tourism and hotel competitiveness research. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 26(5-6):522-546.

Tuohy, D., Cooney, A., Dowling, M., Murphy, K. & Sixsmith, J. 2013. An overview of interpretive phenomenology as a research methodology. *Nurse researcher*, 20(6):17-20.

Turkson, J. K. & Opoku, A., K. 2010. Managerial creativity and innovation: a panacea for organizational change and development. *Global business & economics anthology*, 2:117-126.

Ugurlu, T. 2010. Definition of Tourism (UNWTO Definition of tourism)[online]: <http://www.tugberkugurlu.com/archive/definition-of-tourism-unwto-definition-of-tourism-what-is-tourism> Date of access: 19 Jul. 2015.

United Nations Environmental Programme. 2007. Global environmental outlook 4. Nairobi: UNEP.

United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2007. Climate Change and Tourism: Responding to global challenges. <http://sdt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/summarydavose.pdf> Date of access: 10 February 2015.

United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2011. <http://www2.unwto.org/publication/unwto-annual-report-2012> Date of access: 15 Jun. 2015.

United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2015. <http://www2.unwto.org/publication/unwto-annual-report-2015> Date of access: 15 Jan. 2016.

Vanhove, N. 2011. The economics of tourism destinations. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Veerakumaran, B. 2009. The effect of service innovation and customer choices on customer value in the hospitality industry in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur: UM (Thesis-PhD).

Vengesayi, S. 2003. A conceptual model of tourism destination competitiveness and attractiveness: Paper presented ANZMAC 2003 Conference proceedings, 1-3 December, Adelaide, ANZMAC. p. 637-647.

Victorino, L., Verma, R., Plaschka, G. & Dev, C. 2005. Service innovation and customer choices in the hospitality industry. *Managing service quality: an international journal*, 15(6):555-576.

Vila, M., Enz, C. & Costa, G. 2012. Innovative practices in the Spanish hotel industry. *Cornell hospitality quarterly*, 53(1):75-85.

Vivarelli, M. 2015. Innovation and employment. IZA world of labour <https://wol.iza.org/uploads/articles/154/pdfs/innovation-and-employment.pdf> Date of access: 10 Feb. 2016.

- Vos, A.H., 2010. Service innovation: managing innovation from idea generation to innovative offer. Enschede: UT (Dissertation, Msc).
- Vutete, C. & Chigora, F., 2016. The rural market and urban market integration: A marketing panacea to economic development issues of Zimbabwe. *Business and economic research*, 6(1):234-247.
- Walliman, N., 2011. Your research project: Designing and planning your work. 3rd ed. London: Sage.
- Weber, 1904. (In Saayman, M. 2009. Hospitality, leisure and tourism management. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom: Institute for tourism and leisure studies, North-West University).
- Webster, C., Ivanov, S. 2014. Transforming competitiveness into economic benefits: Does tourism stimulate economic growth in more competitive destinations? *Tourism management*, 40:137-140.
- Weick, K.E. 1979. Cognitive processes in organizations. *Research in organizational behavior*, 1(1):41-74.
- Weiermair, K. 2006. Product improvement or innovation: what is the key to success in tourism? Innovation and growth in tourism. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, p. 53-69.
- Weng, H.H.R., Chen, J.S. & Chen, P.C. 2015. Effects of green innovation on environmental and corporate performance: a stakeholder perspective. *Sustainability*, 7(5):4997-5026.
- Wernerfelt, B. 1984. A resource-based view of the firm. *Strategic management journal*, 5(2):171-180.
- Wilde, S. J. & Cox, C. 2008. Linking destination competitiveness and destination development: findings from a mature Australian tourism destination. Paper presented at the Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA) European chapter conference - competition in tourism: business and destination perspectives, Helsinki, Finland, p. 467-478.
- Willis, J.W. & Jost, M. 2007. Foundations of qualitative research: interpretive and critical approaches. London: Sage.
- World Economic Forum (WEF), 2012. The travel & tourism competitiveness report 2012. Geneva: World Economic Forum Publications.

World Economic Forum (WEF), 2015. The travel & tourism competitiveness report 2015. Geneva: World Economic Forum Publications.

World Economic Forum (WEF), 2017. The travel & tourism competitiveness report 2017. Geneva: World Economic Forum Publications.

World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), 2015. Travel & tourism economic impact report: London.

Yucelen, M. & Yigitbas, K. 2010. An Exploration of knowledge management and service innovation strategy in the Turkish Hotel. (*In conference paper for CHRIE 2010*). <http://eurochrie2010.nl/publications/111.pdf> Date of Access: 10 November 2016.

Zach, F. 2016. Collaboration for innovation in tourism organizations: leadership support, innovation formality, and communication. *Journal of hospitality & tourism research*, 40(3):271-290.

Zakic, N., Jovanovic, A. & Stamatovic, M. 2008. External and internal factors affecting the product and business process innovation. *Economics and Organization*, 5(1):17-29.

Zbigniew, Z. 2015. Innovation development in regional tourism enterprises. Paper presented at the 3rd International scientific conference in tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe (*ToSEE*), Opatija, Croatia.

Zehrer, A. & Hallmann, K. 2015. A stakeholder perspective on policy indicators of destination competitiveness. *Journal of destination marketing & management*, 4(2):120-126.

Zhang, H., Gu, C. Gu, I. & Zhang, Y. 2011. The evaluation of tourism destination competitiveness by topsis & information entropy: A case in the Yangtze River Delta of China. *Tourism management*, 32:443-451.

Zhou, Z. 2016. Post 2010 evaluation of Zimbabwe as a preferred tourist destination. *African journal of hospitality tourism and leisure*, 5(1):1-15.

Zhou, Y., Maumbe, K., Deng, J. & Selin, S.W., 2015. Resource-based destination competitiveness evaluation using a hybrid analytic hierarchy process (AHP): The case study of West Virginia. *Tourism management perspectives*, 15:72-80.

Zikmund, W.G. 2000. Business research methods. 6th ed. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press

ZIMASSET (Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation). 2013. Towards an Empowered Society and a Growing Economy. Government of Zimbabwe. <http://www.zw.one.un.org/sites/default/files/Zim%20Asset.pdf> Date of access: 15 July 2015.

ZTA, 2005 Tourism trends and statistics report (2004). Harare: ZTA Publications.

ZTA, 2008 Tourism trends and statistics report (2007). Harare: ZTA Publications.

ZTA, 2014 Tourism trends and statistics report (2013). Harare: ZTA Publications.

ZTA, 2016 Tourism trends and statistics report (2015). Harare: ZTA Publications.

APPENDIX 1: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Gender	Female Male
Level of qualification	Diploma Higher National Diploma First Degree Master's Degree
Occupation	Supervisor Manager Executive officer Entrepreneur
Sector	Accommodation Travel trade Safari operations Key informant
Region- place	Harare Victoria Falls Mutare Kadoma Chinhoyi Bulawayo

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Question 1

What is your understanding of the term tourism competitiveness?

Question 2

In your own opinion what makes a destination to be competitive?

Question 3

Can you comment on the competitiveness of Zimbabwe?

Question 4

What is your understanding of the term innovation?

Question 5

What are the innovations being practiced in your organization?

Question 6

Explain the reasons which motivate your organisation to innovate.

Question 7

Describe the innovation process in your organisation.

Question 8

What strategies/conditions do you think Zimbabwe as a destination should implement in-order to nurture/ encourage/incubate the spirit of innovation?