



KUYEZA NEKUUMBA

THE ZIMBABWE EZEKIEL GUTI UNIVERSITY
JOURNAL OF DESIGN, INNOVATIVE THINKING AND PRACTICE

ISSN 2957-8426 (Print)

Vol. 3 Issues (1&2), 2024

©ZEGU Press 2024

Published by the Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Press
Stand No. 1901 Barrassie Rd,
Off Shamva Road
Box 350
Bindura, Zimbabwe

All rights reserved

“DISCLAIMER: The views and opinions expressed in this journal are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official position of funding partners”

Typeset by Divine Graphics
Printed by Divine Graphics

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF & MANAGING EDITOR

Innocent Chirisa, Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University.

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Dr Tawanda Mushiri, University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe
Professor Trynos Gumbo, University of Johannesburg, South Africa

Dr Peter Kwaira, University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe
Professor Chakwizira, North West University, South Africa
Dr Average Chigwenya, National University of Science and Technology, Zimbabwe

Dr Edgar Muhoyi, University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe
Mr Brilliant Mavhima, University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe
Dr Emily Motsi, Freelance Researcher, Zimbabwe
Dr Samuel Gumbe, University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe

SUBSCRIPTION AND RATES

Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Press Office
Stand No. 1901 Barrassie Rd,
Off Shamva Road
Box 350
Bindura, Zimbabwe
Telephone: ++263 8 677 006 136 | +263 779 279 912
E-mail: zegupress@zegu.ac.zw
<http://www.zegu.ac.zw/press>

About the Journal

JOURNAL PURPOSE

The purpose of the *Kuveza neKuumba - Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Journal of Design, Innovative Thinking and Practice* is to provide a forum for design and innovative solutions to daily challenges in communities.

CONTRIBUTION AND READERSHIP

Planners, engineers, social scientists, business experts, scholars and practitioners from various fields.

JOURNAL SPECIFICATIONS

Kuveza neKuumba - Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Journal of Design, Innovative Thinking and Practice

ISSN 2957-8426 (Print)

SCOPE AND FOCUS

The journal is a forum for the discussion of ideas, scholarly opinions and case studies of multidisciplinary perspectives of design and innovative thinking. The journal is produced bi-annually.

Guidelines for Authors for the Kuveza Nekuumba Journal

Articles must be original contributions, not previously published and should not be under consideration for publishing elsewhere.

Manuscript Submission: Articles submitted to the *Kuveza neKuumba - Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Journal of Design, Innovative Thinking and Practice* are reviewed using the double-blind peer review system. The author's name(s) must not be included in the main text or running heads and footers.

A total number of words: 5000-7000 words and set in 12-point font size width with 1.5 line spacing.

Language: British/UK English

Title: must capture the gist and scope of the article

Names of authors: beginning with the first name and ending with the surname

Affiliation of authors: must be footnoted, showing the department and institution or organisation.

Abstract: must be 200 words

Keywords: must be five or six containing words that are not in the title

Body: Where the authors are more than three, use *et al.*, Italicise *et al.*, *ibid.*, words that are not English, not names of people or organisations, etc. When you use several authors confirming the same point, state the point and bracket them in one bracket and ascending order of dates and alphabetically separated by semi-colon e.g. (Falkenmark, 1989, 1990; Reddy, 2002; Dagdeviren and Robertson, 2011; Jacobsen *et al.*, 2012).

Referencing Style: Please follow the Harvard referencing style in that:

— In-text, citations should state the author, date and sometimes the page numbers.

— the reference list entered alphabetically, must include all the works cited in the article.

In the reference list, use the following guidelines, religiously:

Source from a Journal

- Anim, D.O and Ofori-Asenso, R. (2020). Water Scarcity and COVID-19 in Sub-Saharan Africa. *The Journal of Infection*, 81(2), 108-09.
- Banana, E, Chitekwe-Biti, B and Walnycki, A (2015). Co-Producing Inclusive City-Wide Sanitation Strategies: Lessons from Chinhoyi, Zimbabwe. *Environment and Urbanisation*, 27(1), 35-54.
- Neal, M.J. (2020). COVID-19 and Water Resources Management: Reframing Our Priorities as a Water Sector. *Water International*, 45(5), 435-440.

Source from an Online Link

Armitage, N, Fisher-Jeffes L, Carden K, Winter K *et al.*, (2014). Water Research Commission: Water-sensitive Urban Design (WSUD) for South Africa: Framework and Guidelines. Available online: <https://www.greencape.co.za/assets/Water-Sector-Desk-Content/WRC-Water-sensitive-urban-design-WSUD-for-South-Africa-framework-and-guidelines-2014.pdf>. Accessed on 23 July 2020.

Source from a Published Book

Max-Neef, M. (1991). *Human Scale Development: Concepts, Applications and Further Reflections*, London: Apex Press.

Source from a Government Department (Reports or Plans)

National Water Commission (2004). Intergovernmental Agreement on a National Water Initiative. Commonwealth of Australia and the Governments of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory. Available online: <https://www.pc.gov.au/inquiries/completed/water-reform/national-water-initiative-agreement-2004.pdf>. Accessed on 27 June 2020.

The source being an online Newspaper article

The Herald (2020). Harare City Could Have Used Lockdown to Clean Mbare Market. *The Herald*, 14 April 2020. Available online: <https://www.herald.co.zw/harare-city-could-have-used-lockdown-to-clean-mbare-market/>. Accessed on 24 June 2020.

A Review on Territorial Development Planning: Putting the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site into Perspective

KUDZAI CHATIZA¹, INNOCENT CHIRISA², AARON MAPHOSA³, TARIRO NYEVERA⁴ AND BRILLIANT MAVHIMA⁵

Abstract

Cultural heritage stands as a vital driver for sustainable development in the 21st century, embodying historical, symbolic and socio-economic values. This literature review scrutinises the Territorial Development Plan for the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site Area, examining the convergence of heritage conservation and local socio-economic development. Through an extensive review of literature from diverse sources, including books, journals, Google Scholar and government policy documents, this study employs textual analysis to elucidate the relationship between heritage policies and urban planning. The analysis reveals a paradigm shift in recognising heritage as a key contributor to national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and a catalyst for sustainable economic progress. The study highlights the necessity of addressing legal gaps and ambiguities to safeguard tangible and intangible aspects of Zimbabwe's cultural legacy. It draws valuable lessons from global, regional and local perspectives, emphasising the integration of heritage policies into urban planning as crucial for fostering global resilience and sustainable development. Major recommendations include collaborative efforts on local, national and international fronts to integrate heritage policies into urban planning, ensuring equitable growth and preservation of cultural identity. The conclusion

¹ Development Governance Institute, Harare, Zimbabwe

² Office of the Vice Chancellor, Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University, Bindura, Zimbabwe; Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa,

³ Department of Spatial Planning, Harare Metropolitan, Province, Harare, Zimbabwe

⁴ Development Governance Institute, Harare, Zimbabwe

⁵ Department of Community and Social Development, University of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe.

underscores the intricate relationship between cultural preservation and sustainable development, advocating a holistic and inclusive approach.

