Conference Proceedings

BESTEN Think Tank XV:
The Environment People Nexus in
Sustainable Tourism: Finding the Balance

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Faculty of Economic & Management Sciences
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Rachel Hay
rachel.hay@jcu.edu.au

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Preface

Dear Friends of BEST EN,

We are pleased to present the proceedings of the BEST Education Network (BESTEN) Think Tank XV entitled *The Environment People Nexus in Sustainable Tourism: Finding the Balance*. The event was held in the Kruger National Park, South Africa, June17-21, 2015, in conjunction with the Faculty of Economic & Management Sciences; Division of Tourism Management; University of Pretoria, South Africa.

BEST EN is an international consortium of educators committed to furthering the development and dissemination of knowledge in the field of sustainable tourism. The organization's annual Think Tank brings together academics and industry representatives from around the world to discuss a particular theme related to sustainable tourism and push the research and education in this specific field forward.

The concept of sustainability in tourism is a challenging one; it is subject to much critical debate, especially with regard to finding an appropriate balance between the different dimensions of sustainable tourism. The location of the 2015 BEST EN Think Tank, Kruger National Park, offers an opportunity to explore the challenges of managing the relationships between people and places that are, or may become, subject to tourism development, including balancing social and economic needs with environmental considerations.

The proceedings present work by academics and practitioners worldwide, who research various aspects of the conference theme. They include the abstracts and papers accepted by the scientific committee following a double blind peer review process. We like to take this opportunity to thank the reviewers who donated their time to ensure a professional process:

- Dr. Julia N. Albrecht, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand
- Dr. Christian Baumgartner, Naturfreunde Internationale, Vienna
- Dr. Pierre Benckendorff, Queensland University, Australia
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- Dr. Ida Marie Visbech Andersen, Lillebaelt Academy, Denmark
- Dr. Stephen Wearing, University of Technology Sydney, Australia
- Dr. Chia-Pin (Simon) Wu, National Taiwan University, Taiwan

Twenty-four research papers were presented at the conference. Presentations were held within the following themed sessions:

. Tourism in Protected Areas
. Sustainable Tourism Policy, Assessment and Stakeholder Management
. Community Based Tourism
. Visitor Management, Engagement and Interpretation

The contributions were thematically selected for each group and are arranged in the order presented at the Think Tank XV. The full proceedings as well as the PowerPoint presentations are available on the BEST EN website www.besteducationnetwork.org/

The Editor and the BEST EN Executive Committee anticipate that readers of this volume will find the papers informative, thought provoking and of value to their research.

Best wishes,

Rachel Hay

Contents

Enhancing stakeholders' participation for sustainable management of protected areas

Richie Wandwi

University of Lapland, Finland, rwandwi@ulapland.fi

Key words: Stakeholder management, sustainable tourism, sustainability, protected areas.

Abstract

Tourism is a fragile industry with multiple stakeholders. Globally, the desire of its stakeholders is to gain more benefits and eliminate negative impacts on resources that support the industry, particularly in protected areas (PAs) such as national parks and game reserves. Hence, sustainability is at the core of tourism development. However, in most developing regions, body of knowledge on sustainability has not been fully transferred to operational levels. Negative impacts of tourism and conflicts of interest among stakeholders are skyrocketing. Previous studies in tourism management reveal that it is difficult to achieve sustainability goals when stakeholders work in divergence.

This concept paper will problematize the situation, using the African context that has inadequate literature reflecting stakeholder management in protected areas. The intention is to enhance stakeholders' participation for sustainable management of protected areas. Justification for using the concept of protected areas is grounded in the fact that they offer a good platform for studying stakeholders. Moreover, protected areas are impacted by human activities such as, unsustainable tourism development. To get deeper insight on the concepts, the author conducted a critical literature review and made use of his working experience of more than eight years in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) Tanzania, dealing with tourism stakeholders in the industry. The paper hopes to reveal substantial findings that explore concepts of stakeholders' management as well as fostering sustainability in protected areas.

Introduction

Tourism has become one of the world's largest industries and fastest growing economic sector (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014). In 1996, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) described tourism as "the activities of a person travelling to a place outside his or her usual environment for less than a year and whose main purposes of travel is other than the exercise remunerated from within the place visited." Hundreds of millions of people every year observe and enjoy the phenomenon of tourism. For example in the single year, 2012 tourism marked a new record for international tourism whereby one billion tourists travelled the world (UNWTO, 2013). Out of 52 million international tourists (5%) visited Africa marking an increase of 6%. UNWTO long-term forecast *Tourism Towards 2030*, estimates the number of international tourist to reach 1.8 billion.

Tourism growth is associated with different impacts; however, its future is not sustainable enough. Who is responsible to rescue the situations? That has been the critical question among

stakeholders. Tourism operates in a fragile environment and we cannot deny magnetic function of protected areas to attract tourists' visitation in our destinations. In most developing regions, nature based tourism is the backbone of tourism. Areas with unique attractions are viewed as potentials for tourism development. Most governments decided to establish protected areas and dictate resource utilization. More often than not, that act confronts challenges from stakeholders. This is something deep-rooted from diverse stakeholders' interests on resource use and lack of participation.

Though sustainability is at the core of tourism development, the body of knowledge on sustainable tourism has not been transferred to an operational level where it is actually needed by those who plan and manage tourism (See Ruhanen, 2008). This gap signifies the need for capacity building and knowledge sharing among stakeholders on sustainability concepts. We have to bear in mind that, once tourism in a destination is poorly developed, we notice a tragic loss of natural resources (referring to attractions in protected areas), tarnished destination image, and reduced competitiveness.

When you think from local to global to reflect negative effects of human activities on natural environment and call for more responsible actions (ecologization), you will realize the danger of unsustainable tourism development to protected areas. Demand on resource utilization to cater for human needs is extraordinary. That increases tension in managing protected areas. In some areas, the negative impacts of tourism outweigh its positive benefits. For example, most protected areas in Africa suffer from new pressures threatening the future of protected areas such as increased pollution and high traffic exceeding the carrying capacity, illegal activities linked to growth of local population and poverty (pouching, deforestation, wood collection, and land encroachment). As well as tour operators and tourists violating conservation regulations, human-wildlife accidents and associated compensation costs, disease transmission, business seasonality, leakage of revenue. New pressures also include new wave of politicians dictating resource utilization (in favor of foreign investors and local communities) without considering conservation principles and general management plan (GMP) of protected areas. As well as conflicts on resource use and lack of access to local communities members who were either forced out of their land by government during establishment protected area, or being reallocated to expand its zone(s), save extended ecosystems in the neighborhood.

Principally, stakeholders are responsible for all these challenges. Based on their capacities, they have a role to play in finding short-medium-long term solutions together. It has been found to be difficult to achieve sustainability goals when stakeholders work in divergence. It is also discouraging to see stakeholders in protected areas still work in isolation and fail to join their efforts to support conservation and sustainable tourism development. Therefore, this review paper seeks to enhance stakeholder's participation for sustainable management of protected areas. Specifically, It will present the concepts of stakeholders' management (involvement, collaboration, cooperation, partnership), while at the same time using African context to problematize the situation by identifying gaps on stakeholder management that affect realization of sustainability goals in protected areas. Indeed it will help practitioners to be aware of the presented concepts and understand how best stakeholders in protected areas can work together to achieve common goals of sustainability.

The concept of protected areas

One of the principal mechanisms for effecting preservationist or conservationist policies has been the establishment of protected areas. Protected areas, commonly abbreviated as PAs, are representative areas set aside to maintain ecological processes, genetic potential and environmental services (Imran, 2011). They also serve as tourist attractions, a tool to support livelihoods and as assets for economic development through tourism in the peripheries (See Mowforth& Munt, 1998; de Kadt 1979).

The idea of establishing protected areas started in United States of America when Yellowstone, the first national park in the world, was established in 1872. Internationally, recognized categories of protected areas are those of International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) in 1985 as shown in Table 1. Category I-III listed as "strictly protected areas" are mainly established to maintain biodiversity and natural formations. Category IV-VIII allows some degree of human use and controlled exploitation (IUCN, 1985). Biosphere reserves designated by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Man and Biosphere Program have been also added in the IUCN's categories. Biospheres are protected areas of environment internationally recognized for their value for preservation of genetic diversity" (C.F., Mowforth& Munt, 1993: 175).

Table 1: Protected area categories. Source: IUCN, 1985

Category	Type	Management objective
I	Scientific reserve/strict nature reserve	Protect nature and maintain natural process in undisturbed state. Emphasize scientific study, environmental monitoring and education, and maintenance of genetic resources in a dynamic and evolutionary state.
II	National park	Protect relatively large natural and scenic areas of natural or international significance for scientific, educational and recreational use.
III	Natural monuments/ natural landmark	Preserve nationally significant natural features and maintain their unique characteristics.
IV	Managed nature reserve/ wildlife sanctuary	Protect nationally significant species, groups of species, biotic communities or physical features of the environment when these require specific human manipulation for their perpetuation.
V	Protected landscapes	Maintain nationally significant natural landscapes characteristics of the harmonious interaction of people and land while providing opportunities for public recreation and tourism within the normal lifestyle and economic activity of these areas.
VI	Resource reserve	Protect natural resources for future use and prevent or contain development that could affect resources pending establishment of management objectives based on appropriate knowledge and planning.
VII	Natural biotic area/ anthropological reserve	Allow societies to live in harmony with the environment, undisturbed by modern technology.
VIII	Multiple use management area/ managed resource area	Sustain production of water, timber, wildlife, pasture and outdoor recreation. Conservation of nature oriented to supporting economic activities (although specific zones can also be designated within these areas to achieve specific conservation objectives).

Normally protected areas are established in accordance to national and international laws. In this paper the term custodians is used to refer to authorities that have legal mandate to manage protected areas, for example, the wildlife authority and park authority. Nevertheless, in most

developing regions stakeholders disobey that status. Today most protected areas are suffering from land degradation caused by large-scale development projects (agriculture, tourism, mining, and infrastructure), tourist overcrowding, and leakage of revenue, increasing population of local communities, land encroachment, pouching, logging, wood collection, charcoal making, and uncontrolled burning (See Wells & Brandon, 1992; Melita & Mendlinger, 2013). Similarly, local communities suffer from different problems such as extreme poverty, lack of land ownership, poor social services, and change in lifestyle and consumption pattern, casual labor and loss of cultural values. This conflict of interest results in management problems as not all stakeholders support conservation and tourism development.

Tourism and conservation support each other in the sense that, conservation protects tourism resources and tourism generates revenue to sustain conservation actions. However, custodians of protected areas face difficulties in establishing a symbiotic relationship between tourism development and conservation, especially on integrating human needs and desires with conservation goals (Ramutsindela, 2003). There are also cases when tourism is developed in protected areas key stakeholders (local communities), "the host", react uncooperatively to investors and tourists. For example in Loliondo game controlled area located between Serengeti and Ngorongoro in Tanzania. This problem is well illustrated by Doxey's irritation index model (1975). It shows that a community passes through a series of reactions (euphoria, apathy, annoyance and antagonism) when tourism evolves in their area (See Table 2). The relevance of Doxey's model is on its practicality towards understanding host-guest interactions and relationships at different stages of tourism growth. This is something that also needs to be done in protected areas to understand a community's attitude on tourism, and take necessary measures to avoid bad reception to guests.

Table 2: Doxey's irritation index model. Source: Adopted from Doxey's, 1975 & 1976

Stage of host approach to visitors Doxey's Irridex	Social relationship	What it means - Power relation
Euphoria	Initial phase of development; visitors and investors welcome	Visitors are welcome and there is little planning.
Apathy	Visitors taken for granted; contacts between residents and outsiders more formal (commercial)	Visitors are taken for granted and contact becomes more formal.
Annoyance	Saturation point approached; residents have misgivings about tourist industry	Saturation is approached and the local people have misgivings. Planners attempt to control via increasing infrastructure rather than limiting growth.
Antagonism	Irritation openly expressed; visitors seen as cause of all problems	Open expression of irritation and planning is remedial yet promotion is increased to offset deteriorating reputation of the resort.

I acknowledge the great work of previous scholars who developed the concept, sustainable tourism, which we apply in protected areas. However, there is a dominance of developed word perspective "western concepts" on sustainable tourism compared to other parts of the world (especially southern parts of Africa and South America), which are experiencing remarkable

tourism growth and attract millions of tourists (Lu and Nepal, 2009). In fact, literature on sustainability issues and stakeholder management in African protected areas are still inadequate.

