

LEISURE TRAVEL PATTERNS OF ZIMBABWE'S URBAN POPULATION AND THEIR PREDICTORS

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This study sought to measure the current leisure travel propensity of Zimbabwe's urban residents. The study was prompted by the limited information regarding domestic tourism worldwide and particularly in developing countries despite efforts by some of these countries such as Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Rwanda to promote domestic tourism. There is therefore a need to provide updated information on domestic leisure travel patterns and their predictors. This may enhance the development of more appropriate domestic tourism strategies for the countries from which domestic tour packages and marketing strategies can be designed to stimulate this market. The data for this study were collected from a survey of 600 urban dwellers from the country's five major urban areas, namely Harare, Bulawayo, Gweru, Mutare, and Masvingo. A comprehensive self-administered questionnaire was employed to collect the relevant data on leisure travel patterns and willingness to travel for leisure. Cross tabulations, chi-square tests, and multivariate logistic regression analysis, using STATA version 11.0, were used to assess the association between the variables. A number of intriguing and interesting revelations were noted in this study. The key recommendation emanating from this study is the need for Zimbabwe and other developing countries to urgently establish agencies that conduct surveys on domestic tourism. Furthermore, due to the common dilemma of underfunding in these countries, institutions of higher learning, especially those universities offering tourism studies, could undertake these surveys using their research grants.

Key words: Leisure; Travel patterns; Predictors; Travel propensity; Zimbabwe

Introduction

One cannot overemphasize the fact that tourism has become one of the key economic drivers in many economies today. The United Nations World Tourism Organization reports that tourism is among

the top five export categories for 83% of all developing countries worldwide (Deng, King, & Bauer, 2002; United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO], 2008). Tourism has also become the world's fastest growing industry and its contribution to the world economy has been enormous

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(Mariki, Hasan, Maganga, Modest, & Salehe, 2011). Tourism research has so far mainly focused on international, in- and outbound tourism (Eijgelaar, Peeters, & Piket, 2008). This is evidenced by the more consistent international tourism statistics from the UNWTO among other organizations, yet international tourism is just a part of global tourism (UNWTO, 2008). In several countries, domestic tourism is many times larger than international tourism as is the case in China where domestic tourism is far larger than its international counterpart (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2007; World Travel & Tourism Council [WTTC], 2006).

A recent study revealed that in 2005 there were an estimated total of 4.750 billion arrivals globally. Of this total, 750 million were international and 4.0 billion were domestic arrivals; half of which were in developing countries (UNWTO/United Nations Environment Programme [UNEP], 2008). This shows the magnitude of domestic tourism worldwide and particularly in developing countries. Domestic tourism has been identified, if well planned, as a cushion in times of foreign revenue deficit due to the volatile nature of international tourism (Mariki et al., 2011). This stems from the fact that international tourism is highly sensitive to negative political and economic developments. The above observations strengthen the need to make domestic tourism an agenda for developing countries including Zimbabwe. Domestic tourism should therefore significantly complement international tourism for better tourism development.

It is rather unfortunate that the current state of affairs in developing countries denotes what Ghimire (2001) refers to as the "Northern bias" where all policy is biased towards developing international tourism. Moseley, Sturgis, and Wheeler (2007) concur with this idea as revealed by their study in Namibia, which showed that Namibia tourism catered for the international market while ignoring the domestic market. This approach to African studies reflects a colonial perspective that places the affluent Northern tourists on center stage. Very little is documented on tourism demand in general, especially in African countries including Zimbabwe. Consequently, travel patterns, predictors, and propensities for these economies remain unknown. This is particularly true for domestic

tourism where very little information is provided with respect to destinations, distance traveled, and number of trips as well as expenditure per leisure trip (Mariki et al., 2011). This gap has to be closed.

Research Arena

Since independence in 1980, tourism in Zimbabwe has been ranked third in terms of its contribution to gross domestic product (GDP), after Agriculture and Mining. Tourists have been flocking into the country, especially from Europe and the Americas and, of late, the Far East. The tourism industry developed rapidly as the peace and political stability of the country improved and tourist numbers doubled and at times trebled. During the decade 1989–1999, tourist arrivals grew at an average growth rate of 17.5% while tourism receipts increased at an average annual rate of 18% in US\$ terms and 25% in Z\$ (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority [ZTA], 2000) (Fig. 1).