Keywords: paradigm shift, equitable growth, resilience, economic sustainability

INTRODUCTION

Cultural heritage, embodying historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social values, stands as an indispensable driver for 21st-century nations pursuing sustainable development. This literature review intricately explores the convergence of heritage asset conservation and local socio-economic development, with a keen focus on the Territorial Development Plan for the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site Area. Acknowledging the global recognition of cultural heritage as an economic development tool, the study navigates the complex landscapes of heritage policies and urban planning, unravelling their profound implications on a global, regional and local scale. Beyond mere aesthetic and historical significance, the cultural heritage asset's value, rooted in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, weaves a rich tapestry of historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social dimensions, fostering continuity, cultural identity and social cohesion.

Examining the economic significance in a global context reveals a paradigm shift, positioning heritage as a key contributor to a nation's GDP and a catalyst for sustainable economic progress. Drawing valuable lessons from global, regional and local perspectives, it highlights the integration of heritage policies into urban planning as a powerful catalyst for global resilience and sustainable development. The conclusion underscores the intricate relationship between cultural preservation and sustainable development, advocating a holistic, inclusive and forward-looking approach. The review emphasises collaborative efforts on local, national and international fronts to integrate heritage policies into urban planning, recognising the profound impact of cultural heritage on economic prosperity, social cohesion and environmental sustainability.

THE INTERSECTION OF HERITAGE ASSET CONSERVATION AND LOCAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Cultural heritage serves as both an economic development tool and a resource for sustainable development (Grefe, 2005; Rypkema and Cheong, 2011; Auwera, 2015). Embedded within the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, culture contributes significantly to its goals. The heritage value of sites, buildings or objects encompasses historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social dimensions (Sable and Kling, 2001; Throsby, 2001). Economically, cultural heritage assets offer direct and indirect benefits, shaping global, regional and local contexts (Serageldin, 1999; Allen Consulting Group, 2005). However, economic value alone does not fully capture the essence of heritage value.

The process of industrialisation, urbanisation and the associated socio-cultural changes that started in the nineteenth century has culminated in the bipolarisation of the relationship between progress and nature (Shmelev, 2009). Local communities are completely excluded from the use of the territory and seen as a threat to the preservation of natural ecosystems, while visitors are allowed access, only to benefit from them for tourism (Peano *et al.*, 2008). This idea of protecting the natural environment is understood as a safeguard action through the imposition of specific legislative constraints provided for protected areas (Salberini, 1999). When the global discrepancies in human development are factored in, issues relating to world heritage and socio-economic development become politically charged. As of 2017, the Human Development Index (HDI) showed that Norway, Australia, Switzerland, Germany and Denmark are ranked high, while African countries are ranked low on the list (UNDP, 2017).

There are 871 protected areas in Italy, covering approximately 32 000 km² (Sturiale *et al.*, 2023). In terms of sustainability and the economy of local communities, this is the true essence of the Italian production model (Scuderi *et al.*, 2017). The Italian National Parks have pushed the growth of wealth in many areas in the north, while in the south, they have still not managed to enhance them in economic terms. A notable case is Etna Park, which 30 years after its establishment, is now adopting a

Territorial Plan. This plan will lead to the complex merging of the local ecosystem and the economic activities traditionally practised in the region. Centuries-old traditions of agricultural activities exist within the park, albeit progressively reducing, but with the expansion of “abandoned” agricultural areas, pastoral forest and undergrowth have increased. However, Etna Park is also a privileged destination for mountain tourists throughout the year. Concerning the worldwide development of the park, this represents an expansive trend because tourism is associated with traditional tourism (i.e., food, wine and more generally rural tourism) (*ibid.*).

Nagahama exemplifies the integration of heritage conservation and urban redevelopment in small and middle-sized Japanese towns (Kakiuchi, 2000). Facing an economic decline in the 1980s, the town initiated a public-private cooperation project to rehabilitate cultural heritage and stimulate a specific cultural industry. Preservation efforts saved the Meiji-era Kurokabe bank from demolition in 1987, leading to the establishment of Kurokabe Inc., a third-sector enterprise funded by the city government and regional companies (*ibid.*). Traditional and modern glassware crafts drove Nagahama's development, with old structures renovated into shops, restaurants and galleries (*ibid.*). The project catalysed cultural development, attracting performing arts and events, leading to the creation of a regional regeneration centre in 1998 (*ibid.*). Nagahama's success demonstrates how heritage restoration and re-use can blend with specific cultural industries for urban revitalisation (*ibid.*). However, challenges like city centre depopulation and low overnight visitors persist, as seen in analogous cases in Kanazawa and Otaru (Kakiuchi, 2003).

India stands as a prime destination for cultural tourism, boasting rich histories and traditions ripe for exploration (Menon, 2014). With 38 sites listed on the World Heritage roster, including 30 cultural properties, India possesses a vast array of heritage assets, along with over 3 600 centrally protected monuments under the Archaeological Survey of India (ASI) (Archaeological Survey of India, 2019). Despite this abundance, urban areas face significant threats to national, state or locally important structures due to urban pressures,

neglect and vandalism (Sharma, 2015, 2018; Sharma and Sharm, 2017). Restoration efforts are visible in select areas, but cultural heritage issues remain largely unincorporated into urban planning frameworks (*ibid.*). Surat, experiencing rapid urbanisation, grapples with demands for sprawl and development, posing challenges to heritage conservation (Archaeological Survey of India, 2019; Rakeshkumar *et al.*, nd.). Historically, Surat's conservation efforts focused on safeguarding architectural remnants, including monuments attributed to Malek Gopi and the establishment of silk and cotton factories dating back to the 1600s (Directorate of Census Operations, 2011).