Moreover, it is proven that, "western concepts" often encounter problems and sometimes fail when translated to developing world context (Mowforth& Munt, 1998; Timothy, 1999; Tosun 2000; Jamal et al., 2013). For example, the local population in Africa and Asia has experienced several negative effects and can be seen as "the loser". Such losses include loss of land, lack of access to resources (water, grazing areas, and firewood), poverty, famine, and illegal activities. The idea of establishing national parks (using Fortress Park Model separating communities and wildlife) was introduced from United States of America to conserve wildlife (See Mowforth & Munt, 1998). In 1959 alternative strategy of combining and indigenous communities, the so-called Community Conservation was used in Tanzania to establish Ngorongoro Conservation Area as multiple land use protected area (Melita & Mendlinger, 2013). That concept to support conservation, promote tourism development and safeguard interest of local population living within the conservation area (mostly Maasai pastoralists) did not work successful. Still to date, we see series of conflicts among stakeholders in protected areas. Therefore, it is challenging to have a pure symbiotic relationship that balances human needs and wildlife conservation in protected areas. However, the recent concept of establishing wildlife management areas (WMAs) applied in Tanzania, that involves local communities and other stakeholders to conserve wildlife and develop tourism outside protected areas seems to work well. WMAs give "great voice" to local communities, do not reallocate people, build capacity on resource management, and reduce pressure on protected areas.

Tracing the concepts of sustainable tourism in protected areas

The concept of sustainable tourism has been defined and implemented differently. Indeed lack of universal definition leaves stakeholders at crossroads, particularly in protected areas. Here the author adopts a definition by United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) describing sustainable tourism as "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities". The concept of sustainability and its application to tourism development in protected areas, has received considerable attention (Imran, 2011). It involves management of all resources in such a way that "economic, social and aesthetic needs are fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, and biological diversity and life support systems" (Butler, 1993).

Protected areas such as national parks, conservation areas, marine parks, forests and game reserves open the door for sustainable development through tourism. Custodians of the areas are responsible for monitoring all human activities and manage stakeholders to attain sustainability goals. According to the conceptual framework of tourism developed by Mathieson and Wall (1982), tourism has three interacting basic elements, which are the dynamic element, the destination element, and the consequential element. In tourism management, this implies that tourism is subject to change and leaves an impact (social, environmental, economic, political and technological). Therefore, we need to observe its development and control the impacts, especially the negative ones. Therefore, when we talk of tourism development in protected areas stakeholders should take into consideration the above interacting elements.

Sumner and Tribe (2008) describe development as a long-term process of structural societal transformation, a short to medium-term outcome of desirable targets, and a dominant discourse of western modernity. Development is also broadly used to signify any progress of positive transformation (See Sharpley, 2000). The aspect of positive transformation emphasizes the importance of sustainability factor. Therefore, it is important for stakeholders in protected areas to ensure tourism development reflect a positive transformation and improve quality of life. We also need good indicators to measure, monitor and control trend of tourism development.

Review shows the concept of sustainability in tourism has emerged as a new paradigm (See Saarinen, 2006).Nevertheless, from fundamental principles of sustainable tourism development "new typologies" emerged. The new typologies were presented as "alternative tourism" or "new forms tourism" (Smith & Eadington 1992). One of the good examples is ecotourism, which is commonly applied in protected areas. A reflection by Godfrey (1996) on the new typologies of tourism holds two major thoughts. The first was sustainability will be attained from "softer" forms of tourism that will partly replace mass tourism and the second was mass tourism is inevitable. In general, the new typologies were more reactive to havoc of mass tourism. Later on, that conception changed and contemporary convergence holds, sustainable tourism is "a goal to be achieved" that is applicable to all forms of tourism of tourism (rather than a specific type of tourism product) regardless of scale of development (Lu & Nepal, 2008). When we are addressing the concept of sustainable tourism development in protected areas, it is essential to know its shortcoming. We all know tourism development in protected area requires multi-sector efforts. The concept is overly tourism centric and parochial in terms of its scope, scale and sector context. As a result, it is more expressed as single rather than a multi-sector approach (Hunter, 1997). There is also the issue of viability of sustainable tourism concept (Hunter, 1997). The concept is also disputed for emphasizing growth in order for viability to be maintained (Wall, 1997).

Tourism started to grow significantly after the second world war and several countries, especially those in developing regions "the peripheries or south" (see Mowforth & Munt 1998, 2003; de Kadt, 1979) considered the industry as the vehicle or a passport to development. For example, existence of exotic wildlife, good climate, unique land features and culture were main assets to attract investments to promote tourism. However, due to the impact of colonization and neo-colonization, a great number of the African population does not engage much in tourism nor have a culture of visiting protected areas for recreation. More badly, some of them believe tourism is for foreigners and other rich people who have more disposable income. That can be reflected in the visitor statistics of most protected areas whereby the number of domestic tourists is low, compared to the total local population. We even see their length of stay is always short, compared to other visitors. Therefore, income generation in protected areas depends more on international tourism, which is characterized by high seasonality and stiff competition.

In contrast to other industries, at the beginning, tourism was perceived as a "smokeless industry" or "greener industry". Since the focus of most governments was on quick economic gains, more protected areas were opened up for development of tourism infrastructures to attract tourists. That was highly experienced between early 1970s to the 1990s. During that time, most destinations in Africa adopted mass tourism (more of Boosterism approach) as the model for

tourism development. Developments of beach tourism in Mombasa and wildlife safaris in Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya are some of the common examples of mass tourism in Africa. Even Tanzania that opted for Low Volume and High Yield (LVHY) as its approach for tourism development targeting quality tourism is experiencing the challenge of tourists overcrowding in its Northern Tourism circuit covering National Parks of Serengeti, Tarangire, Manyara, Mount Kilimanjaro, and Ngorongoro Conservation Area. Stakeholders operating lodges, tented camps and safaris extensively conduct their activities in that circuit (MNRT, 2002).

The mass tourism model has been criticized for deteriorating the quality of tourism. It is associated with negative impacts of tourism that create "tragedy of commons" in protected areas and destinations at large. In recent years, negative impacts associated with tourism development and ethical issues have received an increasing amount of attention in the entire industry (Saarinen 2006, Archer, Cooper & Ruhanen, 2005; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006). Stakeholders dealing with conservation have been at the forefront to save wildlife and raise awareness on sustainable tourism. They even promote other concepts of tourism such as ecotourism to replace mass tourism. However, we should be aware of the considerations of Butler (1999) that, even mass tourism can be sustainable and ecotourism can be unsustainable. From that point of view, I think there is a chance to reconsider the fitness of both models for tourism development and give a room for stakeholders to select which model fit best for a particular protected area.

When we look beyond protected area, review found in most regions there is a problem of negative impacts of tourism existing alongside its positive benefits. More badly significant benefits of tourism are rarely delivered across a wide social scale (Simpson, 2001). Unfortunately, policy makers have been overlooking that issue in management practice of tourism (Brockington et al., 2008). Regardless of scale of operation, level of development or a chosen approach for tourism development, deliberately I can argue that, what really matters (to improve the above situation) is protected area(s) to have good stakeholder management to combine efforts to address the challenges. That management practice should be embedded in organization structure. That will help to identify multiple stakeholders in the entire tourism system, understand their needs, acknowledge their potential, share responsibilities and set clear goals to achieve sustainable tourism development.

As a positive move to foster sustainability, it is interesting to find stakeholders in protected areas have a wide range of management concepts and tools to apply (See Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Swarbrooke 1999, Inkson & Minnaert, 2012). Some of them include the best practices such as; code of ethics, industry regulations, standards/criteria, grading and certification systems, general management plan (GMP), environmental impact assessments (EIA), carrying capacity (CC) and limits of acceptable change (LAC), zoning, on site visitor management (VIM) to monitor visitors flows and activities, product quality and enhancement of experience, and stakeholder management. However, review found in most destinations the body of knowledge on sustainability has not been fully transferred into the field (See Ruhanen, 2008). My field experience in Africa shows apart from national parks, aforementioned sustainability tools and concepts are not widely applied in other protected areas. In addition, stakeholders still work antagonistically.

Stakeholders' management in protected areas

It is arduous to achieve sustainability goals in protected areas when stakeholders work in isolation. Freeman, one of the gurus in management studies, defines a stakeholder as ''any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of a corporation's purpose'' (1984: VI). Stakeholder may also refer to "a person who has the right and capacity to participate in the process"; thus, anyone who is impacted upon by the action of others has a right to be involved (Gray, 1989). Protected areas have a complex network "the web" of stakeholders containing custodians, host communities, local government, tourism sector, tourists, local businesses, non-government organization (NGO's), international agencies, academia and the media (See Weaver and Lawton, 2010). In general, this concept imposes new management role in protected.

In this paper, the author adopts Freeman's definition (1984: VI). However he mentions Gray's (1989) definition to stress the importance of "stakeholder capacity to participate", something that has been taken for granted in the management of protected areas. From Freeman's point of view, the array of stakeholders is extensive. It goes beyond those having purely formal, official, or contractual ties to the organization. Custodians have to establish a clear framework to identify their stakeholders. In order to have such clear-cut there are three perspectives that can be used. First is the logic of using a narrow frame to reflect very direct economic links between organization goals and identified stakeholder (Cochran, 1994). Second is to apply a broad framework that virtually encompasses the whole society (Shankman, 1999), and last one is to be at the midrange. Since there are many stakeholders with different interests on protected areas, it is ideal for custodians to use a broad framework. That will help to incorporate many stakeholders in the management systems of protected areas.

In addition to the above, another dimension for identifying stakeholders focuses on potential to cooperation and threat (Savage et al., 1991). These two dimensions help organization to change its approach towards its stakeholders according to different situations. For example, being ''reactive, defensive, accommodative, or proactive'' (the RDAP) suggested by Clarkson (1995). Based on the RADP, I see stakeholders in protected areas, especially on the government side being defensive, rigid and more reactive. They are not proactive enough to act in advance or respond in time on matters concerning their stakeholders (private sector and local communities).

After identification process, stakeholders are categorized into two major groups as primary and secondary stakeholder (Clarkson, 1995). This grouping sets basis for appropriate lines of communication and good coordination. It should be noted that an organization's survival depends more on its primary stakeholders. The entire tourism industry is complex and has multiple stakeholders. However, when you make a list of stakeholders, four generic groups always surface namely locals, operators, tourists and regulators (see Hardy & Beeton, 2001).

Certainly, there is of great importance to increase our understanding on stakeholder management. We also need to find solutions for factors curbing effective stakeholder participation to sustain sustainability of protected areas. My working experience of more than eight years in tourism as a government officer in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tanzania, and literature review exposed me to different factors curbing stakeholder participation. Not only in protected areas but also the entire tourism structure in a destination. The identified

factors include heterogeneity and fragmented nature of tourism; lack of knowledge and skills on stakeholder management and related theories such as stakeholder theory, collaboration theory, social exchange theory, power theory, bottom up spill over theory, dependency theory, goal theory, networking and stewardship. In addition, inadequate resources to meet various demand associated with stakeholders' participation; lack of trust among parties; problems of coordination, bureaucracy and transparency in government structure which is more centralized. Unclear lines of communications; poor policies and regulations that do not recognize role of stakeholders (especially the private sector). Factors also include, lack of power; cultural background; lack of justice; fragility of common interests; and underestimation of stakeholder process and risk taking. As well as, failure to clarify goals and an unwillingness to make significant changes to current behavior (See Byrd, Bosley & Dronberger, 2009; Currie et al., 2009; Imran, 2011; Melita & Mendlinger, 2013; Cooper et al., 2009; Getz & Timur, 2005; Weaver, 2000; Waligo et al., 2013; Friedman & Miles 2006; Hall, 2007; Reed, 1997; Jamal & Getz, 1999). Stakeholders should not be perceived as "receivers" of sustainable tourism, but stand as active participants in the whole process of tourism development (Byrd, 2003). However, review shows most stakeholders in African protected areas continue to be victims of a centralized system "the trap" and end up being "receivers". This paper calls for more active stakeholders' participation in management systems of protected area. That can be through stakeholder involvement collaboration, cooperation and partnership.

Stakeholder involvement, collaboration, cooperation and partnership in protected areas

Stakeholder participation is critical for attaining sustainability goals in protected areas. When we talk of stakeholder participation concepts of involvement, collaboration, cooperation and partnership are prominent (see Waligo et al., 2013; Ruhanen 2009; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Currie, Seaton, & Wesley, 2009; Jamal & Getz, 1995). However, most people in the field are not acquainted with these concepts, or how they reflect on stakeholder management.

Involvement: This is the most common concept in stakeholder management. The reason is grounded in the fact that, it helps to avoid costs of resolving conflicts in the long term, make use of local knowledge, pooling resource together towards achieving common goals, increase capacity and level of awareness to all interested parties (See Waligo et al., 2013). For example, Jamal & Getz (1995:192) acknowledge the ''...necessity of involving key stakeholders and refining processes for joint decision making on destination planning and management issues within a community based domain''. They also pointed out six key conditions to facilitate the process, which are stakeholders believing they are interdependent; benefit from each other; decisions will be implemented; identify the key groups; the convener is legitimate with expertise, resources and authority; and the process is effective for involvement. It is also referred to stakeholder participation. It should be noted that this concept is also used to refer to stakeholder participation. One of the common practices of stakeholder involvements in protected areas includes meetings and councils involving custodians and local communities, tourism operators, employees, NGO's among others.