The tourism honeymoon ended in 1999–2000 when the controversial land redistribution program was started. The program's echoes reverberated throughout the world and there were mixed reactions from the Western, Eastern, and African markets. While most African countries viewed the land reform program as a welcome event, not everyone viewed it that way. The Western media portrayed the situation in Zimbabwe as extremely bad and not conducive to tourism development.

This situation saw many international tourists and tourism investors shunning the then "Africa's Paradise." About 75% of the more than 40 international airlines that used to fly to Zimbabwe also withdrew their services to the country, making long haul travel very difficult. Today less than 10 international airlines fly into Zimbabwe. The adverse political and economic situation saw the country experiencing its worst performance since independence with an 11% decline in tourist arrivals in the year 1999–2000 and a further 32% decline in tourist receipts in the same period. One big lesson that the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) learned from this mishap is: never to put all eggs in one basket as overdependence on the international market, particularly the Western market, paid adverse dividends to the country.

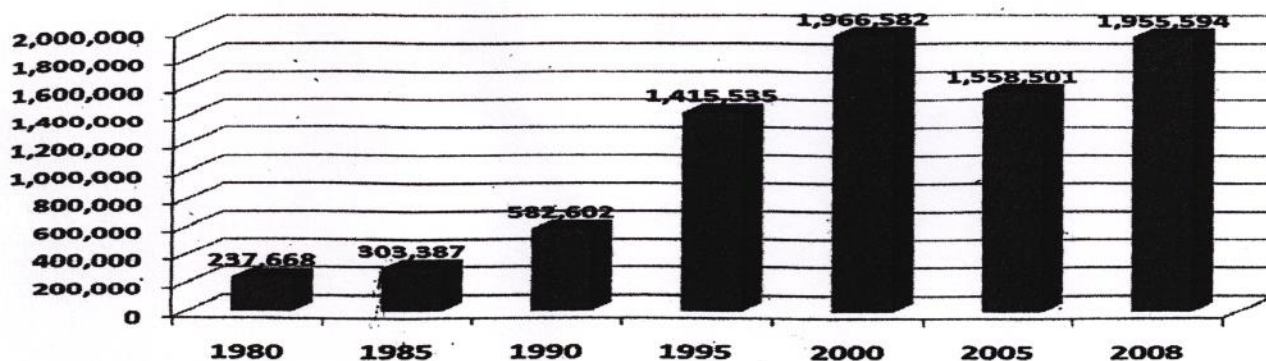


Figure 1. Tourist arrivals to Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2008. Source: Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (2008).

After experiencing disappointments from the traditional and Eastern markets, the ZTA and the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry realized the need to promote domestic tourism. As already alluded to, this facet of tourism has for long been neglected, yet in countries like China, Kenya, Australia, and Portugal it is regarded as the lifeblood for sustainable tourism development (UNWTO, 2008).

According to the ZTA (2010), visitor information relating specifically to domestic tourism in Zimbabwe is lacking and no demand figures for the different target markets could be sourced by the time the National Tourism Organization (NTO) was drafting its strategic domestic tourism plan in 2011. All that was available for them was the 2005 survey, which did not clearly define key segments that travel within Zimbabwe. Further, the 2005 survey was carried out at a time when the economic situation in Zimbabwe had already started to show signs of decline and the results were not likely to reflect the true position of Zimbabweans in as far as travel patterns were concerned. The 2005 survey was too general in terms of purpose of visit and this information is now obsolete.

This study, therefore, sought to measure the current leisure travel patterns of urban residents in Zimbabwe and their predictors. Specific emphasis was placed on leisure travel (which is a measure of primary demand for travel). It also targeted the country's urban residents, whom the researchers deemed more likely to travel for leisure, perhaps due to the fact that they are considered the economically active population. Without this information, efforts to promote domestic tourism may be in vain. The targeted respondents were samples from

high- and low- density residents in Zimbabwe's five largest cities (Harare, Bulawayo, Gweru, Mutare, and Masvingo). The fact that the ZTA acknowledges that there is no information on travel demand by locals in Zimbabwe makes this research appropriate and timely. This research will contribute towards closing the literature gap on domestic tourism especially in less developed countries.