Interactions between heritage conservation, social cohesion, resilience and local identity are vital for fostering sustainable urban development. Policies focusing on heritage conservation can lead to a better appreciation of traditional housing and local heritage, encouraging a more responsible approach from developers and disaster management agencies (Resilient City and Heritage Conservation). Incorporating heritage-focused risk mitigation policies into urban planning frameworks can establish a discourse on sustainability and inclusive development, particularly in the context of climate change (Council of Europe, 2018). Local planning policies should account for the limitations and constraints regarding the demolition of traditional buildings, ensuring that community values are upheld and conservation policies are consistently endorsed (Gaur, 2012).

Cultural heritage serves as a platform for fostering contacts, exchanges and reciprocity among communities, emphasising active engagement rather than passive consumption (Throsby, 2008). With digital access to global sustainability agendas, younger generations in Surat are increasingly interested in visiting and restoring heritage sites, highlighting the importance of heritage tourism for local development (Rameshkuma, 2017). However, Surat's underdeveloped heritage tourism industry hampers the exploration and understanding of its cultural significance (Nocca, 2017). Despite this, Surat boasts a diverse socio-cultural fabric, with tangible and intangible heritage

elements contributing to its multidimensional identity (Giraud-Labelte, 2015). In Surat, urban heritage plays a crucial role in reinforcing the city's identity and integrating heritage conservation into local development processes (Girad, 2013). Recognising the interconnectedness of economic, social, cultural and environmental systems is essential for positioning cultural heritage as a central component of sustainable development (Throsby, 2008). By leveraging heritage conservation strategies, Surat can strengthen its resilience, enhance social cohesion and promote inclusive urban development, ultimately fostering a more sustainable and vibrant cityscape.

Many researchers have explored the relationship between social capital and cultural heritage (Kinghorn and Willis, 2008; Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013; Lak, Gheitasi and Timothy, 2020). Cultural heritage fosters a distinct sense of place and continuity, leading to higher self-esteem and place attachment (Graham *et al.*, 2009). Tangible and intangible cultural heritage influences social capital by developing local identity and a sense of community (Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013). Heritage sites often serve as cultural centres, facilitating trust and social networks (Sandell, 1998; Van Zyl, 2005; Lak, Gheitasi and Timothy, 2020;). Historic sites provide a foundation for non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and local authorities to promote social development (Harnley, 2005). Heritage organisations incorporate activities like clubs, discussions, exhibitions and tours to encourage new encounters and strengthen social capital (Novy, 2011; Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013). Heritage tourism significantly contributes to the local economy by creating businesses and jobs, and promoting cultural diversity (Harnley, 2005). It also garners public support for protecting cultural heritage properties (Novy, 2011; Murzyn-Kupisz, 2013). Heritage tourism offers visitors historical knowledge and entertainment while contributing to social development and enhancing the quality of life for local communities (Moscardo, 1998). Museums play a crucial role in social inclusion by engaging in cultural activities, civilising young people and providing a platform for social interaction and discussion on important issues (Sandell, 1998). Overall,

cultural heritage plays a vital role in promoting social cohesion, fostering community identity and contributing to the overall well-being of society.

While the UNESCO guidelines offer a framework for cultural heritage preservation, the practical implementation faces challenges in balancing preservation with social and economic development (Al-Hammadi and Alkaabi, 2021). Qatar's rich cultural history, spanning from Mesopotamian artifacts to modern-day developments, underscores the importance of safeguarding tangible and intangible heritage (World Heritage, 2014; Zahlan, 2016). The preservation of immaterial cultural heritage, including identities, languages and traditions, reflects Qatar's commitment to its cultural sensitivity (Al-Hammadi *et al.*, 2021). As Qatar continues its development journey, maintaining a strong emphasis on "Qatariness" remains integral to preserving its unique cultural identity amidst progress.

Despite efforts, heritage buildings in Cairo continue to deteriorate (Fowler, 1995; Ouf, 1995; Gharib, 2011). Previous projects lacked holistic adaptive re-use, lacking technical expertise and scientific methodology (Shehayeb and Sedky, 2002; Afify, 2007; Gharib, 2012). Integrating adaptive re-use into environmental upgrading projects could enhance Cairo's quality of life (Siravo, 2004; Boussaa, 2010). A paradigm shift is needed to integrate socio-economic factors into preservation (Bianca, 2004). Egypt's ancient civilisation underscores heritage conservation's importance for local development (Gerlach, 2009; Abdulhameed, 2017). Adaptive re-use addresses immediate needs, improving economic, environmental and social conditions (Bullen and Love, 2010). Conservation efforts should uplift socio-economic and environmental status (Bianca and Siravo, 2005; Gharib, 2011). Challenges faced by Cairo's old city centre include dense built-up, high residential density and poverty (Gharib, 2012). Poor public awareness and economic resources accelerate heritage deterioration (Antoniou, 2017). Adaptive re-use emerges as a practical conservation strategy (Rodwell, 2007). Integrating socio-economic considerations into preservation efforts is crucial for Cairo's sustainable development (Gharib, 2011).

The linkage between legally recognised heritage assets and tourism is vital for Tanzanian communities' socio-economic well-being. Tanzania boasts rich heritage assets like the Ruins of Kilwa Kisiwani, Zanzibar Stone Town and Ngorongoro Conservation Area (Chami, 2005; Moon, 2005; Kimaro, 2006). These sites, including Husuni Kubwa and Malindi Mosque, are UNESCO World Heritage-listed, offering insights into Swahili culture's growth (*ibid.*). Strategically located near pristine beaches, such as Kilwa Masoko, these sites attract tourists seeking diverse experiences like swimming and snorkelling (Ichumbaki, 2012; Masele, 2012). Tanzania's World Heritage Sites, complemented by scenic Kilwa beaches, promise to blend cultural heritage with tourism, benefiting local communities (*ibid.*). This synergy not only preserves Tanzania's historical fabric, but also fosters sustainable development and international engagement.