Indeed, bringing various interests together is the first crucial task towards effective stakeholders' involvement (Timothy, 1999). That is paramount in protected areas to avoid clashes of interests

among stakeholders. However, bringing all stakeholders on board is impractical, demanding and requires a good approach. In some situations, the operational, structural, and cultural elements limit stakeholder involvements (Tosun, 2000). As already pointed out in previous part, this challenge is highly encountered in destinations with the centralized decision making system (Brohman, 1996; Mowforth & Munt, 1998). In fact, a power imbalance on decision-making is a serious problem. Most protected areas in Africa are in rural areas, bounded by large local population. This important group of stakeholders is becoming aggressive to government demanding more power, right, resource flow, and more involvement in planning and decision-making. For example, due to lack of involvement, most locals are unhappy with the approach used to designate their land for wildlife conservation. Others even develop negative attitudes towards tourists (See Table 2). Hatred is also extended to tourism investors, game officers and rangers, forest officers, tourism officers and local authority officers.

Collaboration: In simple terms Wood and Gray (1991:146) describe collaboration as '' . . . a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engaged in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain''. This definition was later improved by Thomson (2001),expressing collaboration as a process in which autonomous actors interacts through formal and informal negotiation, jointly creating rules and structure governing their relationships and ways to act or decide on the issues that brought them together. It involves shared norms and mutually beneficial interactions. From the previous section we have seen the existence of multiple stakeholders in protected areas and how important for them to have common goals to nurture sustainability.

Collaboration is a good tool to engage interested parties in the decision making process by allowing them to take responsibility (conflict resolution strategy), enhance their self-reliance, and their own awareness of the issue. All of which enables them to enjoy a greater degree of consensus and shared ownership (See Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999). This is something that we need, to uphold sustainable management in protected areas. In addition to that, collaboration reflects a flexible and dynamic process that enables multiple stakeholders to address sustainability issues jointly (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Jamal & Stronza, 2009; Garcia-Rossel & Makinen, 2013). Overall, through collaboration stakeholders get an opportunity to negotiate their interests, build trust, establish mutuality and reciprocity, as well as commit themselves to implement various actions to get desirable outcomes of resource utilization in protected areas.

The multi-stakeholder processes in collaboration offer a wealth of multiple perspectives and experiences, which allow stakeholders to construct knowledge and develop the learning capabilities necessary to reach their objectives. The term "multi-stakeholder process" refers here to the equitable representation of three or more stakeholder groups and their views on processes that encompass dynamic relationships and social interactions. The processes are based on democratic principles of transparency and participation and aiming at achieving common goals, building strong networks among stakeholders, knowledge transfer and negation to seek solution advantageous to all (see Hemmati, 2002; Garcia-Rossel & Makinen, 2013). The review shows that stakeholders' participation in African protected areas is limited and a centralized government system in decision-making is still dominant. I believe "multi-stakeholder process" is significant for sustainable management of protected areas. Equally, it will help to eliminate some of bureaucratic procedures and encourage holistic approach.

Cooperation: Cooperation is another important concept in stakeholder management. It relates with collaboration, but involves more of voluntarily arrangements in which two or more parties engage in a mutually beneficial exchange instead of competing. It usually happens when resources are adequate or process interaction shows a possibility of creating more resources. At regional level, cooperation has been widely used by stakeholders to manage protected areas within trans-boundary ecosystems. For example in southern and eastern Africa, we can site good examples like Kavango-Zambezi Trans Frontier Conservation Area, and Selous-Niassa Wildlife Corridor, and Mara River Basin (Serengeti and Maasai Mara). Major achievements include zonal anti-pouching, capacity building in management of protected areas, and networking of stakeholders.

Partnership: Partnerships can be formed between a number of individuals, agencies or organizations with a shared interest. One of the recent of partnership in protected areas is public private partnership (PPP). It engages signing of agreements and memorandum of understanding (MoU) between park authority (public) and tourism operators (private sector) on management issues. Paybacks include the ability to: develop a "whole person" approach; develop a wider skill base to meet more effectively needs of individuals; recognize and utilize the strengths and areas of expertise of all the partner agencies involved; make the best use of available resources by managing care of more people in a coordinated and cost effective way including pooling resources. The review found key principles of a successful partnership are openness, trust and honesty between partners, agreed shared goals and values, regular communication between partners, and good coordination.

Conclusion

Stakeholder management is integral for sustainable management of protected areas. This has an impact on resolving conflicts of interests and realization of sustainability goals in a holistic way. It has been found centralized government system in decision-making is still dominant. That limits power and active stakeholder's participation in management of protected areas. In short, stakeholders end up being "receivers" of plans, strategies regulations and other decisions related to management of protected areas. This paper suggests more actions to position the concept of stakeholder management in protected areas. To gain more commitment, policies and regulations related to tourism and wildlife should encourage stakeholder participation and clearly designate their responsibilities. The review proved survival of protected areas and sustainable tourism developments lies in their hands, thus each stakeholder has a role to play.

Stakeholder matters in protected areas should not be taken for granted. Using concepts of stakeholder management such as involvement, collaboration, cooperation and partnership, makes it possible to bring all stakeholders together. Through this, they can establish clear lines of communication and better coordination, build trust, make critical decisions together and seek solutions advantageous to all, combine efforts to address management issues, knowledge transfer and capacity building. This will also help to increase awareness as well as bridge the gap of knowledge on sustainability concept and its tools. We should remember sustainable tourism is the goal to achieve in all forms of tourism.

Most of the concepts used to establish and manage protected areas are western developed. They have caused more stakeholder conflicts in management of protected areas when applied in the African context. For example, the Fortress Model of the National Park that spilt people and wildlife. The model encourages reallocation of indigenous people to establish national parks and impose tough restrictions. We are neglecting the fact people in Africa have been living in harmony with wildlife for hundreds of years. Also unlike North America and Europe, large local populations in Africa live in rural areas where most protected areas are located. Before establishment of protected areas, communities used to have free access to wildlife resources in their land to support livelihood and practice their traditional activities. Today they cannot continue with their traditional life. They have lost their heritage and freedom, while poverty keeps increasing. In order to fight against poverty and make a living, circumstances force them to do illegal activities such as pouching. As a result, every day, the number of wildlife in African protected areas is decreasing. However, through entrepreneurship, some of the locals try their wings into tourism business. Therefore, we still have a challenging task to save protected areas in Africa. Similarly, it is important to have more community awareness on conservation and opportunities for locals to take part in the tourism business.

Lastly, not all forms of tourism are harmful. There are different cases in protected areas that channel income from tourism to support conservation and community development services, for example in Ngorongoro Conservation Area. Therefore, we need more projects of sustainable tourism in protected areas. Also all stakeholders should act more responsibly. That act should reflect five aspects of sustainability (environment, economic, social, political and technology), rather than focusing on the three Ps of sustainability (people, planet and profit) or the triple bottom-line (social, environmental, and financial). In addition to the above, I encourage stakeholders in protected areas to apply the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR). This will inspire more responsible actions for organizations (custodians of protected areas, tourism operators) to care for the environment and wellbeing of their stakeholders (local communities, employees, tourists).

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Deconstruction of Man-nature Dialogue Nexus: A Critical Assessment of Stakeholders' Relationship with Mole National Park

Michael Kweku Commeh

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Ghana,
kwekumichael@gmail.com

Key words: Mole National Park**,** survival/security, trust, biomass energy, stakeholders

Abstract

The relationship between man and nature dates back to the millennia. The intimacy of man-nature interaction increased with decreasing healthy nature, as man's insatiable desire to know and control nature as a commodity becomes more dynamically complex. It is in this context that Mole National Park (MNP) and its wider stakeholders are being examined to understand the fundamental values that will engender a healthy relationship between stakeholders and the National Park.

The work dealt with stakeholders whose activities are connected to Mole National Park: communities around the National Park (NP); tour operators near and far; tourists; government; traditional administration and indigenous people; through to farming communities that span 100km radius around the park. The work exploratively identified biomass energy demand and farming activities as externalities that threatens MNP. The conflict associated with man's activities with nature to survive has come with biodiversity loss, unpredictable climate change with its associated food insecurity.

This paper is about understanding the meaning of underlying narratives of stakeholders to identify shared ethical value(s) that will motivate them to be committed in enhancing effective management of MNP. It is about how dialogue between man and nature has evolved in post-modernist Africans and how they understand their relationships first amongst themselves (Abel et al., 1998) and then with nature, and probably why. The paper observes trust and survival values as major parameters having an effect on a quality relationship among stakeholders, and their dialogue with Mole National Park as one of the causes of nature mismanagement. The question is: how can one enhance this to effectively manage it? What are the elements needed for stakeholders to be committed to the sustainability of MNP?

Effective management of MNP in this research will deal with the identification of common shared value(s) by which stakeholders would be committed to the sustainable management of the park. Stakeholders here mean anyone or company or community, park managers, farmers, fisher folks, energy suppliers, governments etc. whose activities are related to the MNP resources. The different worldviews of stakeholders and their dialogue with nature invoke the use of deconstruction to interpret and thoroughly understand their text (Jaeger, 2003). Although these stakeholders are scattered and not well networked, they share some fundamental value(s) that motivate them possibly commit to sustaining MNP.

Mole National Park is uniquely located within latitude 9° 12'-10° 06' longitude 1° 25'- 2° 17 W, with a surface area of 4,840km^2 in the West Gonja District of Northern Region of Ghana. It is the largest and the first National Park in Ghana. It consists of fairly undisturbed open savannah woodland of guinea Savannah ecosystem type. The park has very rich flora and fauna with over 93 species of mammals; about 400 species of birds; 9 amphibians; 33 reptilian; several insectivorous species; and 5 endemic butterfly species having been recorded. Species of special interest include elephant, buffalo, kob, western hartebeest, roan antelope, defassa waterbuck, oribi, bohor reedbuck and red-flanked duiker. The riverine forests are home to rare and endangered species such as yellow-backed duiker and black and white colobus monkey. The lion, leopard and hyena are important large carnivores found in the reserve. The buffalo population is of great scientific interest since both black and red color varieties exist in the park. It also used to be trade route in the late eighteenth century, from beyond Mali to the coast (http://whc.unesco.org/en/tentativelists/1391/, 10:35,10/02/2015).

In Ghana as with most developing countries, the benefits that people obtain from ecosystem services, such as food, potable water and energy, are known to be a major contributor to local and national economic development. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, ecosystem services are considered to be of greater importance to human well-being than anywhere else is (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2000). This is largely attributed to the relatively huge proportion of citizenry being farmers living in rural and whose livelihoods depend directly and heavily on ecosystem services, as well as the huge biomass energy usage by the nation. The big market is found in the cities and towns where the demand for bush meat is high as a delicacy derived from the ecosystems protected by the government.

Guided by the deconstruction philosophy of Derrida (1967) and Rawlings (1999), Cuddon (1991) and Johnson (1981) and the integrated theory of reflexive dialogue, and Stoll-Kollemann (2006) designing and interpreting of the quantitative and qualitative questionnaires used in this study were developed. Deconstruction is a technique of reading and interpreting text, through a method of criticism and way of analytical inquiry. A deconstructive reading is a reading that analyses the specificity of a text's critical difference from itself. The integrated theory of reflexive dialogue utilizes three theories, namely: social psychological approaches; organizational learning; and formal mathematical approaches for decision support.

Conclusively, security/survival, trust, sense of belonging and road infrastructure were core shared values espoused by the respondents. Road network development however will cause vegetation destruction through the desire by stakeholders wanting to cash in on the high demand for forest products like traditional energy sources, traditional food crop, and endangered flora and fauna (endangered timber- red rosewood and bushmeat).

Introduction

The evolution of interaction of man and/with nature dates back to the genesis of the world, probably starting with the hunting and gathering culture of Ancient Egypt and Greek civilization who saw the spiritual plenum of nature, reality and divinity as one (physis, ta Onta, and to theiom) (Borgmann in Soulé and Lease, 1995; chapter 3). According to Borgmann, the sixth

century saw the fragmentation of the cosmos through a curious attempt by Thales and other philosophers, to unearth and understand the mysteries of nature. Here, nature, reality and divinity no longer became one. Nature became a non-human region within reality, while divinity was placed in a region above and beyond reality. Nature must be created, divinity must come from revelation and faith was left with humans to sort out through reasoning (Borgmann in Soulé and Lease 1995; chapter 3).

Philosophers in the 15ᵗʰ Century attempted to determine the ultimate components of reality; and to understand and know its attributes, properties and possibilities to help them construct a world of prosperity, freedom and human liberty. This freedom, prosperity and human liberty came with its wake the destruction of nature resulting in acid rain, ozone holes, floods etc. Man has rendered sun and rain injurious and changed the predictability of the weather and seasonal patterns marking a closure in the history of humans and nature, (Mckibben in Borgmann in Soulé and Lease, 1995). Did humans really close the chapter on nature? I don't think so! Humans recalcitrant dialogue with nature is continuum and continuous. The desire of humans to control nature has been very urgent in postmodernism or contemporary times.