Structurally, the article is made up of four sections. The next section reviews literature on leisure travel patterns and their determinants. It is then followed by a methods section, which details the data collection methods employed. The results are then presented and the final section concludes with a discussion of results and conclusions drawn from the study.

Brief Literature Review

This section reviews the literature related to leisure travel patterns and their determinants or predictors. To achieve this, firstly literature on how leisure is defined and understood will be reviewed, followed by a review of literature on leisure travel predictors. This discussion will then lead to the development of a conceptual framework for the research. The final part of this review will focus on leisure travel predictors and their resultant patterns. These leisure travel predictors and travel patterns are circumscribed by a complex array of factors (see Table 1).

Views on Leisure Travel Predictors and Patterns

There are three interlinked perspectives of leisure. Firstly, leisure can be defined as time left after work, or besides work (Holloway, Davidson, &

Table 1
Summary of Leisure Travel Predictors: Predictors
at the Individual Level

Life Style Predictors	Life Cycle Predictors
Income and employment	Childhood
Paid holiday entitlement	Adolescence
Education	Marriage
Personal mobility	Empty nest
Attitudes and perceptions towards holidaying	Old age
Gender	

Humphreys, 2009). Secondly, leisure can be viewed as any activities that one engages in, whether rigorous or relatively passive, that are not required by daily necessities. Thirdly, leisure can also be viewed as a state of mind. Page (2009) aptly captured this when he said that leisure was a mental and spiritual attitude and was also a condition. However, the best view of leisure would be a holistic one, where one views and hence defines leisure as "time" in accordance with the first view, as the activities undertaken during this "leisure time" and as a state of the mind during one's "leisure time." This understanding captures all the views of leisure highlighted in this section.

During leisure time, people may decide to travel and visit certain destinations of their choice. Collectively, this is known as leisure travel. As these people travel, they exhibit certain behaviors and travel patterns. These travel patterns and behaviors are determined by various factors referred to as travel determinants or predictors (Connell & Page, 2009). These will be discussed next.

Determinants of Leisure Travel

Many individuals today are motivated to participate in leisure travel but their ability to do so is circumscribed by a complex array of factors relating to the individual and the supply environment. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, and Wanhill (2005) aptly classified and summarized these factors as illustrated in Table 1. These predictors also apply to domestic leisure travel and are discussed in more detail in this section.

Income is a major predictor of leisure travel and its absence makes leisure travel impossible. Research carried out in Namibia revealed that one

of the reasons why the majority of Namibians do not participate in leisure travel was the lack of sufficient disposable income (Tapscott, 1993). The study showed that 55% of Namibians control only 3% of the country's resources and this translated to low income and abject poverty (Moseley et al., 2007). The same was revealed by the research conducted in Tanzania and Rwanda, which noted that income levels were a significant determinant of leisure travel (Mariki et al., 2011; Mazimhaka, 2006). In South Africa, the 2009 National Domestic Tourism Survey highlighted that 41.1% of respondents indicated inadequate income as a reason for not traveling for leisure (Statistics South Africa, 2009). This is also in line with the findings of an earlier research in the poorer North West province of South Africa, which put income at the center of any tourism expenditure (Saayman, Saayman, & Rhodes, 2001).

Moseley et al. (2007) further illustrated that unemployment was closely linked to lack of income and usually translated to inability to travel for leisure. Unemployment is closely linked to education, which, by and large, has been observed to provide better employment opportunities and possibilities of higher income levels. This may directly or indirectly translate to increased leisure travel propensity (Wang, Rompf, Severt, & Peerapatdit, 2006). This study intends to reveal how these predictors are also affecting the travel patterns of Zimbabwe's urban population.

Research has also demonstrated that there is a close relationship between education, income, and gender. The relationship is such that, for most developing countries, males have a high propensity to travel compared to their female counterparts (Mariki et al., 2011; Mazimhaka, 2006; Tapscott, 1993). This has been attributed to the fact that the males are generally more educated and earn more income. Studies carried out in Africa and Asia have revealed that females are less likely to travel because they are burdened with family responsibilities and house hold duties such that they have little time left for leisure travel. In addition, Mariki et al. (2011) observed that the patriarchal nature of most families in developing countries require that females seek prior permission from their husbands in order to travel. This again limits their propensity to travel for leisure.