Morocco integrates heritage conservation with local development, evident in Fez Medina's UNESCO World Heritage status, promoting tourism while preserving cultural fabric (Istasse, 2016). Despite economic growth, Fez Medina's residents face challenges like rising prices, with 36% living below the poverty threshold in 2001 (Cernea, 2001; Bigio and Licciardi, 2010;). Modernisation efforts disrupt the historic fabric, necessitating vigilance against cultural commodification (Hassan, 2008). The Fez Medina project fosters economic growth, attracting private investment and creating jobs (Radoine, 2008; Bigio and Licciardi, 2010). However, harnessing tourism revenue through taxes remains a challenge (Dixon *et al.*, 1998). Proper taxation could yield around US\$11 million annually, demonstrating untapped financial opportunities (*ibid.*). European willingness to contribute US\$310 million underscores cultural heritage's perceived high value (World Bank, 1998). Tourism significantly contributes to Morocco's economy, constituting about 7% of the GDP and employing many (World Bank, 2001). Fez's craft industry, a major employer, reflects the sector's vibrancy (World Bank, 2001; UNESCO, 2009). Despite economic benefits, modernisation poses threats like foreign ownership and mass tourism's impact

(Bigio and Licciardi, 2010). The Fez Medina case highlights the intricate interplay between heritage preservation and socio-economic challenges. Addressing poverty and cultural commodification is vital for Morocco's cultural heritage's sustainable development.

In South Africa, rock art sites, even those on the World Heritage list, are not attracting high volumes of tourists. For example, Ndokuyake (2012) noted that tourism to three major rock art centres, Didima Camp, Wildebeest Kuil Rock Art Tourism Centre and the South African Museum of Rock Art (SAMORA), had remained subdued in terms of numbers. Duval and Smith (2014) note similar observations concerning rock art tourism in the UNESCO World Heritage uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park, again in South Africa. Elsewhere across the world, the fortunes of rock art tourism vary, with some sites, usually through state-organised visitor entities, faring well and others not (Duval, Gauchon and Benjamin 2017). Many UNESCO World Heritage Sites such as Great Zimbabwe, Tsodilo (Botswana), Twyfelfontein (Namibia), Kilwa Kisiwani (Tanzania) and the Cradle of Humankind (South Africa) have brought about infrastructural developments, employment opportunities and social cohesion and other various benefits to communities (Rivett-Carnac 2011; Ndoro 2015).

Colonial legislation in Zimbabwe lacked provisions for leveraging heritage for socio-economic development (Pwiti and Ndoro, 1999; Ndoro, 2004). Tourism development during colonial times primarily served foreign tourists or district commissioners, neglecting the benefit of local African communities. Despite political independence, heritage management practices have seen limited changes beyond conservation efforts (Ndoro and Chirikure, 2009). The UNESCO Report (YEAR?) highlights cultural tourism as a potential poverty reduction strategy by creating jobs and income. However, in Zimbabwe, political crises drastically reduce visitor numbers, leading to economic instability for entrepreneurs reliant on tourism (Ndoro, 2015). Archaeological heritage sites like Domboshava and Ngomakurira often complement wildlife

and scenic views, but economic viability is threatened by fluctuations in visitor numbers.

Large archaeological sites like Great Zimbabwe have spurred development in their vicinity (*ibid.*). Initiatives by the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) and UNESCO promote community involvement in heritage management, fostering projects such as theme parks showcasing traditional Shona life (Shadreck and Pwiti, 2008; Musiba, 2014). UNESCO World Heritage Sites like Great Zimbabwe have brought infrastructural development, employment opportunities and social cohesion to local communities (Rivett-Carnac, 2011). For instance, the Maropeng Visitor Centre at the Cradle of Humankind has generated thousands of jobs (Musiba, 2014).

While heritage sites in Zimbabwe hold significant potential for socio-economic development, challenges persist due to historical legacies and political instability. Collaborative efforts between government institutions, local communities and international organisations are essential for maximising the benefits of heritage tourism while addressing the vulnerabilities associated with economic dependence on visitor numbers. By integrating community participation and sustainable management practices, heritage sites can become catalysts for inclusive growth and cultural preservation in Zimbabwe and beyond.

CASE CONTEXT: GREAT ZIMBABWE WORLD HERITAGE SITE

Great Zimbabwe, located near Masvingo, in southern Zimbabwe, symbolises the historical richness of an African kingdom and holds profound national significance. Listed on the World Heritage List in 1986, the site has seen significant development, presenting both economic opportunities and conservation challenges. Managed under the traditional authority of three chiefs (Ndoro, 2015), the area has witnessed infrastructural improvements such as upgraded access roads, tourist lodges and a craft market, transforming it into a global tourist destination. Private-sector interest, spurred by its World Heritage status, has led to the establishment of hotels like the Great Zimbabwe Hotel by the African Sun Hotel group,

alongside other investments like conference centres and lodges, fostering local employment and economic growth.

However, the emphasis on tourism has adversely affected surrounding villages, leading to a decline in agricultural output and seasonal income fluctuations due to increased reliance on the craft sector (Ndoro, 2005). Moreover, the influx of settlers drawn by economic prospects has strained conservation efforts, resulting in heightened demand for resources like firewood and grazing land. The journey of Great Zimbabwe as a World Heritage Site underscores the delicate balance needed to harness economic benefits from tourism while mitigating negative impacts on local communities and conservation efforts. Achieving this equilibrium is crucial for its sustained success as a cultural heritage destination.

LESSONS DRAWN

The review offers a comprehensive exploration of various aspects related to protected areas, heritage conservation and socio-economic development. This section presents a coherent summary that links the key lessons.

The examination of protected areas demonstrates an evolving concept, transitioning from an exclusionary American model to a more inclusive approach globally. This evolution signifies a broader understanding that extends beyond conservation, now encompassing socio-economic factors and the well-being of local communities. Italy's innovative practices in protected areas illustrate the potential for these regions to serve as laboratories for sustainable and economically beneficial initiatives.

The success and establishment of protected areas are closely tied to political and institutional factors, emphasising the pivotal role of government policies and institutional frameworks. However, regional disparities in economic benefits, exemplified by Etna Park in Italy, reveal the need for targeted policies to address such challenges and ensure equitable growth. The review extends its focus to urban areas, particularly in South Asia, where heritage assets face threats from urbanisation. The case of Nagahama in Japan offers a positive example of how integrating heritage conservation with urban redevelopment not

only preserves cultural heritage, but also stimulates specific cultural industries, contributing to economic revitalisation.

Moving to North Africa, the challenges faced by heritage buildings in Cairo underline the continuous attention required for effective conservation strategies. Failures in previous adaptive re-use projects underscore the importance of comprehensive planning and technical expertise in such initiatives. The recommendation for a holistic approach to adaptive re-use highlights the necessity of integrating socio-economic considerations into environmental projects to enhance overall quality of life. The potential linkage between legally recognised heritage assets and tourism emerges as a crucial avenue for contributing to the socio-economic well-being of Tanzanian communities. This reinforces the economic potential of heritage sites and underscores the importance of leveraging them for tourism.