The establishment of knowledge of nature for prosperity and freedom emerged and coincided with commodification of distant nature as a product: to be able to commodify nature, one needs to control it. The desire of humans to dominate nature as a commodity has seen new paradigms and metaphorical perceptions, like biodiversity, genetic variety, ecosystem, and biocentrism, intrinsic value of nature and integrity and beauty of biotic community. This new approach to the world is fundamentally the control humans appreciate, because of it consumption pleasure that comes along with it. It is therefore simply common sense to effectively manage nature to effectively control it. However, the commodification of nature also comes with crosscutting conflict, resulting in its wake conflict resolution through benefit sharing, common property, collaborative sharing arrangements, etc. In addition to this, the destructive effect of man's activities against nature brings with it issues like climate unpredictability, biodiversity loss, and unhealthy environmental implications.

The past two decades has been spent finding a suitable form of dialogue among and between stakeholders and nature. Stakeholders' participation in nature restoration in particular and forest regeneration in general has eluded development organizations, governments, and neo-liberal and capitalist enterprises. In sub-Saharan Africa, forest and national parks in particular are under serious threat from the surrounding communities and society at large (Mwenya et al., 1988). Mwenya et al. (1988) narrated that, despite being heavily aid dependent, the situation pertaining to rural coexistence with wildlife has not changed and is more precarious than ever; and the magnitude of the challenge to make it once more self-sustainable is more than a law enforcement response. According to Hadley (1985) and Marks (1976), historically African societies had a stable coexistence with wildlife, combining intrinsic values with ecological conservation in African culture and traditions. The undermining of the traditional administrative system by the colonial government, and this being continued by post independent African states has compounded the situation, adopting punitive measures designed to maintain barriers between wildlife resources in protected areas and local residents living in or around such areas (Swift, 1982; Willis, 1985). Despite all the money spent on law enforcement, conflict between man and nature has worsened.

Recent literature (mostly from development financial agencies) has established and confirmed the failure of community based developmental projects dating back five decades. In addition, researched works and literature have concentrated on benefit sharing, collaborative sharing arrangements under typology of benefit sharing framework through the theory of common property, and community based nature management to mention a few (Nkhata et al., 2012; Ahebwa, et al., 2012).. All the above-mentioned approaches are geared toward enhancing effective management of natural resources or address the problems related to the governance of social-ecological systems in developing countries in particular. The dialogue between man and nature is complex, dynamic and evolving, with its inherent conflicts posing the question of how this complex dynamic dialogue of interactions between nature and society is addressed (Nktaha et al., 2012)? The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) in 1992, formalized the concept of benefit sharing in international environmental law and governance (CBD, 1992). Essentially, the concept denotes forms of social accountability and responsibility to direct returns from use of natural resources, be they monetary or non-monetary, back to a range of designated participants within socially designed arrangements (Hayden, 2003). And this concept has evolved to include a number of natural resource policy domains, from forestry, wildlife and water management through to pharmaceutical, oil and mineral 'prospecting' to human genetic research fitting the notion of ecosystem services, broadly defined by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA) as the benefits of nature dialogue with society (MEA, 2005). This trend is viewed as a way of exposing and highlighting the values of ecosystems to humans (Costanza et al., 1997; Boyd & Banzhaf, 2007; Wallace, 2007; Daily et al., 2009; Norgaard, 2010). They endorse the values of ecosystem to humans fitting into MEA's (2005) concept, leading to massive policy enthusiasm in the role of ecosystem services in providing benefits. However, the challenges of governance systems in complex social-ecological systems are well documented (Farley & Costanza, 2010; Norgaard, 2010). Over the last two decades these challenges have formed the core of international debate on the governance of ecosystem services and access in developing countries (Brockhaus and & Botoni, 2009).

On the other hand, sharing of benefits continues to be contentious and challenging in most developing countries (Philips et al., 2006; Turton, 2008; Winickoff, 2008). There is no doubt that the sharing issues in the context of ecosystems in relation to sustainable allocation of benefits and promotion of human well-being improvements for the rural poor is always going to be a formidably challenging task in developing countries. These people are likely to face the immediate risks from loss of the benefits deriving from ecosystem services (Nkhata et al., 2012). Nkhata et al. (2012) suggest, for one to appreciate the research relevance of benefit sharing, a deep reflection on what is currently happening in developing countries that are heavily and directly dependent on natural resources for socio-economic development and poverty alleviation is needed. Developing countries seem to provide an excellent example(s) of the inextricable relationship between natural resource governance and sustainability.

The growing insight in natural resource policy research and its sustainability issues concerning developing countries cannot be explored or discussed in isolation, but needs to be examined within the broader context of benefit sharing, climate change and wider stakeholders' context (Norgaard, 2010). Research insights into sustainability problems demand a full appreciation and understanding of the underlying narratives that will motivate stakeholders to be committed to managing natural resources of which benefit sharing processes and patterns may emerge. It is

not uncommon to find countries rich in natural resources having higher incidences of conflicts and the tendency to under-perform socio-economically. These countries have also suffered from poor natural resource governance including benefit sharing processes and low commitment. In the context of Mole National Park (MNP), is it benefit sharing, strict law enforcement etc. that are causing degradation of the park or are there other externalities that needed attention? As Ostrom (2005) in Nkhata (2012) observes, there are numerous ways of managing ecosystem services – or even sharing benefits, and that one needs an integrative science of benefit sharing as embedded in common property theory. It is through these narratives that one seeks to conduct this research work through exploratory from the integrative theory of reflective dialogue of Welp and Stoll-Kollemann (2006).

The recent witnessing of wanton felling of Rosewood by Ghanaian chain saw operators in and around Mole National Park (backed by Chinese buyers with both traditional chiefs and government agencies looking the other way) has raised questions from environmentally concerned stakeholders. MNP is seen as a very important asset for the nation, the northern sector and international organizations due to its geographical position as well as providing a safe haven for endangered flora and fauna, not to mention socio-economic security opportunities and scientific research interests. MNP used to be a protein reserve band for indigenous Gonja people in the 18th Century. However the colonial administration raised health concerns regarding the harboring of tsetse fly and as a result wildlife were hunted to the point of extinction from 1923 until 1958 when Dr. Kwame Nkrumah ordered a stop to the hunting, declared it a game reserve and named it Mole National Park.

MNP is said to have about 29 to 33 communities around it harboring a population of 200,000 inhabitants. Traditionally the communities have used park for their protein and livelihood reserve bank where, for example, livestock are reserved as emergency capital for hospital bills, school fees etc. Since its inception, MNP has grown to include wider stakeholders making its management increasingly complex. Although initially the immediate concern was the communities around MNP, the research showed that, in fact, particular socio-economic activities up to 100km away from MNP were more important and in need of urgent and immediate attention, hence the aim to understand the dynamics that will enhance effective management of MNP. The objectives are therefore:

Finding common ethical value(s) by which stakeholders would be committed to nature conservation and management; and investigating the ethno-philosophy activities of the indigenous people and its effect on MNP.
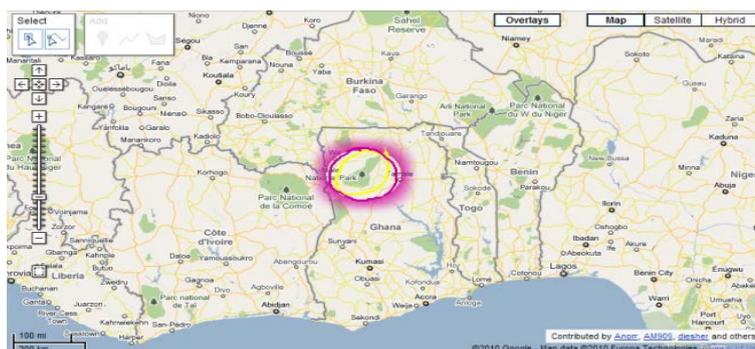

Figure 1: A map of Ghana with encircled Mole National Park. Source: Google Maps

Mole National Park

The stability that Ghana enjoys from its macro-economic policies has made it attractive to foreign investors, who also look for partnership in their business ventures. The Ghana government is encouraging private sector through the promotion of private public partnership (PPP) as some of the key parameters to the success of environmental entrepreneurship, an evidence of the government's belief in the re-invention of creativity as a new management style for sustainable management of Mole National Park.

Economically, MNP attracts approximately USD175, 000 annually with the revenue growing steadily every year. The construction of the FuFulso-Sawla connecting road in 2015 is expected to double revenue in the first year as well as open economic activities around the reserve. It is also likely to increase poaching and other illegal harmful to the reserve. The author believes that the construction of the all year road network around the reserve will enhance livelihood activities through the reduction of post-harvest loses, easy access to essential commodities and markets, medical care etc.

Mole National Park is situated in northern Ghana between 9° 12´ -10° 06´ North and 1° 25´-2° 17´ west and covers an area of approximately 4840 km² (Sackey & Hale, 2008; http://whc.unesco.org/en/tentative lists/1391/), Mole and Lovi Rivers are the most significant among the numerous rivers which cross or originate in the park. The park lies in the Guinea savanna zone. The dominant vegetation type is the open savanna woodland with a grass layer that can reach up to 3m tall during rainy season and which is burnt annually. According to Sackey and Hale (2008), Hall and Jeník (1968) have recognized four savanna vegetation types in the West Gonja District, which includes the park. MNP is the largest game reserve in Ghana with about 94 species of mammals including bats and over 300 species of birds (Hossain & Hall, 1996). The distribution of large mammals, particularly elephants, is skewed to the southeastern section of the park.

The management of MNP as proposed by IUCN management plan (see appendix 3) looks at the integrated approach to managing the protected area. Managing protected areas, in modern times has becomes interdisciplinary involving other stakeholders and such an integrated research approach is needed (Jurgens, 2007). The economic, scientific, environmental, historical and cultural nature of MNP attests to this integrated and interdisciplinary management methods and methodologies.

Method(s)

The methodology used in addressing the issues raised above are from the integrative theory of reflexive dialogue (Welp & Skoll-Kleeman, 2006), where different domains and layers of a dialogue (Jaeger, 2003) is the key platform for exchanging arguments and creating common meaning of worldviews of stakeholders. This personal relationship tends to enhance trust building, empathy, antipathy, etc. The theory of integrative reflexive dialogue posits the need to conduct research within the construct framework of social psychological approaches, organizational learning, and formal mathematical approaches as tools for decision support. This paper tends to delve into the practical implications for conducting stakeholder dialogues in environmental management, science, and policy for the development of appropriate solutions. The methodological process followed the mental modeling approach where the thought of

someone's process about how issues works and represent themselves in the real world, is identified. The relationships between various parts of the world and a person's intuitive perception about his or her own acts with other stakeholders and nature, and their consequences need to be understood. It is in this vein that deconstruction philosophy is applied to interpret the text of stakeholders' views.

One adopted an integrated theory of reflexive dialogue approach, a fundamental mixed method, applied for the objectives through quantitative and qualitative methods. One used open-ended questions for qualitative and closed ended and ranking of the same questions for quantitative questionnaires. Observation played a key role in my data collection supplementing other tools. The primary data was collected by the open question qualitative approach of interviewing stakeholders, transcribed, and analyzed. Face-face in-depth interviews for purposeful sampling of stakeholders for primary data were conducted. This took the form of an informal casual conversational approach. Questionnaires on paper were not used as questions for the day were memorized. The questions asked came under the headings: general questions about the respondent; perception of the mission and strategy; externalities and the environment; questions about stakeholders; core competences; SWOT analysis; and participatory geographic information system. Two weeks are normally spent in a community to administer questionnaires. For other states stakeholders it lasted between one to two weeks to administer each questionnaire.

Secondary data came from MNP GIS data through the Centre for Remote Sensing and Geographic Information Service (CERGIS) of the University of Ghana, National Archives, and Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) for on population census data. The tools are the process through which stakeholders' worldviews can be pictured. One selected six out of the thirty-three (33) communities bordering the MNP for the research. The six communities were based on wildlife department's contribution by identifying 'trouble' communities situated on easy route to major markets in the cities known for poached fauna and illegal flora. Other stakeholders scattered across the country were interviewed face-face, including retired personnel from various institutions and organizations.

One applied participatory GIS to understand the worldview of the stakeholders' relationship with MNP and the world. This was done by asking stakeholders to map out their community. One then observed carefully the sequence of the drawings; the sequences represent what is most important to them. The questionnaires covered a wide range of themes, however one settled on four themes of values, as they tend to appear more frequently, namely survival/security, trust, sense of belonging and road network. The quantitative method was used to triangulate the qualitative results to cross check their closeness in results.

For the second objective, the application of a geographic information system and remote sensing were used. These tools helped in observing and analyzing the vegetation changes over a period of 27 years, and they observed how the changes have affected MNP. An explorative approach was used to find how other human socio-economic activities affect MNP. It identified how traditional wood fuel energy and farming affect MNP. The imagery showed stack degradation of biodiversity due to these two major activities.

The multi-phase process for data organization and interpretation, through which the analysis and

the identification of common themes were selected and the differences in opinions among stakeholders were also separated. The analysis introduced used alternative scenarios on a particular theme or topic to identify how respondents responded to an idea.