Literature search reveals that paid holiday entitlement is a common feature in developed countries such as the US, UK, and Australia (Bryan, 2006, Green, 1997). However, the situation may be different in developing countries where companies are reluctant to offer such incentives to their employees. In relation to mode of transport, road transport has been noted to be predominant in both developed and developing countries (Eijgelaar et al., 2008). This observation would not be surprising given that road transport is relatively cheaper and that most tourist destinations are easily accessible by road. With regards to perceptions and attitudes towards leisure travel, a number of studies have been undertaken to date (Anderek & Nyaupane, 2011; Draper, Woosnam, & Norman, 2009; Lee & Tideswell, 2005). Most of these studies have focused on community perceptions towards tourism development in general, neglecting perceptions and attitudes towards individual domestic travel for leisure. This research seeks to contribute towards closing this knowledge gap.

Overall, the various leisure travel predictors and their resultant leisure travel patterns are well documented in the available literature to date (Connell & Page, 2009; Cooper et al., 2005; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001; Tourism Research Australia, 2010). In developed countries, such as the UK, Australia, France, and others, these variables are discussed as applied to both international and domestic tourism and regular updates are always available for planning purposes. However, in most developing countries, these variables have largely been discussed in the context of international tourism and very limited information is available on domestic leisure travel. Therefore, there is a need to provide more and updated information in this area, in full view of the fact that society is not static. Such updates and discussions are critical to the development of sound domestic tourism development strategies. This study finds its relevance to Zimbabwe and other less developed countries in this regard.

In a related discussion on these predictors, Cooper et al. (2005) went on to highlight that the predictors that led to suppressed leisure travel demand were as follows:

- cost;
- time;

- physical limitation (e.g., health);
- family circumstances;
- government restrictions/local or national;
- lack of interest by potential leisure travelers.

In this research, one would want to know the extent to which these also apply to Zimbabwe. In a discussion on leisure travel predictors, it would also be logical to discuss their resultant leisure travel patterns. In essence, these predictors impact on the following issues:

- volume of domestic tourists;
- purpose of trips;
- length of stay;
- type of accommodation;
- type of transport;
- method of booking;
- spending patterns;
- activities;
- areas visited.

In many developed countries, such as Australia, agencies have been put in place to collect domestic tourism data on these variables. As an example, in a study conducted by the French Tourist Office in 2007 (www.tourisme.gouv.fr) it revealed that 81.5% of the more than 50.5 million adult population took a domestic holiday. Of those who traveled, 63.6% of the residents spend 4 or more nights away from home. However, 68% of them used non-commercial accommodation such as staying with family or friends (Tourism Research Australia, 2010). On the other hand, most developing countries do not have agencies that supply this kind of information on domestic tourism data. The available literature reveals that, in developing countries, very limited research has been carried out on domestic leisure travel patterns and their predictors (Mazimhaka, 2007) as demonstrated by the existence of domestic tourism strategies that are anchored on speculations and obsolete information, as in the case of Zimbabwe. All this emanates from the insidious perception by both academics and practitioners in these countries that domestic tourism is the "poor cousin of international tourism" (Sheyvens, 2007). In this study, one would also want to know how these variables are affected by the predictors discussed in this article.

The Study's Conceptual Framework

According to Fly, Ketrige, and Marshall (2009), there is no research without a conceptual framework. In this research, the major variables as revealed in this literature review are the leisure predictors (independent variables) and the leisure travel patterns (dependent variables) of domestic visitors. The relationship between these two variables is that it is the leisure predictors that determine the leisure travel patterns of individuals and groups who wish to travel. These two variables play a significant role in the development of domestic tourism strategies. Figure 2 depicts this relationship.

This research therefore seeks to avail information on Zimbabwe's urban leisure travel predictors and patterns with the belief that this information can be used by the ZTA or NTO to develop a more appropriate domestic tourism strategy for the country.