In Morocco, initiatives intertwining heritage conservation and local development demonstrate the economic growth and infrastructure improvements possible. However, challenges, such as balancing modernisation benefits with heritage preservation and addressing socio-economic inclusivity, need careful consideration. The case of Fez Medina in Morocco further emphasises the delicate interplay between heritage preservation, economic growth through tourism and socio-economic challenges. This underscores the need to balance economic benefits with the preservation of local identity and prevent cultural commodification.

The challenges in rock art tourism in South Africa highlight the importance of understanding and addressing factors affecting tourist numbers globally. The historical context of heritage management in Zimbabwe reveals a lack of consideration for socio-economic development in colonial legislation. This historical perspective underscores the need for inclusive heritage management practices. The UNESCO Report's (2018) argument that cultural tourism could help reduce poverty by creating jobs and generating income is highlighted in the context of Zimbabwe. This suggests the potential of cultural tourism as a strategy for poverty reduction when implemented

effectively. The examples of UNESCO World Heritage Sites, such as Great Zimbabwe and the Cradle of Humankind, bringing infrastructural developments, employment opportunities and social cohesion, underscore the potential benefits for local communities.

The case of Great Zimbabwe exemplifies the delicate balance between reaping economic benefits from tourism and mitigating negative impacts on local communities and the conservation of the site. This case underscores the importance of finding equilibrium for sustained success as a cultural heritage destination. In summary, the review provides a nuanced understanding of the interconnectedness between protected areas, heritage conservation and socio-economic development. It highlights the necessity of holistic approaches, inclusive strategies and the delicate balance required to ensure sustainable and meaningful outcomes for both heritage sites and local communities.

SETTING UP AND MODERATING APPROPRIATE INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS ACROSS DIFFERENT LAND USES

This academic analysis delves into the imperative need for the integration of heritage policies with urban planning, focusing on the city of Surat. Recognising the potential of cultural heritage in contributing to Surat's vision of resilience, smartness and sustainability, the study explores the challenges and recommendations for comprehensive heritage protection within urban planning frameworks. While effective in spatial control and regulation, the National Planning Act requires expansion to encompass cultural assets adequately (Riganti, 2017). Local planning policies must extend beyond monumentalism, considering traditional housing and local heritage, necessitating the integration of conservation principles into planning instruments (Bandarin and Oers, 2012). Recognition and appreciation of both tangible and intangible cultural heritage foster social cohesion, creating a sense of place and belonging. Surat's commitment to becoming resilient, smart and sustainable necessitates centralising heritage protection within urban planning.

Legislation worldwide is guided by three fundamental assumptions: protecting resources for present and future generations, enhancing cultural heritage understanding and extracting scientific information for historical interpretation. Heritage policies fundamentally revolve around the preservation of traditions, identity and culture (James and Winter, 2017). Governments, through specific departments or agencies, bear the responsibility to uphold, implement and advance heritage policies (Pendlebury, 2015). Governments should proactively consider how heritage may be affected and lay foundations through policies to safeguard heritage (Janssen *et al.*, 2014). The challenges identified necessitate a reevaluation of existing frameworks, with recommendations aligned with global perspectives on heritage legislation. The integration of heritage conservation principles into urban planning is pivotal for the sustainable and culturally rich development of cities (Janssen *et al.*, 2014; James and Winter, 2017).

Despite the absence of an official heritage policy in Qatar, concerted efforts by various sectors underscore a commitment to connecting the populace with their cultural legacy. This academic exploration investigates the endeavours of cultural, sporting, educational and natural resource sectors in crafting national heritage narratives with an emphasis on Qatar's original identity. The sports sector, exemplified by Qatar's 2018 entry into the 2022 World Cup, strategically integrates cultural heritage within international events (Timothy, 2011). Qatar's emergence as a global hub prompts the community to seek an understanding of Qatari culture, underscoring the significance of heritage policies (Timothy, 2011; Ashworth, 2014). Heritage policies are linked to increased tourist visits, translating to economic benefits for the retail, hospitality and transport sectors (Ashworth, 2014). Heritage policies contribute to residents' better understanding of their background and history, fostering a deeper connection to cultural identity (Salazar and Marques, 2005). Conservation efforts, especially the preservation of buildings and sites, significantly reduce landfill waste, energy use and pollution (Keitumetse, 2009). Heritage-focused educational programmes ensure future generations are equipped with tools and knowledge for cultural preservation (Henkel *et al.*, 2018). Establishing a centralised

model is imperative, necessitating long-term investment and the involvement of experts and managers for effective heritage policy implementation (Throsby, 2007). Governments play a crucial role in leadership and establishing holistic, practical, sustainable and integrated heritage policies (Pendlebury, 2015). In conclusion, heritage policies in Qatar extend beyond cultural preservation, providing social, economic and environmental advantages. A strategic, centralised and holistic approach is recommended for comprehensive heritage policy implementation, aligning with Qatar's societal and economic aspirations (Janssen *et al.*, 2014; James and Winter, 2017;).

The alignment of culture with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development underscores its multifaceted contributions to societal goals (UNESCO, 2014). Academics, civil society and international organisations, including the United Nations, UNESCO, ICOMOS and the World Bank, have collaboratively crafted policies and practical approaches for leveraging culture in economic development (UNESCO, 2005; Ndoro and Jaquinta, 2006; Marana, 2010; UN, 2012, 2014; Zaman, 2015). The United Nations recognised the imperative of integrating culture into developmental strategies, a sentiment that manifested in its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UNESCO, 2014). Empirical studies highlight the substantial contribution of culture to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of nations like Mali, Colombia and Brazil, affirming the economic significance of cultural heritage (UN, 2014). Recent reports indicate that culture and creative industries have the potential to contribute up to 10% of a nation's GDP, emphasising the tangible economic value embedded in cultural heritage (UNESCO, 2018). The global recognition of cultural heritage as an economic development tool signifies a paradigm shift in approaching sustainable development. As nations increasingly integrate culture into their policy frameworks, the economic impact of cultural heritage emerges as a pivotal aspect of a nation's GDP and, consequently, a driver for sustainable economic progress.