Considering the volume of interviews conducted, not all quotes or response could be added in the final write up. One will therefore briefly elaborate on the method used in the selection of the final excerpts. Common answers for each theme that convey a specific point were examined and comparisons made across interviews (Patton, 1990; Getz et al., 2004). The interpretation of the study was drawn from the ideas of hermeneutic philosophical settings, on which Jacque Derrida's deconstruction is employed.

Results and Discussion

Considering the limited words allocated to this paper, the volume of answers from the results for objective one has been reduced: a few choice answers from respondents that dominate across stakeholders are now given.

Objective One:

For objective one (both qualitative and quantitative), respondents showed a high affinity for trust, and road infrastructural development. Lack of trust, security and road network infrastructure are core ethical values shared by most respondents. Respondents' high affinity with trust and road networks is observed to be linked to their fundamental survival values. In addition, low socio-economic activities, invasion of non-indigenous hunters/poachers, illegal miners, and timber merchants were also found to be linked for the same reasons. The harsh conditions exhibited in the studied area gave birth to a coping strategy of which prayers and festivals are key conduits. The answers given pointed to these facts. The interpretation method was drawn from deconstruction of Jacques Derrida, a postmodernist approach to interpreting 'text'.

Trust: is said to be magical or a catalyst for effective management of any organization (Greenspan, 2007: pg. 255-256; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Emborg et al., 2013). In their book, front cover page "*The Speed of Trust*", Covey and Merrill (2006), explained and elaborated upon how trust has kept society together openly, thus:

> *Without trust, there is no open society, because there are not enough police to patrol every opening in an open society. Without trust, there can also be no flat world, because it is trust that allows us to take down walls, remove barriers, and eliminate friction at borders. Trust is essential for a flat world…*

He then affirms why "The ability to establish, grow, extend, and restore trust with all stakeholders-customers, business partners, extend, investors, and co-workers is the key leadership competency of all new global economy".

"We want openness in the dealings and deliberations of the Wildlife Dept. administration. Some are promoted and others with better performance are not. On

what criteria or basics are staffs promoted; all these must be made clear and transparent to all" –trust-WD focus group#1

Sense of Belonging: People, according Maslow (1945), need to feel respected among other or social groups. This helps them grow their self-respect and esteem. Once someone's desire of self-esteem and respect are trampled upon, this creates conflicts. Maslow's theory emerged from the feedback of stakeholders; comments such as:

"We only kill wildlife when they are outside the MNP boundaries"- lack of sense of belonging - Communities # 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7

"The land was left to us by our ancestors and now we are alien to it (MNP) how do we survive? We need to eat!" –Survival-Community #3

This attests to the fact that communities around the park are not ready to protect the wildlife as demanded by law. Some of the reasons given during discussions and observations were that "the land belongs to them" and "it was taken away by the government". However, wildlife officials have been poaching too, according to poachers and some chiefs. Putting it back into perspective, MNP area was previously a hunting ground for the Gonja people prior to it being taken over by the colonial Administration in 1928 and later by Ghana government in 1958. In their minds, MNP is still theirs.

Security/Survival Value: Man's first need is to survive or live and the basic needs are shelter, food and clothing. From the field research, all these basic needs had been met. However, the security that ensures consistent and constant quality of survival value is relatively low if not unpredictable. The survival value comes at different levels across the stakeholders. Money seems to be the root cause of problems, and the solution to problems in and around MNP. All the stakeholders mentioned survival and/or security as the main reason for their mission and vision of MNP.

"The price and demand for bushmeat is so high and the park with its wildlife belongs to us left for us by our ancestors. The government does not give us any of the profit, yet has placed restriction on how and when we can hunt. How can we survive this economic hardship?" Hunter #1

Alternative Livelihood: stakeholders saw this as a way of reducing stress on the community members. The other stakeholders, especially tour operators, see that an alternative livelihood in the communities will improve the revenue because there will be wider range of tourism products and it will attract more adventure and cultural tourists.

"We are very vigilant against bush fire since good biodiversity/vegetation corresponds to good quality honey thus better price." Community # 4

"Since the introduction of the CREMA project, we have experienced hyena and elephants in our community" community #6

"The CREMA idea has support us during the lean dry season because of community tourism development and we are hoping to manage part of the reserve to enhance our potentials in wealth creation through PAs" community # 5

Road Network: The road network has always been necessary for economic development. The road network in the study area is seasonal in nature and affects effective management and economic activities. Road network design and development in relation to protected area management and communities around the park is new in Ghana. Ghana's road network follows the colonial administration system where the road network depended on major economic activities like mining. Despite the contentions between foresters and environmentalists on the effect of a road network construction on the environmental ecology like biodiversity degradation, road network development, Ghana has no road network development parameter plan to date, on game parks and forest communities' economic and environmental ecology monitoring. It is imperative to the accessibility of relevant areas for effective natural resource development (Gumus et al., 1992). As stipulated by UNCED (1992), a road network in the context of sustainable development identifies natural resources as the key element of environmentally sound development. In Ghana, the government solely handles road network development and this is hugely based on economic activities like mining and the likes or political votes. Stakeholders are not involved.

"we need roads badly to grow our business" - all the stakeholders.
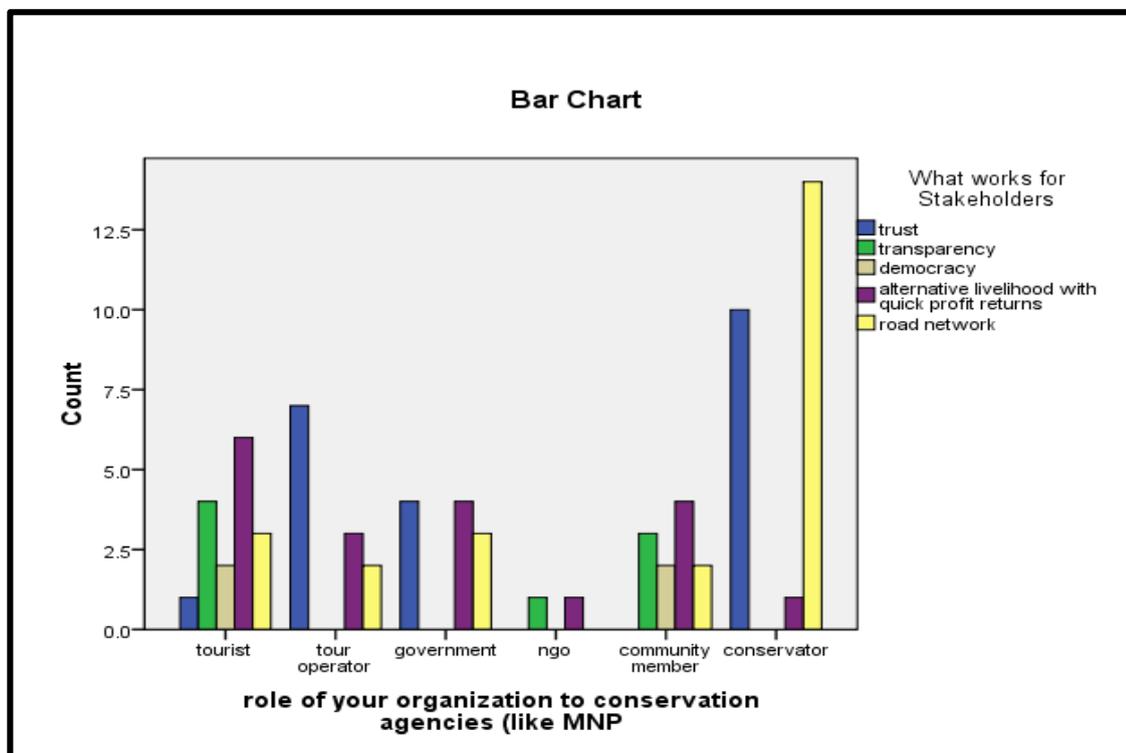
Figure 2: Strength of Association between Stakeholders

Table 1: Percentage of the various themes by which stakeholders will work hard to enhance a quality relationship

What stakeholders Want	Percentage
Trust	26.5
Transparency	9.6
Democracy	4.8
Alternative livelihood	22.9
Road network	28.9

From the non-parametric quantitative results and analysis, Figure 2 shows how road network (RN), trust and alternative livelihood were major core shared values to engender a quality relationship among stakeholders including MNP.

Road network (RN) is fundamentally the backbone of an economic development, and this was confirmed by the basic needs for survival/security of stakeholders in the study area. In fact, this emerged in the participatory GIS organized within all of the communities, that a road leading to the market centers was the second most important asset after the chief's palace. As the research was being conducted about ten years ago, the major road from Fulfuso to MNP was so bad that it took 5 hours instead of 45 minutes. The feeder roads that connects rural communities around the park to the market centers and big towns and cities are tractors trails. The conservators (wildlife officers) needed the road network to monitor the park effectively, especially during the dry season.

Stakeholders saw livelihood, a fundamental surviving /security and economic activity for the communities around the park, as an important parameter for the enhancement of a quality relationship among them and thus engendering effective management of MNP. Tourists, forming roughly more than 90 per cent foreign visitors to MNP, were also educated and mostly foreign students studying in Ghana. These tourists appreciate the need to develop alternative livelihoods for the communities through the proceeds from MNP revenue. They preferred these communities develop their tourism potential with water and sanitation being the most important. They also believe that alternative livelihoods will reduce wanton use of MNP resources for their livelihood. The conservators also agreed to the livelihood development but theirs was enshrined in the new International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) report to the Wildlife Division (WD) of the Forestry Commission (FC). Tour operators saw alternative livelihood development such as community tourism or individual tour operators as potential extra revenue for the business as well. Government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are following the trend because alternative livelihood development is a discourse and a way to get funding for projects respectively.

Trust is high for tour operators (especially those in the communities around the park) because they deal and collaborate with other partners in the creative economic. Trust is needed here to avoid conflicts or friction to reduce business time. Well-established tour operators tend not to abide by the rules of the game as complained by the smaller and newer tour operators supported by NGOs or the Wildlife Division.

Sense of belonging showed fiercely among stakeholders in the quantitative results. This also emerged from the participatory GIS results as drawn by stakeholders who never put MNP on their maps until asked; and they will throw their arms in the air, signifying somewhere not close to them a place far beyond their comprehension or world view, even though they might be

sharing a boundary with the park.

Table 2: shows the association between stakeholders and what works for them

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Degree of freedom	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	48.681[a]	20	.000
Likelihood Ratio	57.067	20	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.538	1	.463
N of Valid Cases	77		

In table 2, a chi square test showed significant association between stakeholder's categories and their values as the two sided asymptotic is, and p-value is zero being less than 0.001.

Objective Two:

Investigating into the ethno-philosophy activities of the indigenous people and its effect on nature, deals with the search for activities in general and socio-economic activities in particular that are affecting the vegetation in the study area. The study showed mainly corn, yam, cassava, sorghum, millet, legume and vegetables as crops farmed by communities around the parks. Free-range animal farming includes cattle, goats, sheep and fowls (mainly guinea and chicken fowl). The main local businesses are shea butter production from wild fruit, beekeeping, gari processing and groundnut oil production.
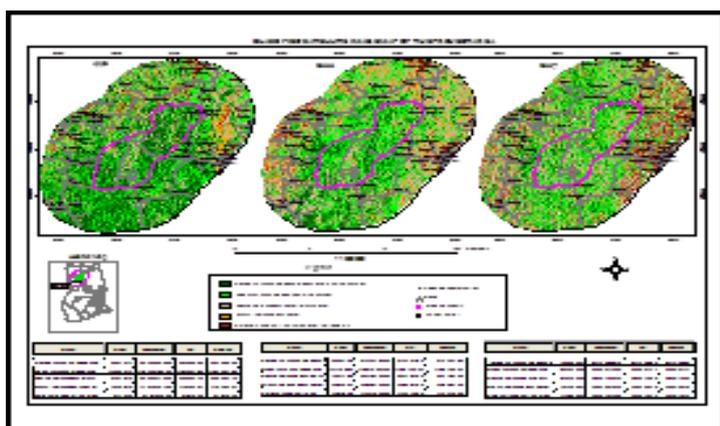
Figure 3: Vegetational changes within 20 years

The North Eastern side of the park has a lot of settlements, communities, or villages who are engaged in yam farming, an environmentally destructive food crop activity. The farming activity has increased because of the increase in population of the big towns and cities both near and far. In an attempt to cash in on the increased demand for food crop like yam and rice, farmers have increased their production to the detriment of the environment. The felling of trees for yam farming exposes the soil to evapo-transpiration, etc. This is likely to reduce the groundwater

level, since low vegetation, cover as seen in Figure3, will facilitate run off from rainwater in addition to evapo-transpiration. The provision of huge pans of water for irrigation of rice, onions, legumes etc. together with population growth, and infrastructural activities over a 30-year time span, has probably accounted for the sharp negative vegetational change as shown by the satellite imageries. The relatively good first class road in the middle corridor (Kumasi-Techman-Tamale-Bolga to Mali and Niger) has also facilitated the environmental destructive from socio-economic activities see Figure 3.