Methodology

The data for this study were collected from a survey of dwellers in the country's five major urban areas: Harare, Bulawayo, Gweru, Mutare, and Masvingo. The selection of these was premised on the fact that it is the relatively high income earners, who are expected to travel widely for leisure, are residents. A sample of 600 people was conveniently drawn with half of the respondents in each city coming from the high-density residential suburbs and the other half from the low-density residential suburbs. The choice of the sample size was informed

by guidelines for determining a sample size by Gay, Miles, and Airisian (2006), who stated that for any population greater than 5,000, a sample of 400 would be adequate to draw representative conclusions about the population parameters. However, taking into account the inevitable response rate of about 70% often associated with surveys of this nature, a sample of 600 people was taken in order to reduce the bias that could have been brought about by nonresponse. Time and financial constraints also considerably influenced the sample size. Given the varying sizes of the country's major cities chosen for the study, 200 respondents were drawn from Harare, 150 from Bulawayo, 100 from Gweru, 100 from Mutare, and 50 from Masvingo. A four-page self-administered questionnaire was employed to collect the data for the present study. The questionnaire captured the following aspects: background information, leisure travel patterns, and willingness to travel for leisure. Cross tabulations, chi-square tests, and multivariate logistic regression analysis, using STATA version 11.0, were used to bring out the association between having traveled for leisure in the past 12 months and various socio-economic characteristics of the respondents.

Results and Discussion

Sample Characteristics

Of the 600 questionnaires distributed for completion, 484 were successfully collected from the respondents. However, after data editing and cleaning, only

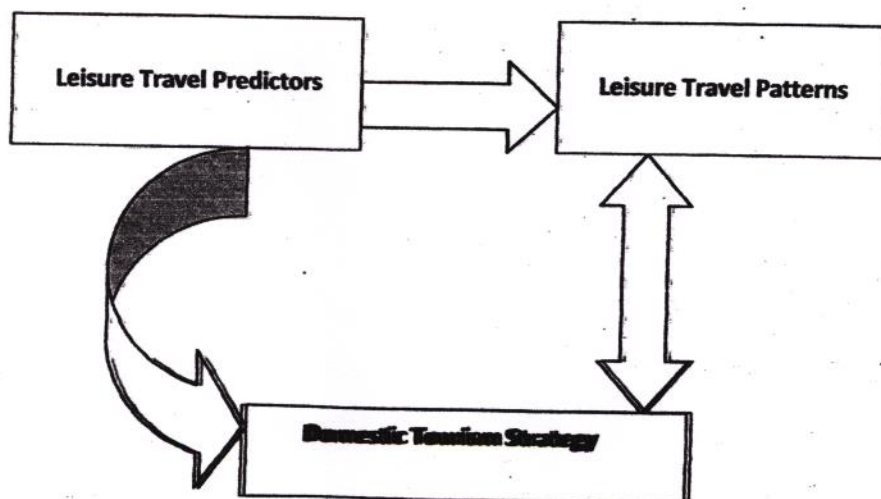


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of leisure travel predictors and patterns.

426 questionnaires were deemed suitable for analysis, giving a response rate of 71%. This response rate was comparable to other surveys of this nature, especially by Gay et al. (2006), and was also sufficiently high to warrant meaningful conclusions from the data collected. The sociodemographic characteristics of respondents are summarized in Table 2.

The sample had slightly more male than female respondents (58.07% vs. 41.93%). The majority of respondents were aged below 65 years, with above half of them (55.34%) falling in the 31–64 year age group and 42.76% of them in the 17–30 year age group. Only 1.90% of the respondents were aged over 64 years. This was consistent with findings from a research carried out in Tanzania (Mariki et al., 2011) where the number of males who visited protected areas was above that of females. The only difference in the case of Zimbabwe lies in the fact that the discrepancy is very small, unlike in the case of Tanzania where 62.9% were males while 31.7% were women (Mariki et al., 2011). The case of Zimbabwe could be a result of the fact that the country has relatively high levels of education and females today are getting an equal opportunity both at school and at work, thereby making them eligible

to travel for leisure. About 65.38% of the respondents were married, 26.44% were single, and 8.17% were either divorced or widowed. Their employment status varied immensely from self-employment (25.85%), civil servants (18.12%), private sector employment (34.06%) to pensioners and students (5.56%). The unemployed respondents constituted 5.56% of the total sample. Most respondents (88.19%) earned a monthly income of less than US\$1,000, with only 11.81% earning a monthly income above US\$1,000. In fact, the majority of respondents' (63.19%) income was in the US\$0–\$400 bracket and 25.00% of them in the US\$401–\$1,000 bracket.