In Tanzania, the legal framework for heritage resource protection is intricate, encompassing both cultural and natural properties. The Cultural Heritage Policy of 2008, a cornerstone developed by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism,

forms the basis for safeguarding cultural properties. Complemented by the Antiquities Law (Amended in 1979 and 1985) and the National Museums Act of 1980, these regulations collectively establish a robust foundation for cultural heritage protection. The legal landscape extends to wildlife, forest reserves and marine parks, each governed by specific laws such as the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974, the Forestry Ordinance of 1957 and the Marine Parks and Reserves Act of 1994. Tanzania's approach aligns with broader development strategies, emphasising the economic benefits of cultural heritage in tourism and entrepreneurship, as outlined in the poverty reduction strategy Mkukuta II.

Conversely, in Egypt, existing legislations, notably Law No. 117 of 1983 for the protection of antiquities and Law 144 of 2006 for the protection of architectural heritage, primarily focus on physical preservation, neglecting the potential socio-economic benefits of adaptive reuse. These laws establish the legal framework for the protection of antiquities and cultural heritage, imposing strict penalties for unauthorised activities. Historical laws, such as Law No. 14 of 1912 and Law No. 8 of 1918, were introduced to safeguard specific categories of antiquities. However, the focus remains on physical conservation, lacking emphasis on adaptive re-use and broader socio-economic considerations.

At an African level, the African Union (AU) Charter for African Cultural Renaissance (2006) emphasises the role of heritage in the political, economic and social liberation of society. However, practical implementation has yet to fully align with these ideals. Heritage management practices in Africa still bear traces of colonial influence and the ratification of the 1972 World Heritage Convention has reinforced state-based management systems, sidelining local communities. Despite these challenges, culture has found a place in regional developmental policy frameworks, such as the African Union's Agenda 2063, indicating a commitment to leveraging cultural assets for progress.

The challenge of ownership rights to archaeological sites and surrounding land is evident, with current laws designating the

National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe as the authority responsible for their preservation. However, the legal framework lacks clarity on the utilisation of cultural heritage as a resource by individuals and communities. The existing legislation is primarily prohibitive, outlining punitive measures for heritage destruction (NMMZ Act 25:11 of 1972). In rural areas, obtaining written consent from traditional chiefs and rural district councils is essential for projects altering communal land use rights. This proactive step can prevent conflicts, especially post-project implementation.

Across Southern Africa, the highest national-level designation for monuments is commonly the "national monument", a classification shared by Botswana, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe. This designation aims to legally recognise monuments of national significance. While Zimbabwe boasts nearly 12 000 registered sites, including approximately 200 with colonial roots, the focus of the 172 declared national monuments leans heavily toward colonial heritage. Like other Southern African countries (excluding South Africa, which introduced relevant legislation in 1999), Zimbabwe's legal framework remains silent on intangible aspects of heritage.

The definition of an ancient monument underscores the basic criteria for receiving protection under the law. It includes any building, ruin, relic or land area with historical, archaeological, palaeontological, or other scientific value (National Monuments Act (1972) 25, 11). Addressing these legal gaps and ambiguities is crucial for fostering a comprehensive approach to heritage management, ensuring the protection of both tangible and intangible aspects of Zimbabwe's rich cultural legacy.

CASE CONTEXT

Zimbabwe safeguards its cultural heritage through specific regulations outlined in the National Museums and Monuments Act, a pivotal law shaping the country's approach to cultural preservation. The Act delineates the parameters of Zimbabwean cultural heritage, revealing the government's strategic agenda. Notably, there is a proclivity to exclude recent phenomena, resulting in the limited protection of the British presence under

the cultural law's purview (National Museums and Monuments Act, 2001).

The 1984 revision of the National Museums and Monuments Act marked a significant shift, diminishing the influence of the British, as their historical connections lost legal protection. This legislative evolution, encapsulated in the Act, extends its coverage to both the Ndebele and Shona communities (Matenga 2011:59). With the majority of Ndebele presence dating back to the late 1700s and early 1800s, their cultural heritage finds legal protection. This modification could also be construed as an effort to emphasise the Shona people, given that research indicates the predominant contribution of Shona ancestors to monumental cultural heritage. By explicitly highlighting ruins and larger structures, the focus accentuates the cultural legacy left behind by the Shona.

The National Museums and Monuments Act serves a dual purpose: it unifies the black majority by excluding the white minority population, while concurrently reinforcing the historical legitimacy of the Shona people. Examining a specific heritage site protected by this law, Great Zimbabwe exemplifies the quintessential inclusion within the framework of Zimbabwe's cultural heritage. Functioning as a cult site, boasting well-preserved ruins and predating 1890, Great Zimbabwe epitomises a location strategically aligned with the cultural heritage narrative. The revisions to the National Museums and Monuments Act seemingly aimed to anchor Great Zimbabwe more closely with Shona's cultural identity. Thus, the Act emerges as a key instrument in shaping the national discourse on what constitutes Zimbabwe's cultural heritage.

The analysis of heritage policies and urban planning from the broader global, regional and local perspectives yields several valuable lessons. The potential of cultural heritage in contributing to the resilience, smartness, and sustainability of cities must be recognised. Existing urban planning frameworks to adequately encompass cultural assets have to be expanded, moving beyond mere spatial control and regulation. Local planning policies should extend beyond monumentalism, incorporating traditional housing and local heritage and

integrate conservation principles into planning instruments to ensure comprehensive heritage protection. Recognition and appreciation of both tangible and intangible cultural heritage foster social cohesion, creating a sense of place and belonging. Heritage protection must be centralised within urban planning to align with the city's vision of resilience, smartness and sustainability.

Globally, heritage policies revolve around preserving traditions, identity and culture. Governments, through specific departments or agencies, bear the responsibility to uphold, implement and advance heritage policies. Policies contribute to economic benefits in retail, hospitality and transport sectors, linked to increased tourist visits. Conservation efforts, especially in preserving buildings and sites, significantly reduce landfill waste, energy use and pollution. There is need to establish a centralised model for heritage policy implementation, requiring long-term investment and the involvement of experts and managers. Governments play a crucial role in leadership and establishing holistic, practical, sustainable and integrated heritage policies. There should be an alignment of culture with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, recognising its multifaceted contributions to societal goals. Culture should be integrate into developmental strategies, as highlighted in the SDGs. Cultural heritage has a substantial economic impact, contributing to the GDP of nations and supporting sustainable economic progress. Integration of culture into policy frameworks signifies a paradigm shift in approaching sustainable development.