Figure 4: A typical fuelwood market. Source the Author

Wood fuel forms about 99.5% of the energy needs of the population around MNP and probably 95% in cities like Tamale, Techiman etc. Nationally 86% of Ghanaians use solid fuel (GSS, 2010) and this therefore puts pressure on the wood forest thus being a contributing factor to the vegetation change found in the satellite image in Figure 4 above. The relative first class road has facilitated easy transportation to the demand destinations see Figure 5, 6, 7 & 8 below.

Figure 5: Parked charcoal by the highway ready for loading by long vehicular trucks. Source the Author
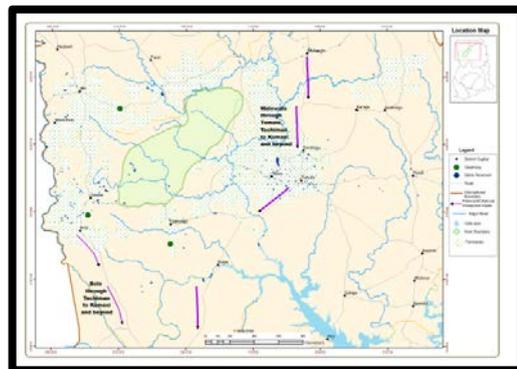
Figure 6: Movement of charcoal, bushmeat and food crops from the study area. Source the Author

Figure 7: Participatory GIS Map of Bawena and Konkori Drawn by Community Members
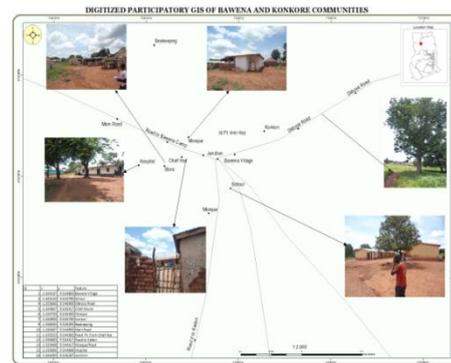
Figure 8: A Digitized Map of Participatory GIS Drawn by Bawena and Konkori Communities

The research suggests that, absence of **"survival values/security", "trust", "sense of belonging"** and **"road network"** will disrupt mechanisms that explicitly address parameters that are key elements to the enhancement of effective management within space and time, particularly, Ghana. The absence of security/survival values threatens the existence of the whole family. When man's survival is threatened with death, he can be extremely irrational, dangerous and destructive (Inculturation Task Force; Jesuit Centre for Theological Reflection Lusaka, Zambia, 2004). The lack of sense of belonging is heightened by lack of trust in good governance by the government, traditional authorities and other levels of societal structure (Emborg, 2013). Lack of road networks also threatens stakeholder's survival as shown in the participatory mapping by the communities and answers from other stakeholders. When trust was broken and basic survival/security threatened when non-payment of salaries to the Wildlife rangers/officials for three years, caused a wanton killing/poaching of wildlife (for bushmeat for sale and other purposes) dubbed the *"protect and kill them all"* operation. Both poachers and hunters had a field day then. This happened when Ghana's economy was so low and for nine months salaries were not paid. In the case of tour operators, arbitral charging of tour fees in the context of game theory invoked from lack of security/survival was inevitable as broken promises by politicians were compounded. Road network is linked to the survival of communities around the park as it leads to the marketplace.

However, a developed road network can also enhance wanton or massive destruction of the MNP and its content (wildlife). MNP is a huge reserve of bushmeat in Ghana with high demand, therefore better access will likely increase poaching and hunting. One saw in figure 2., how the construction of the asphalt highway from Kumasi to Baukina Faso through Tamale saw the deteriorating vegetation mainly because the large amount of fuel-wood, charcoal and foodstuffs could now be transported without a problem to areas of high demand like Kumasi, Accra and for export as well.

Policy Formulation and Conclusion

The first recommendation for policy formulation should evolve around survival/security of the stakeholders. For this happen, fundamentally, the effective management of any conservation system must be holistic (systemic) to cater for the wide scope of stakeholders. Trust, road network development and sense of belonging are the core-shared values by which effective

management can be established. Trustworthy leaders are needed to ensure trust through the perpetual evolving learning process as a prerequisite for successful adaption. The quick construction of a road network within the study area will enhance socio-economic activities through easy and quick access to markets. This will improve food security by reducing post-harvest loses. One would therefore recommend a policy that will engender education to contextually and contently involve how 'trust' can be taught to become part of the culture, to facilitate quality relationships, as a prerequisite for effective management of any conservative system.

The second recommendation for objective two, is the application of carbon credit benefiting end users mainly women rather than manufacturers. These women are fundamentally vulnerable and carbon credit will help in various ways; one to enhance survival/security of the women and children, and to help inhabitants understand the relationship between reduced energy sources use and forest regeneration. This will enable technologically efficient clean cook-stoves to be promoted to reduce wastage as experienced in the value chain system.

Furthermore, improved farming techniques should be promoted through smart extension systems to reduce quick land degradation. For example, honey from beekeeping fetches more profits as compared to traditional farming practices.

The recommendation to the first conclusion is therefore to ensure security or survival, trust (Jingsha et al., 2013), a road network and a sense of belonging is developed. Alternative livelihood development like the introduction of beekeeping through the creation of CREMA in some of the communities has started showing some development of trust with MNP management and A Rocha NGO. The reason being that quick profit returns from beekeeping can be achieved, as against other income generating activities like farming. The investment for farming is high and takes between six to twelve months to yield fruits depending on the type of crop, whilst that of honey lower and can be harvested one to three time a year depending on good vegetation. It is interesting to note, that beneficiaries to the beekeeping project also observed that there is a relationship between good honey yield and a healthy biodiversity. However, a developed road network can be negative to some extend as hunters and poachers have quick access to markets.

The recommendation to the second conclusion is that the management of MNP is not just about trust, road networks etc. but also the human activities in general as seen by the satellite maps Figure 2. The improvement of road networks is likely to improve law enforcement; management in general of the MNP as rangers can assess the park easily. It will also enhance socio-economic activities among stakeholders themselves and the outside market world. Environmental sanitation education is massively needed by all stakeholders to create awareness about how our socio-economic activities are negatively affecting the vegetation and the need to adapt and adopt smart solutions. However it can and will make illegal activities like poaching, felling of timber etc. more easily. The nexus of dialogue between man and nature is a complex one with its cross cutting issues and evolving in nature.

Certainly, there are some future research works that need in-depth investigation namely; level of trust at which stakeholders will be committed to conserving nature and forest and secondly

investigating into the evolving metaphors of the post-modern impressionists in relation to man's dialogue with nature and particularly in relation to sub-Saharan Africa.

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Active community participation in nature conservation and tourism management: A case study analysis of the state of power relations in Southern Africa

Jones M. Muzirambi & Kevin F. Mearns

University of South Africa, South Africa, jonesmudimu@yahoo.co.uk
University of South Africa, South Africa, mearnkf@unisa.ac.za

Key words: community-based nature conservation; tourism management; sustainable development; land restitution; governance; sustainable ecotourism; capacity development

Introduction

This paper provides a conceptual framework of community- based nature conservation and tourism (CBC-T). The following themes are guiding discussions in this study, i.e.: land rights of local communities in and around protected areas; community-based wildlife management in close relationship with community- based ecotourism; and benefit-sharing and social development issues. A lot of research has been carried out to elucidate the relationship of indigenous or local communities with the conservation agents (both state and private) responsible for the protected areas. In this study, a discussion of diverse epistemological perspectives from literature is undertaken on community-based conservation and tourism as experienced on the ground.

Throughout the world, most of the conflicts have been a result of disagreements on the spatial distribution and allocation of resources, land being one of the most important. Land rights issues of the communities around protected areas are pursued to bring forth what literature has already explored and establish possibilities of any inconsistencies or contradictions and gaps that may have existed. The concept of property rights is also explored to clarify the nature of interactions between local people, conservation and tourism authorities, whether state or private agents.

Of interest, is a wide range of views on the possibility and nature of involvement of local communities in both wildlife and ecotourism management. A lot of research has been done on the CBC-T programs in state owned protected areas (e.g. Kamphorst, *et al.,* 1997; Balint, 2006; Hottola, 2009; Simpson, 2009; Nelson, 2010, Nielsen, 2011), although there is also a growing interest in private game reserves. Attention is given to the historical perspective of protected areas and the ontology that guided their establishment with special focus on southern Africa. Pegas and Castley (2014), deals with the contribution of private nature reserves to conservation, ecotourism and social development. To begin with, a discussion on the historical background of protected areas will be done.

Methods

Epistemologically, this study is qualitative, a critical indigenous qualitative research. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), a merger of indigenous and critical methodologies is known as critical indigenous pedagogy (CIP), of which critical indigenous qualitative research is part. It views all

inquiry as both political and moral, and it uses methods critically for explicit social justice purposes. This research paper is concerned with issues of representation, legitimacy, accountability and benefits (Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Bishop, 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Critical indigenous inquiry begins with the concerns of local and indigenous people and is assessed in terms of the benefits it creates for them.

Although there is a lot of literature on this area, it is not possible to explore each and every one of them for the purpose of this study. However, an extensive literature review was conducted to address the concerns of this research.

Findings

Historical perspective of protected area establishment

Motivations for designating protected areas have differed over the years. The earliest national parks were preserved mainly for their scenic and cultural value, and later tourism, wildlife and lately biodiversity have been the driving forces behind protection (Dudley, *et al.,* 2010). Over centuries, nature protection efforts have focused on separating the pristine from the peopled by setting aside national parks and protected areas. Special attention has been given to conservation at the expense of local communities (Naguran, 2002; Rechlin & Tailor, 2008; Nustad & Sundnes, 2011).

In the USA, the Department of National Parks as well as conservation advocates initiated the complete separation of untouched nature from humans, originating the "Yellowstone Model" of conservation. Settlement in parks was prohibited and the use of the park's resources either for subsistence or commercial purposes was banned (Naguran, 2002; Rechlin & Tailor, 2008). Adams and Mulligan (2006) points out that nature conservation's origins became grounded in the 'colonial mind-set'. The American "Yellowstone Model" became the globally accepted model of conservation in the 20th century and the exclusion of local residents from protected areas and natural parks became common and accepted policy. For much of this century, conservation of nature often resulted in the forced removal, both physically and rhetorically, of local indigenous people who had lived for generations on lands purported to be pristine (Rechlin & Tailor, 2008).

Economic and legal instruments were used in the late nineteenth century and most of the twentieth century, to exclude African farmers from increasingly lucrative markets like wildlife and tourism. Authorities started to make it, first difficult, and then impossible for Africans to use land outside the nature reserves that had been set aside for them. Conflict, mutual distrust and animosity have characterized many relationships between local residents and protected areas in Africa and in other parts of the developing world (Jacobsohn, 1991).

In Zimbabwe, the Land Husbandry Act of 1951 (Kamphorst *et al.,* 1997) was introduced to 'improve' conservation and agricultural productivity in communal areas. During the 1960s, the Rhodesian government expropriated a large section of land in the country's south- eastern corner to create a game reserve- currently known as Gonarezhou National Park (Balint, 2006). Local communities perceived conservation methods as a tool of oppression because they were denied access to land, wildlife and other natural resources, and the movement of their cattle was also

restricted (Kamphorst, *et al.,* 1997).

The relationship between the local populations and both the proponents of conservation and governing authorities deteriorated due to the American "Yellowstone model" adopted by most countries. In South Africa, Kruger National Park was established in 1926 based on the exclusionist principles. The area was fenced off, local communities forcibly removed and benefits went primarily to whites. The Makuleke community was evicted from its ancestral land- the northern part of Kruger National Park, in 1969 (Bosch, 2003). Ndumo Game Reserve in Maputaland District of KZN was proclaimed a game reserve in 1924 with the primary goal being strict protection of its biodiversity. As a result, the Mbangweni community who were the original inhabitants of the land were evicted from the areas and lost all their rights to their ancestral land, just like millions of other black people in different parts of Africa (Naguran, 2002).

According to Liu *et al.* , (2010 in Jusoh, 2012), ignoring local people's interests and excluding them from planning, management and decision-making for the protected areas, are the main sources of conflicts between local communities and designated areas. All indicators are pointing towards protected area governance. Graham *et al.,* (2003) define governance as "the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken and how citizens or other stakeholders have a say" (Jusoh, 2012). Fundamentally, it is about power, relationships and accountability. Apartheid legislation and policies caused an extremely unequal distribution of land and forced removal of the people came to epitomize the brutality of apartheid (Nustad & Sundnes, 2011).

Since the publication of the IUCN World Conservation Strategy in 1980, there has been a paradigm shift from the protectionist conservation epistemology to the sustainable utilization of natural resources. There are significant attempts to include local communities in the management and planning of protected areas (Infield, 1988). Recommendations of the World National Parks Congress held in Bali, Indonesia, in October 1982, challenged the accepted conservation practices of that day, often referred to as the "Yellowstone Model". It was also argued that traditional societies were to be part of the solution, instead of being part of the problem. The congress also recommended that voluntary and participatory conservation action be promoted in partnership with government action (World National Parks Congress, 1982 in Rechlin & Tailor, 2008).