Time, finances, age and gender, information availability, and family responsibilities have been cited to be the most important and common predictors of leisure travel by Chen and Wu (2009) and Fleischer and Pizam (2002). This scenario is confirmed by this study through a factor analysis. The rest of this discussion will therefore focus on these predictors as they relate to leisure travel patterns in Zimbabwe.

Leisure Travel Patterns

The results revealed that most of the respondents (57.52%) had not traveled for leisure in the past 12 months. This could either be a reflection of the low disposable incomes that most respondents had or a clear testimony that the Zimbabwean population did not value leisure travel and as such rarely traveled for leisure. Results also revealed that the majority of respondents (72.16%) who had traveled for leisure in the past 12 months had had at most two trips. This shows that the travel intensity is quite low, possibly for the same reasons already suggested in this section.

The main motives for traveling cited by the respondents were seeking new experiences (61.27%) and escaping from the routine (24.28%). However, a small proportion of the respondents (14.45%) revealed that they had traveled for leisure to accompany their spouses, for alcohol drinking, and also for sex. It was also shown that most of the respondents (74.46%) did not travel for leisure in the past 12 months due to lack of sufficient funds. This was quite understandable given the modest wages and salaries that most Zimbabweans earn, especially

Table 2
The Sociodemographic Characteristics
of the Respondents

Characteristic	Percentage (%)
Gender	
Male	58.07
Female	41.93
Age group	
17–30 years	42.76
31–64 years	55.34
65 years & above	1.90
Marital status	
Single	26.44
Married	65.38
Divorced/widowed	8.17
Employment status	
Self-employed	25.85
Civil servant	18.12
Private sector employee	34.06
Pensioners & students	16.43
Unemployed	5.56
Monthly income levels	
US\$0–\$400	63.19
US\$401–\$1,000	25.00
US\$1,001 & above	11.81

following the adoption of the multiple currency regimes. The results agree well with (Mazimhaka, 2006), who observed that low income was a major barrier to leisure travel in African countries, particularly in Tanzania and Rwanda. In the case of Tanzania, Mariki et al. (2011) noted that the majority of Tanzanians survived on an income level of less than US\$1 per day.

Also notable were a significantly high proportion of respondents (12.98%) who cited that they did not travel for leisure because of family commitments and had no time for leisure. Conversely, studies carried out in Vietnam and other Asian countries reveal that Asians, particularly Vietnamese, actually travel more for leisure because they want to maintain family unity (Bui & Jolliff, 2011). One may be tempted to conclude that Asians highly regard family to the effect that they travel for togetherness while Zimbabweans regard their families to the extent that they cannot travel. Although somewhat low, some respondents (8.65%) did not travel for leisure in the past 12 months due to lack of knowledge on leisure destinations and benefits of leisure travel. Researches in other developing countries also support this particular finding. Mariki et al. (2011) discovered that information dissemination was also a problem in Tanzania where many Tanzanians did not even know the tourist attractions in their own country.

Potential travel propensity or demand among the respondents was fairly high, as 60.76% of the respondents revealed that they would travel for leisure purposes if they were given an extra US\$1,000. However, 39.24% of the respondents cited that they would rather use the money for other purposes such as visiting friends and extended family members, buying assets, covering problems, and boosting capital for their businesses, rather than traveling for leisure activities. Results also showed that the majority of those with no zeal to travel for leisure (69.81%) would rather buy assets with the windfall than travel for leisure, a clear sign that leisure is viewed as wasteful application of funds. When asked if they had any future leisure travel plans, the picture was quite different, with 73.71% of the respondents asserting their leisure travel intentions. This clearly shows that despite the various challenges that the Zimbabwean citizens faced, they were willing to travel for leisure. What was unclear, however, was whether these intentions could be

translated into meaningful leisure travels. Such a high proportion of respondents with leisure travel intentions may be premised on the improving incomes of most Zimbabweans as a result of the economic stabilization following the formation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) and the subsequent adoption of the multiple currency regime that is currently in place. However, for those with no intentions to travel for leisure, it appeared that lack of funds and family commitments dominated the reasons for not having leisure travel intentions, with 66.99% and 19.42% of the respondents who had no travel intentions citing these challenges, respectively.