There is need to develop intricate legal frameworks for heritage resource protection, encompassing both cultural and natural properties. Heritage protection must be aligned with broader development strategies, emphasising economic benefits in tourism and entrepreneurship; legal gaps and ambiguities in heritage management laws addressed to foster a comprehensive approach; and ensure the protection of both tangible and intangible aspects of cultural heritage. There is need to recognise the strategic evolution of heritage laws, such as in the case of Zimbabwe's National Museums and Monuments Act and understand the implications of legislative changes, including

shifts in influence and emphasis on specific cultural identities. Heritage laws can play a dual role in unifying communities and reinforcing historical legitimacy, while also excluding specific populations. Inclusivity and respect must be promoted for diverse cultural identities in the development of heritage protection legislation.

CONCLUSION

The analysis of heritage policies and urban planning underscores their profound implications for global, regional and local sustainable development. Integrating heritage policies into urban planning is pivotal for fostering resilient, smart and sustainable cities worldwide. Cultural heritage not only enhances social cohesion, but also drives economic, social and environmental progress. A global consensus on heritage preservation principles prioritises protecting resources for future generations and fostering cultural understanding. Governments play a crucial role in upholding these principles, leveraging cultural heritage for economic growth and identity preservation. Challenges, such as ownership rights and legal ambiguities, persist but are being addressed through evolving heritage laws.

Specific cases like Surat, Qatar, Tanzania and Egypt, highlight the importance of context-specific heritage policies. Inclusivity and addressing regional disparities are vital for effective heritage preservation. Heritage policies serve as tools for connecting communities with their cultural legacy, fostering social well-being and understanding of history. The strategic integration of cultural heritage into international agendas and sustainable development goals demonstrates its multifaceted role in society. A holistic approach to heritage preservation, encompassing economic, social and environmental dimensions, is essential for long-term sustainability. Heritage policies are instrumental in shaping resilient and culturally vibrant communities. Governments, communities and international bodies must collaborate to integrate heritage preservation into urban planning effectively. This approach acknowledges the profound impact of cultural heritage on economic prosperity, social cohesion and environmental sustainability, ensuring a prosperous future for generations to come.

REFERENCES

- Abdulhameed, M. (2017). Analytical Comparison between Informal-Random-Housing and Graveyards Housing – A Case Study-Housing Inside the Northern Gabana Area in Cairo City. *Journal of Al-Azhar University Engineering Sector*, 12(44), 12421252.
- Afify, A.N. (2007). The Rehabilitation and Conservation Policies for Historical Areas; Issues for Egypt and Mediterranean Cities, First Euro-Mediterranean Regional Conference, Traditional Mediterranean Architecture; Present and Future,
- African Union (2006). Charter for African Cultural Renaissance. African Union, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- El Khatib, M., Al Hammadi, A., & AlAli, M. R. (2024). The Prominence of the Role of The Board of Directors on the significance of Risk Management Strategy. *International Journal of Business Analytics and Security (IJBAS)*, 4(2), 70-87.
- Allen Consulting Group (2005). Valuing the Priceless: The Value of Historic Heritage in Australia - Research Report 2. Available online: <https://heritagecouncil.vic.gov.au/wp-content/uploads/2021/12/hearing-submission-The-Allen-Consulting-Group-Valuing-the-Priceless-The-Value-of-Historic-Heritage-in-Australia-Research-Report-2-November-2005-3-June.pdf>
- Antoniou, A. (2017). Social network profiling for cultural heritage: combining data from direct and indirect approaches. *Social Network Analysis and Mining*, 7(1), 39.
- Archaeological Survey of India (2019). World Heritage Sites.. Available online: <http://asi.nic.in/> Accessed on 2 February 2019.
- Auwera, S.V. (2015). Cultural Heritage Policies as a Tool for Development: Discourse or Harmony? *ENCATC J. Cult. Manag. Policy*, 4(1).
- Bandarin, F.; Oers, R. (2012). *The Historic Urban Landscape: Managing Heritage in an Urban Century*. Hoboken, NJ, USA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Bianca and Siravo (2005) INCOMPLETE
- Bianca, S. (2004). A New Path to Urban Rehabilitation in Cairo. In: Bianca, S. and Jodido, P. (eds.), *Cairo: Revitalising a Historic Metropolis*, 69-83. Turin: Umberto Allemandi and C for Aga Khan Trust for Culture,.

- Bianca, S. and Siravo, F. (2005). Historic Cities Support Programme. Cairo: Urban Regeneration in the Darb Al-Ahmar District. A Framework for Investment. Geneva: The Aga Khan Trust for Culture.
- Boussaa, D. (2010). Urban Conservation and Sustainability Cases from Historic Cities in the Gulf and North Africa. Conference on Technology and Sustainability in the Built Environment, King Saud University – College of Architecture and Planning, Riyadh, 305-326.
- Bullen, P. A., & Love, P. E. (2010). The Rhetoric of Adaptive Reuse or Reality of Demolition: Views from the Field. *Cities*, 27(4), 215-224.
- Council of Europe (2018). The Role of Cultural Heritage in Enhancing Community Cohesion: Participatory Mapping of Diverse Cultural Heritage; Council of Europe and the European Union: Paris, France.
- Directorate of Census Operations (2011). District Census Handbook Surat; Village and Town Wise Primary Census Abstract (PCA): New Delhi, India.
- Gaur, R. (2012). Digital Preservation in India. *Desidoc J. Libr. Inf. Technol.*, 32, 291-292.
- Girad, L. (2013). Toward a Smart Sustainable Development of Port Cities/Areas: The Role of the “Historic Urban Landscape” Approach. *Sustainability*, 5, 4329-4348.
- Giraud-Labelte, C. (2015). Cultural Heritage Counts for Europe Report; CHCfE Consortium: Krakow, Poland,.
- Grefe, X. (2005). The Economic Value of Heritage,. Available online: <http://www.planningstudies.org/pdf/Raphael%20Grefe-%20E%20%28formatted%29.pdf> (accessed on 1 June 2023).
- Lak, A., Gheitasi, M. and Timothy, D. J. (2020). Urban Regeneration through Heritage Tourism: Cultural Policies and Strategic Management. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 18(4),386-403.
- Kakiuchi, T. (2000). Cultural Heritage and Urban Regeneration: A Japanese Case Study. *Environments: A Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 34(2).
- Kinghorn, N. and Willis, K. (2008). Measuring Museum Visitor Preferences towards Opportunities for Developing Social Capital: An Application of a Choice Experiment to the Discovery Museum. INCOMPLETE