Principles around community participation in management of protected areas

The top-down approaches, characteristic of the "Yellowstone Model" have appeared to be unsympathetic to the needs of local residents (Bramwell & Lane, 2012; Pegas & Castley, 2014). As Kamphorst *et al.,* (1997) observe the control and management from above are liable to generate social conflicts or technical errors. Balint (2006) discusses significant costs associated with living in or around protected areas for the local communities (i.e. loss of access to traditional resources; reduced social, political and economic, and environmental autonomy; and threats from wild animals). Government conservation agents and tourism operators experience unauthorized use of resources; habitat fragmentation and land degradation.

The idea of community-based conservation grew in part, out of attempts to address these

conflicts by generating mutual benefits to reduce or offset costs incurred on both sides (Western & Wright, 1994 in Balint, 2006). Pegas and Castley (2014) states that transition to socially- just approaches can be linked to the concept of sustainability. Policy-makers recognized the need for the involvement of local communities in management, in order to achieve sustainable wildlife management systems. The aim of participatory approaches has been to involve people in the process of wildlife management and nature conservation. Active participation approaches seem to take into account local people's rights to make decisions on the land they have inhabited for thousands of years (Kamphorst *et al.,* 1997).

On the contrary, passive participation consists of people participating by being told what is going to happen, what to do and not do, and by carrying out orders. Empowerment (active participation) involves giving decision-making power to local levels. Instead of accepting their predicament, locals can be pro-active and resistant as they constantly negotiate and contest the direction of development in the pursuit of their rights and interest (Cheong & Miller, 2009).

International conservation bodies, over the years have come up with, and implemented a wide range of community participation projects, including the Community-driven Development Model (CDD), Integrated Conservation and Development Program (ICDP) and Local Resource Management (LRM), among others. The World Bank, International Labor Organization (ILO), World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) as the main method for direct intervention adopted a community-driven development model.

International Institute for Environment and Development (1994) presents the principles of local resource management, which are as follows:

- Recognition of local community right to ownership of wildlife and other natural resources
- Building on formal and informal structures that facilitates community participation in wildlife management, and
- Operation of effective mechanisms for sharing of benefits of wildlife resources with communities (IIED, 1994 in Kamphorst *et al.,* 1997)

According to the intervention approach of Local Resources Management, decision-making power and responsibilities should be entrusted to the local communities and they should have an important share in the benefit of their efforts (Kamphorst, *et al.,* 1997). The appropriateness of tourism development and nature conservation efforts are hotly debated issues among planners, developers and local communities (Cheong & Miller, 2000). Balint (2006) argues that the outcomes of CBC-T will improve only if project leaders pay closer attention to the four development indicators- rights, capacity, governance and revenue, that are often taken for granted or considered beyond the scope of local conservation projects. There is great potential for protected areas to contribute immensely to poverty reduction (Dudley *et al.,* 2010; Zou, *et al.,* 2014).

Towards sustainable wildlife management and ecotourism

UNDP and World Bank both concur with practitioners and academics that human development projects cannot succeed without a focus on rights, capacity and governance (UNDP, 2002;

Kauffman, *et al.,* 2005). The global influence of the sustainable development paradigm has also extended to the tourism industry, which has undergone a major shift towards more responsible sustainable tourism. Ecotourism and sustainable tourism can be generally defined as tourism experiences that care for the integrity of the biophysical environment, providing for economic viability and social responsibility in the long term (Hall, 2011; Singh, 2012).

Local community engagement help residents become a more serious safeguard of the ecosystem and increase their sense of belonging to nature surrounding them, and address poverty (Jusoh, 2012). The more, local communities know about and are involved in protected area management, the less likely the site is perceived as an alien, threatening, unwanted presence.

Sharpley (2003) notes that developing rural tourism should address the following concerns: i) satisfying the needs of local communities; ii) establishing a supply chain of local products and iii) ensuring that development is within the capacity of the local environment and society. Ideally, sustainable tourism consists of the following critical areas: - preservation of rurality with integrity, community sharing of benefits from rural tourism development, outside investors profiting from rural tourism business and tourists enjoying memorable rural experiences with high quality (Zou, *et al.,* 2014).

The main challenge of sustainable tourism is to come up with economically viable initiatives that provide livelihood benefits to local communities while protecting indigenous cultures and environments (Simpson, 2009). Dudley *et al.,* (2010) therefore note that there is need for flexibility and review in order to adapt to and support the challenging needs of poor rural people. Songorwa *et al.,* (2000), among other authors question whether tourism can truly accommodate both the need for ecological preservation and that for infrastructure, facilities and expansion. Critics of community-based conservation approaches argue that many community approaches fail to meet conservation needs and that communities and conservation can never co-exist (Currie, 2001).

Infield (1988) emphasizes that for the success of conservation management both inside and outside protected areas, the views and attitudes of rural communities towards (their role in) conservation and protected areas must be studied and their perceived needs and aspirations taken into account. Nielsen (2011) points out that there is need to clarify the local communities' role in conservation because people's positive attitudes do not automatically translate into actual protected area support.

In striving towards a sustainable tourism plan, it is argued that the needs and aspirations of the local communities as well as those of other stakeholders such as conservation and local governing authorities and private developers need to be considered (Ngubane & Diab, 2005). The litmus test for a bona-fide ecotourism product is not the absence of any resulting negative impacts, but rather the pursuance of sustainability outcomes in line with the best available knowledge. In addition, it is the intention to address quickly and effectively any negative impacts that inadvertently arise from core activities such as nature conservation or facilities operations (Jusoh, 2012). The question of land ownership is the dominant, contentious issue and underpins many of the problems experienced in and around protected areas.

Land Rights Issues of Local Communities in and around protected areas

In most of the rural areas of southern Africa, the attachment to one's birthplace (or place of origin) remains strong and people are often literally dependent on their land. The conflicts between local communities and conservation authorities, referred to in a wide range of research literature (Naguran, 2002; Ngubane & Diab, 2005; Balint, 2006; Lechlin & Taylor, 2008; Hottola, 2009; Nustad & Sundnes, 2011), were in one way or another associated with the land rights issues. Dispossessions, forced displacements, evictions characterized the colonial period in most of the African countries in general and apartheid era in South Africa (Kamphorst, *et al.,* 1997; Bosch, 2003; Ngubane & Diab, 2005).

The drive towards wildlife conservation and tourism development was hampered by the conflicts between local communities and nature conservation authorities (Koch, 1997). In the community's view, the loss of agricultural land and access rights could not be replaced by employment opportunities offered by tourism development, as argued by Ngubane and Diab (2005).

Kamphorst *et al.,* (1997) carried out a comparative analysis of local people participation in nature conservation projects in which LRM was compared with Communal Area Management Program for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) in Zimbabwe. The first principle of the LRM is the recognition of local community rights to ownership of wildlife resources. The community's rights to natural resources should be fully exercised and legally enforceable (IIED, 1994 in Kamphorst, 1997). One of the main objectives of the CAMPFIRE program was to recognize the local communities being the "owners" of the wildlife resources by giving them the appropriate authority status, the right to utilize wildlife. Instead of devolving the authority to the local communities, the rural district councils held onto it. The rural councils either did not have the capacity or were unwilling to set up and run democratic management structures.

The local communities therefore did not gain experience and skills as the rural district councils (RDC) denied them the opportunities. The councils were taking advantage of the revenue generated to serve the local communities, for its own programs. Devolution of power did not reach the intended recipients- the local communities but remained at RDC levels. One of the criticisms of CAMPFIRE has been a failure to produce effective community participation because local committees have been used to implement centrally designed plans and many district councils have been reluctant to devolve genuine authority for wildlife management. Empowerment consists in transferring ownership and access rights to local people, which enables them to have decision-making power (Kamphorst *et al.,* 1997). It is essential to recognize the local structures and to ensure that individuals participate on equal terms. A study, in Mabibi (Maputaland District, KZN), and Govender (2001 in Ngubane & Diab, 2005), notes spatial competition becomes a matter of who has access to the available natural resources and how they are used.

Conflict, therefore ensues between community-based extractions versus conservation, in the arena of tourism development. Ritcher (1989 in Cheong & Miller, 2000) emphasizes that there is often a political agenda- wise or foolish, benign or selfish, compatible or incompatible- underlying the explicit tourism (and nature conservation) programs. Place (1995) explores the perpetual problem of dependency even in the age of new tourism designed to remedy the unequal balance

of power between the rich and poor, and society and environment. Reed (1997) explores the power relations among stakeholders as these are affected by community- based tourism activities in British Columbia and Canada.

It is essential for this discourse, to explore literature and get a deeper insight into the concept of property rights in order to put the project into perspective.

Property Rights

Libecap (1989) emphasizes that property rights matter, because they provide the economic incentive system that shapes resource allocation. The author argues that property rights are formed and enforced by political entities and reflect the conflicting economic interests and bargaining strength of those affected. Property rights of individuals over resources consist of rights or powers to consume, obtain income from and alienate those resources. Libecap (1989) describes property rights as the social institutions that define or delimit the range of privileges granted to individuals (or groups) of specific resources, e.g. a piece of land. Property rights may also be defined as a structure of rights, and corresponding responsibilities and these imply a set of legal entitlements enforced by a system of authority, specifying what one can and cannot do and what one is entitled to (Bromley, 1991 in Naguran, 2002). There are four types of property rights usually identified by literature:-

- State property: where state has the right to determine use/ access rules and individuals have a duty to observe the rules.
- Private property: where individuals have the right to undertake socially acceptable uses and have a duty to refrain from socially unacceptable behaviors. Others (non-users) have a duty to refrain from preventing socially acceptable uses and have a right to expect socially acceptable ones will occur.
- Common property: where the management groups (the owners) have the right to exclude non-members, and non-members have a responsibility to abide by the exclusion. Individual members of the management group have both rights and duties with respect to using the common resource.
- Non-property: where there are no defined "owners" and so the benefit stream is available to anyone. The asset is regarded as an "open access resource".
- (Bromley, 1986 in Naguran, 2002)

Eggertsson (1990) classifies property rights into three categories: - 1. The right to use a resource, including the right to physically transform a resource; 2. The right to earn income from a resource and contract over the terms with other individuals and 3. The right to transfer permanently to another party ownership over a resource, that is, to alienate or sell a resource.

Common property is not "everybody's property". Under common property, the use rights of individuals can be delimited and regulated to prevent over-exploitation of the resources. Ostrom and Schlager (1996) distinguish between rights at an 'operational' level and rights at the 'collective choice' level. Operational level involves merely exercising a right but collective- choice level involves participation in the definition of future rights. Operational level rights include "access" and "withdrawal" rights and collective- choice rights relate to management, exclusion and alienation rights. According to Ostrom and Schlager (1996):-

- Access: The right to enter an area and enjoy only non-consumptive benefits (e.g. photography, hiking, bird watching).
- Withdrawal: The right to harvest resource units (i.e. fish, firewood, medicinal plants, game meat, thatching grass). Those having both access and withdrawal rights are known as "authorized users".
- Management: Those holding these rights have the authority to determine how, when and where consumptive use of resources may take place and whether and how the structure of a resource may be transformed.
- Exclusion: The right to determine who will have access rights and how that right may be transferred.
- Alienation: The right to sell or lease, either or both of the above, collective-choice rights.

In well-defined property rights, the resource users must have both operational level rights as well as collective-choice rights for management of their common property resources. In the case of the CAMPFIRE program, the local communities theoretically had exclusion rights. However, in practice, they merely had operational level rights (access and withdrawal) while all the collective-choice rights were withheld by the RDCs. Without properly defined rights, the local community-conservation agencies (state or private) partnership does not achieve the expected sustainable tourism goals.

The question of land ownership is the dominant, contentious issue and underpins many of the problems experienced in rural South Africa and the region as a whole, especially around protected areas. Land policy was one of the most hotly contested issue and the last to be settled in the negotiations between the African National Congress (ANC) and the National Party government prior to the first democratic elections in 1994 (Nustad & Sundnes, 2011).

The first priority of the new democratic South African government was to develop and implement a new land policy that was aimed at addressing, among others, the injustices of racially based land dispossession of the past. Ultimately, a land reform program with three components was adopted: 1.) Restitution of land rights to those dispossessed after 1913; 2.) Redistribution of land rectifying the racially skewed distribution of land that resulted from colonial and apartheid policies; and 3.) Tenure reform for those whose tenure was insecure because of the past discriminatory laws and practices (Naguran, 2002).

The Restitution of Land Rights Act, No. 22 of 1994 was proclaimed (Bosch, 2003; Ngubane & Diab, 2005; Hottola, 2009; Nustad & Sundnes, 2011). The Act provides for the restitution of rights in land with regard to individuals or communities who were dispossessed of their land or forcibly removed from their ancestral lands from 1913. It has since been amended through Act No. 15 of 2014 (South African Government, 2014). According to the Department of Land Affairs (Naguran, 2002), the legislation requires that all land that has been redistributed or restored to beneficiaries to be registered in one or other form of ownership. Where the land belongs to a group, they may choose through a democratic process the form of land holding that best suits the group's needs.