A cross-tabulation of the results revealed that a larger proportion of respondents in the higher income bracket were more likely to report having ever traveled for leisure in the past 12 months than those in the lower income brackets. The chi-square test results reaffirmed the statistical significance of the difference in leisure travel in the past 12 months between those with high and low incomes, with $\chi^2 = 36.16$, $p < 0.01$. These results reinforce the generally held perception that it is those with high income who travel for leisure and that leisure travel is very expensive and unaffordable to those in the lower income bracket.

Another intriguing and interesting revelation was that leisure travel varied by marital status. Results showed that more single and widowed or divorced respondents were bound to have traveled in the past 12 months for leisure purposes than their married counterparts. The existence of a statistically significant difference in leisure travel in the past 12 months among respondents by marital status is clearly revealed by $\chi^2 = 14.43$, $p < 0.01$. These findings clearly pinpoint the restraining effect of marriage on leisure travel and are in line with results presented earlier, which stressed that family commitments can be a hindrance to leisure travel. The results underscore the perception that leisure travel is for the unmarried and is a waste of financial resources.

The results further showed that leisure travel propensity, as measured by respondents' willingness to travel for leisure if they were given an additional US\$1,000, was dependent on the respondent having traveled for leisure in the past 12 months. Those who had traveled for leisure in the past 12 months showed stronger intentions to travel if they

were given an additional US\$1,000 in their monthly income streams. While it was unclear what could have motivated them travel for in the past 12 months, it was quite clear that having traveled in the past 12 months was an important predictor of traveling for leisure in the future. This is clearly reflected by $\chi^2 = 34.90$, $p < 0.01$. The same was also revealed by the cross tabulation results for leisure travel plans and having travelled for leisure in the past 12 months. With a chi-square statistic of $\chi^2 = 34.03$, $p < 0.01$, it is apparent that a significantly high percentage of respondents who had traveled for leisure in the past 12 months had plans to travel for leisure in the future. This shows that there is a statistically significant difference between those who had traveled for leisure in the past 12 months and those who had not, in their future leisure travel plans. This calls for the understanding of what could have really prompted the respondents to travel for leisure in the past 12 months.

Multivariate Analysis

To reveal the relationship between the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents and their travel propensity, a multivariate logistic regression analysis was employed and the results are summarized in Table 3. The regression results revealed that the age of respondents, their marital status, and income bracket were the three important determinants of having ever traveled for leisure in the past 12 months. The significance of the three variables in predicting leisure travel in the past 12 months means that policy makers can indeed influence leisure travel in the country through targeting these important predictors. It was shown that respondents in the 31–64 year age group were 46% less likely to have traveled for leisure in the past 12 months compared with their counterparts in the 17–30 year age group (OR = 0.54, $p = 0.05$). This is quite understandable given that the 31–64 year age group, while it is the most economically active age group, has a lot of commitments and accomplishments to achieve, with a lot of activities competing for their disposable incomes. It is usually at this age group when most people get married and start their families, send their children to school, and invest for their retirement. As a result of these competing needs for money, people in this age group are unlikely to travel for leisure compared

Table 3
Multivariate Regression Analysis Results for Leisure Travel in the Past 12 Months

Predictor Variables	Multivariate Model
Age of respondent	
17–30 years	1.00*
31–64 years	0.54 (0.32–0.93)*
65 years & above	3.31 (0.39–27.98)
Gender	
Male	1.00
Female	1.52 (0.93–2.50)
Marital status	
Single	1.00
Married	0.35 (0.19–0.66)*
Widowed/divorced	0.47 (0.18–1.28)
Income bracket	
\$0–\$400	1.00
\$401–\$1000	2.39 (1.33–4.29)*
\$1001 & above	9.53 (3.96–22.89)*
Employment status	
Self-employed	1.00
Civil servant	1.24 (0.60–2.57)
Private sector employee	1.05 (0.57–1.95)
Pensioners & students	0.41 (0.16–1.05)
Unemployed	1.54 (0.48–4.90)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence interval values shown in parentheses.