- Marana, M. 2010. Culture and Development. Evolution and Prospects. UNESCO Extea Working Papers No. 1. Paris: UNES.
- Menon, A. (2014, October). Heritage Conservation in India: Challenges and New Paradigms. In: *Proceedings of the SAHC2014—9th International Conference on Structural Analysis of Historical Constructions*, Mexico City, Mexico (pp. 14-17).
- Moscardo, G. (1998). Interpretation and Sustainable Tourism: Functions, Examples And Principles. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 9(1), 2-13.
- Murzyn-Kupisz, M. and Działek, J. (2013). Cultural Heritage in Building and Enhancing Social Capital. *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, 3(1), 35-53.
- Musiba, C. M. 2014. The Administration of Cultural World Heritage Sites and their Contribution to the Economic Empowerment of Local Communities in Africa. In: Makuva, S. (ed.) *The Management of Cultural World Heritage Sites and Development in Africa: History, Nomination Processes and Representation on the World Heritage List*, , 93-103. New York: Springer Briefs in Archaeology.
- Ndoro, W. and Chirikure, S. 2009. The Practice of Heritage Management in Sub-Saharan Africa. In: Stanley-Price, N. and King, J. (eds.). *Conserving Authenticity*, 136-145. Rome: ICCROM.
- Ndoro, W. (2015). World Heritage Sites in Africa: What are the Benefits ofand Nomination and Inscription? Logan, W, Craith, MC, and Kockel, U. (eds.) *A Companion to Heritage Studies, First Edition*..London: Wiley & Sons.
- Ndoro, W. 2004. Traditional and Customary Heritage Systems: Nostalgia or Reality? The Implications of Managing Heritage Sites in Africa. In: de Merode, E., Smeets, R. and Westrik, W. (eds.). *Linking Universal And Local Values: Managing A Sustainable Future for World Heritage*, 81-84. Paris: UNESCO World Heritage Centre.
- Ndoro, W. and Jaquinta, M. T. (2006. "Millenium Development Goals and Cultural Heritage. *ICCROM Newsletter* 32, 12.
- Nocca, F. (2017). The Role of Cultural Heritage in Sustainable Development: Multidimensional Indicators as Decision-Making Tool. *Sustainability*, 9, 1882.

- Novy, J. (2011). Marketing Marginalised Neighbourhoods: Tourism and Leisure in the 21st-Century Inner City. Doctoral Dissertation, Columbia University).
- Peano, A. (2008). Aree Protette e Governo del Territorio. In: Gambino, R., Talamo, D., Thomasset, F. (eds.). *Parchi D'Europa. Verso Una Politica Europea per Le Aree Protette*. Pisa, Italy: Edizioni ETS.
- Pwiti, G. and Ndoro, W. (1999). The Legacy of Colonialism; Perceptions of the Cultural Heritage in Southern Africa with Specific Reference to Zimbabwe. *African Archaeological Review* 16(3):143-153.
- Rakeshkumar, G., Padhya, H., Naresh, R. (YEAR??). Heritage — A Case Study of Surat. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering, Science and Management (IJARESM)*, VOL?? No.?? 1-9. . Available online: www.ijaresm.net. Accessed on 1 March 2018.
- Rameshkumar, P.M. (2017). Heritage Route Optimisation for Walled City Surat Using GIS. Sarvajanic Education Society.
- Rivett-Carnac, K. (2011). Cultural World Heritage Site Scan: Lessons from Four Sites. Development Planning Division Working Paper Series No. 19. Midrand: Development Bank of Southern Africa.
- Salberini, G. (1999). L'evoluzione Della Legislazione Italiana in Materia di Aree Protette. In: Marchisio, S. *et al.* (eds.) Codice Delle Aree Protette, 177-194. Milan, Italy: Giuffrè Editore.
- Sandell, R. (1998), Museums as Agents of Social Inclusion. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 17(4), 401-418.
- Scuderi, A., Sturiale, L. (2014). Analysis of Social Network Applications for Organic Agrifood Products. *Int. J. Agric. Resour. Gov. Ecol.*, 10, 176-189.
- Shadreck, C. and G. Pwiti. (2008). Community Involvement in Archaeology and Cultural Heritage Management: An Assessment from Case Studies in Southern Africa and Elsewhere – With Comments and Reply. *Current Anthropology* 49(2), 467-485.
- Sharma, A. (2015). Exploring Heritage of a Hill State-Himachal Pradesh, in India. *Almatourism-Journal of Tourism, Culture and Territorial Development*, 6(12), 35-62. Sharma, A., Sharma, S. (2017). Heritage Tourism in India: A stakeholder's Perspective. *Tour. Travelling*, 1, 20-33.

- Sharma, M. (2018). 3 Intangible Cultural Heritage Elements from India Inscribed on UNESCO's List till Date; Government of India, Ministry of Culture: New Delhi, India.
- Shmelev, E.S.. Rodriguez-Labajos, B. (2009). Dynamic Multidimensional Assessment of Sustainability at the MacroLevel: The Case of Austria. *Ecol. Econ.* 68, 2560-2573.
- Sturiale, C. (1997). L'esercizio Dell'agricoltura nei Parchi e Riserve. Proceedings of the Atti del Convegno Provincialesu Parchi e Riserve: Quale modello per un corretto sviluppo del territorio locale, Castiglione di Sicilia, Italy, 18 October 1997, 34-48.
- Throsby, D. (2008). Culture in Sustainable Development: Insights for the Future Implementation of Art. *Econ. Della Cult.*, 18, 389-396.
- UN (2012). The Future We Want. Report A/RES/66/288. http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/generalassembly/docs/globalcompact/A_RES_66_288.pdf doi: 10.1094/PDIS-11-11-0999-PDN.
- UN (2017). Culture and Sustainable Development: Report of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation No. A/72/336. <https://undocs.org/A/72/336>.
- UNESCO (2005). Convention on the Protection and Promotion of Diversity of Cultural Expression. <https://en.unesco.org/creativity/convention/>
- UNESCO (2014). UNESCO Culture for Development Indicators: Methodology Manual. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000229608>.
- UNESCO (2018). UNESCO Culture for Development Indicators: Zimbabwe's Analytical Brief. http://www.zimstat.co.zw/sites/default/files/img/publications/Health/Zimbabwe%20CDIS%20%20Analytical%20Brief%20Report%20Final%2012_4_18.pdf