*Reference category identifiable by an odds ratio of 1.00.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

with their uncommitted counterparts in the 17–30 year age group. While the respondents aged 65 years and above were shown to be 3.31 times more likely to have traveled for leisure in the past 12 months than their counterparts aged between 17 and 30 years; however, this relationship was revealed to be statistically insignificant (OR = 3.31, $p = 0.272$).

Similarly, married respondents were shown to be 65% less likely to have traveled for leisure purposes in the past 12 months than their single counterparts (OR = 0.35, $p < 0.01$). As reiterated earlier, family commitments seem to be the main hindrance to leisure travel among the married respondents. Given that the majority of the respondents were in some form of employment, they would prefer to spend their spare time with their families at home that to travel for leisure since such travels are usually expensive. Furthermore, respondents' income levels were revealed to have an important predictive power on leisure travel in the past 12 months. Those with incomes in the range US\$401–\$1,000 and above US\$1,000 were 2.39 and 9.53 times

more likely to have traveled for leisure in the past 12 months, respectively. These results indicate that financial security and stability are important in predicting leisure travel.

Gender and employment status were not statistically significant predictors of leisure travel in the past 12 months as reflected by *p*-values greater than 0.05. This means that the two variables are not important in explaining leisure travel in the past 12 months and as such promotional activities should not target these variables.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Results showed that leisure travel among the country's urban population was quite low. With less than half of the respondents (42.48%) having traveled for leisure in the past 12 months, promotional activities can help in tapping into the population that has not traveled for leisure purposes. This means that there is enormous room for growing domestic tourism through the design of appropriate promotional programs in order to tap into this market segment. The ground for launching an aggressive domestic leisure travel is ripe given that the majority of respondents have future leisure travel plans. The will to travel is there, but people need to be informed about the leisure travel alternatives that they have and the associated costs. This is more so given the improving incomes of Zimbabweans, where a growing number of urban dwellers can spare some funds for leisure travel.

Results also categorically revealed that marriage and family commitments discourage leisure travel. While the married think that traveling for leisure is a waste of financial resources, leisure travel can be an important platform for family bonding and union. Promotional campaigns showing families traveling for leisure should be commissioned in order to tap into this large market segment of potential leisure travelers. In turn, leisure facility operators should also come up with some promotions or discounts for children or those who visit their facilities as families to encourage those with family commitments to travel with their families.

The revelation that it was mainly those with high incomes who had traveled for leisure in the past 12 months underscores the need to demystify the myth that leisure travel is only for the rich and high-class

citizens. Domestic leisure travel campaigns should therefore dispel this assertion given that there are a number of leisure facilities in Zimbabwe that are cheap and could be afforded by the majority of the country's citizens. Since there are a number of leisure facilities that are very affordable to most urban dwellers in Zimbabwe, it follows that many potential holiday makers are ill-informed about the costs of attending such facilities. This entails that the ZTA should play a major role in educating the populace about the availability of such cheap facilities that can be used by those with low incomes, through various media. This would enlighten those with low incomes about the leisure facilities they can afford. In addition, the Ministry of Tourism and the ZTA should ensure that they urgently enforce the dual pricing system that they have already put in place. This will see the introduction of prices that will energize travel and therefore increase actual demand for travel.

While lack of sufficient funds was an important factor inhibiting leisure travel among respondents, results also showed that a fairly large proportion of the respondents would not be willing to travel for leisure even if they were given additional funds to their monthly income streams. This is a cause for concern as improving income streams in the country may not translate to any meaningful leisure travel since many may continue to view it as a waste of financial resources. This therefore calls for a multifaceted approach, on the part of the ZTA, to market the benefits of such travels to the target markets.

There is an urgent need to establish other agencies besides ZTA that conduct surveys and collect information on domestic tourism in Zimbabwe. In other countries such as Australia, Tourism Research Australia is responsible for carrying out national visitor surveys for domestic tourism development (Tourism Research Australia, 2010). Other countries such as Germany, UK, and France carry out domestic tourism surveys and upload them on their national tourism websites. For Zimbabwe and other developing countries where such agencies are still to be developed, institutions of higher learning, especially universities, could complement ZTA's efforts and undertake such surveys using their research grants. This on its own will stimulate further research in this area of need.

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