Community Property Association Act, 28 of 1996 allows for the establishment of a new legal entity through which members of disadvantaged and poor communities may collectively acquire,

hold and manage property in term of the written constitution (Naguran, 2002). The strong feeling about land ownership is evidenced by several land claims that have been lodged with the Commission on Restitution of Land Right Act (No. 22 of 1994) based on the past practices of the apartheid government. The main question to be addressed is whether the local communities have been capacitated to understand the implications of the agreements they are entering into and if there is a supporting and monitoring mechanism put in place to protect the interests of most of these poor, local populations.

Case study - Mbangweni-Ndumo

Naguran (2002) investigates restitution of land rights to the Mbangweni community who lodged a claim to more than 1000 Ha of land within the boundaries of Ndumo Game Reserve. After protracted negotiations, an agreement was reached and the Mbangweni community's rights to their land were restored. The government was caught in between, on one hand, it was accountable to the improvement of the livelihoods of the impoverished people and on the other hand, it had a responsibility to protect the wetlands of international significance.

An agreement was finally reached with the community that was based on both considerations for both the social and developmental needs of the Mbangweni community as well as protecting the integrity of Ndumo Game Reserve as a conservation area. The Mbangweni community was granted title to their land claim of the eastern 1262 Ha section of Ndumo Game Reserve without actual physical occupation either now or any time in the future (Naguran, 2002). Restitution of lost rights in land is made in the form of ownership in the claimant community by way of registration of a title deed in the office of the Registrar of Deeds. Conditions in the agreement stated that the community shall not acquire the right to dispose of its title to the land by selling or donating it. The community would be allowed "reasonable" access to the protected area for the purpose of harvesting natural resources and also reap the benefits of ecotourism (Naguran, 2002).

Naguran (2002) notes that in effect the Ndumo settlement only granted operational level rights of access and withdrawal but restricts their collective choice rights of management, exclusion and alienation. All management responsibilities were given to the government through the KZN Wildlife. So, without collective-choice rights the community in effect have become "authorized users" rather than proprietors or owners of their land. (Refer to Table 1 below). The community has actually forfeited its collective- choice rights for some benefit stream from future ecotourism development projects, the details of which are unclear in the agreement (Naguran, 2002). The community is likely to become impatient with the slow rate of delivery and start reverting to their original demands for occupation before long.

Table 1: Bundle of rights associated with positions

Position Rights	Owner	Proprietor	Claimant	Authorized Users	Authorized Entrants
Access	X	X	X	X	X
Withdrawal	X	X	X	X	
Management	X	X	X		
Exclusion	X	X			
Alienation	X				

Source: Ostrom and Schlager, 1996: 133 in Naguran, 2002

Case study - Makulele-Kruger

Bosch (2003) investigates land claims of the Makuleke community in northern part of Kruger National Park. In 1969 the Makuleke community was removed forcibly from their ancestral land in the Pafuri area (between the Limpopo, Mutale and Livuvhu rivers) and surrounding state-owned land to the north of Kruger National Park. The community land claim was lodged in terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act (No. 22 of 1994) in December 1999. The claimed Pafuri area is an environmental hotspot from a biodiversity perspective. After two years of intensive and complex negotiations, a settlement agreement was reached. The community agreed that they would not occupy their land but aim to benefit from restitution of their land through ecotourism development.

When all stakeholders, especially the poor local communities understand their rights and responsibilities, land mediation is more efficient and the chances for a settlement are greater. In most cases, there is an imbalance in the levels of understanding and negotiation skills between the local communities and the state or other stakeholders. It is also most likely that the advantaged will take whatever opportunities available to achieve their goals in the absence of strong monitoring mechanisms. Bosch (2003) therefore argues that more often than not, there is need for community training sessions addressing a number of issues, which include the Restitution Act provisions, mediation process, rights education, negotiation skills and all issues pertinent to the negotiations.

Communities to whom land has been restored through land mediation, need effective mechanisms of allocating rights, and preventing and managing disputes. Bosch (2003) also notes the need to negotiate a land reform community contract that defines the relationship between government, private operators and the local communities regarding land reform, specifies their respective rights and responsibilities, and identifies other stakeholders with their responsibilities. It is also important for the governments to put in place intervention and monitoring strategies for the protection of the rights of the poor rural communities, in situations in which they are negotiating with other parties, for example, private operators.

Case study - St Lucia

Nustad and Sundnes (2011) investigate land claims in St Lucia in northern KZN, South Africa. The restoration of formerly dispossessed land plays an important role in establishing people's sense of justice. In 1998, a group of forest dwellers contracted the Association for Rural Advancement (AFRA), a land rights non-governmental organization based in Pietermaritzburg to help them file a claim for the land (Nustad, 2011 in Nustad & Sundnes, 2011) which was filed with the Regional Land Claims Commissioner late that year. The commission in 2002 initially turned down the land claim but the claimant with the help of AFRA appealed to the Claims Court and won the case in 2003. The land claim was fully gazetted in 2007 (Nustad & Sundnes, 2011).

Many observers (e.g. Brown, 2002; Goldman, 2003) point out that a community-based project cannot succeed if the community does not have authority for project management, if community decision-making processes are not participatory, and that individual rights are ignored. Some

authors argue that the community should substantially control and participate in tourism development and retain most of the benefits within the community (WWF, 2001). Factions and hierarchies that undermine the rights of marginalized subgroups operate even in small, ethnically homogenous communities (Balint & Mashinya, 2006).

Community-based conservation, tourism; benefit- sharing and social development

According to Taylor (2008), unwillingness to address key social issues can result in the failure of community-based projects. Dealing with the issue of benefits and costs almost guarantees the successful implementation of a project. Studies by Gillingham and Lee (1999) in Tanzania, and Infield and Namara (2001) in Uganda have shown that access to conservation benefits can in practice produce positive attitudes to protected areas (Nelson, 2010). Stronza and Gordillo (2008) in their study of three Amazon ecotourism projects found that ecotourism brought incentives for conservation, positive economic change and heightened self-esteem and greater community organization. The model by Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), proposes that the perceptions of economic benefits, social benefits, social costs, socio-economic costs, cultural benefits and the state of the local economy are the antecedents of local residents support for both tourism and nature conservation. The model also suggests that those perceptions are influenced by the concerns residents have for their community, their emotional attachment to their community, the degree to which they are environmentally sensitive and the extent to which they use the same resource base that tourists use. Gursoy *et al.*'s (2009) findings suggest positive relationships between tourism development and perceptions of positive impacts and negative relationship between negative impacts perceptions and support for development.

Taylor (2008) also identified community capacity as a critical area of concern. Community- based conservation can lead to an enhanced capacity of communities to control their own destinies. On the other hand, without shortage of goodwill or intentions, a lack of capacity can lead to conservation failure (Taylor, 2008). The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2006) defines capacity as the ability of people, organizations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully. In terms of management, capacity can be viewed as a product of willingness, competence, skills, capability and adequate resources (UNDP, 2002; Enemark & Ahene, 2003; IUCN, 2010). In a diversity of definitions of capacity, the common, unifying goal is a transformation that is generated and sustained over time from within, which goes beyond performing tasks. Instead, it is more a matter of changing mind-sets and attitudes (Rechlin & Tailor, 2008).

Critics of community-based conservation approaches argue that many community approaches fail to meet conservation objectives. To that effect, Wells (1996) questions whether communities have the capacity and knowledge to manage wildlife and whether, given the often-impoverished nature of many rural communities, they are willing to participate actively in the conservation process. Balint (2006) in a comparative analysis of two projects in El Salvador and CAMPFIRE of Zimbabwe emphasizes that commuinty- based conservation will only be more effective if it incorporates a broader view of developmental variables, i.e. rights, capacity, governance and revenue. Local circumstances, management issues, developmental stages, local skills, financial resources, location and cultures all combine to demonstrate that ecotourism is not a "one-size-fit-all" approach to sustainable development (Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012).

In view of these observations, capacity development becomes an imperative for the success of community-based conservation and tourism. Nielsen (2011) explains capacity development as a continuous and undated process seeking to accumulate knowledge and social capital over time by means of learning by doing. Research reveals that individual capacities are strengthened or constrained by organizational and social environments in which people function. Agreeing with Nielsen (2011), greater attention should be given to intangible assets such as motivation, perseverance, confidence, optimism and openness to change. Protected area managers, employees, local community leaders and other stakeholders must be enabled to be more self-reliant and self-responsible in order to foster a lasting learning process.

Community participation should go beyond the simple involvement in the project implementation and ensure interactive involvement in an on-going process of project design, planning, implementation and evaluation of wildlife management (IIED, 1994 in Kamphorst, 1997). Active participation consists in community engagement in all the phases of the program, from design and planning stages to implementation and evaluation.

The outcomes of the CAMPFIRE program have clearly shown that most communities still have negative, hostile attitudes towards the program. Many conflicts stem from the fact that local communities are alienated from decision-making on and management of ecotourism projects (Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012). Furthermore, participation tends to be superficial and promised benefits, unrealistic and, an awareness of the broader socio-ecological context is often lacking. Hostile attitude is therefore rooted in the fact that community participation is mainly restricted to the project implementation. Decision about resource management often comes from outside the producer community (Kamphorst *et al.,* 1997).The ownership of a resource's attributes is expected to gravitate into the hands of those people who are most inclined to affect the income flows that the attributes can generate.

One of the most successful Integrated Conservation and Development Program (ICDP) is the Purros Project in Namibia's Kaokoveld region, which is widely accepted as a model to be emulated throughout Africa (Cock & Koch, 1991). This project attempted to redress the negative effects of tourism and conservation by providing meaningful and tangible benefits to the Purros people. Improvement from CAMPFIRE experiences includes active participation of community members in conservation process. Community members are directly involved in the planning and implementation of the project. They decide how to allocate revenue from tourism levy (Jacobsohn, 1991).

The provision of opportunities to participate in management, planning process or discussion on issues affecting conservation, tourism and community itself, reduces the conflict potential and can lead to a "shift" in attitudes of stakeholders (Neilsen, 2011). For example, in Bhutan, local communities are seen as an integral part of ecosystem management that support understaffed protected areas in monitoring activities. In Malaysia, protected areas of Sarawak cooperate with local communities to prevent illegal activities (Neilsen, 2011).

Case study - Ololosokwan Serengeti

Another success story is the community-based tourism in the Serengeti of Tanzania as illustrated by Nelson (2010). The Loliondo area, which borders the North Eastern side of Serengeti National Park, is inhabited by Maasai agro-pastoralists, some of whom formerly lived in what is now the national park. Ololosokwan, located in the North Western corner of Loliondo forged a substantial investment agreement with Conservation Corporation Africa (CCA). By 2003, the village was the top-earning community in the country in terms of tourism revenue- about US$55000 annually, in addition to various employment and side benefits (Nelson, 2010).

The village council's ability to improve service provision improved tremendously, i.e. investments in educational facilities, bursaries for secondary and university students, health facilities, individual medical expenses, nursery school and renovation of village offices, among others. Ololosokwan is the most successful example of community-based tourism in Tanzania in terms of generating revenue through a private operator joint venture. Most significantly, this example highlights the importance of strong local governance and accountability. The village was able to contest, legally and politically, its claims over the land sold to CCA through dubious and improper means. This strong capacity for advocating its land and resource rights has been essential to the development and maintenance of the village's tourism revenues during the past decade (Nelson, 2010).

The Ololosokwan community has demonstrated a relatively open and transparent decision-making process in relation to tourism planning and the use of revenues. Of note, is the strong role of the village assembly (community members meetings) in demanding accountability from the village council (community management body) and effectively performing its oversight, monitoring functions to ensure decisions are made in the interest of the broader society. Failure for local collective, decision-making undermines the objectives of community-based tourism and serve to degrade both the tourism product and long-term community resource interests.

Discussion

Community participation in decision-making entails democratization of the decision-making process, and can lead to improvement of the quality of life for rural residents (Gao, 2007 in Zou *et al.,* 2014). The community-driven development approach gives the community the decision-making power and the right to use and control resources. Community participation is largely dependent on the management system, but it is not the only aspect required to make ecotourism successful (Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012). Many studies identifies lack of local participation as a common challenge of ecotourism projects in most of the protected areas in developing countries (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008; Bruyere *et al.,* 2009; Xu, *et al.,* 2009).

Yang and Wang (2006) argue that community-based sustainable development is a social construct as well as a negotiation process. Influential factors affecting community participation include, among others, the following: villagers' perceptions of local tourism development, place attachment, tourism development impacts perceptions, villagers' ability to participate, attitudes towards participation, villagers' involvement in decision-making, tourism development preferences and tourism involvement behaviors (Gursoy et al., 2009; Zou, *et al.,* 2014). Balint

(2006) points out that the projects deteriorated due to the collapse of local governance. The power that the committee has at local level is subject to the acknowledgement of other institutions like the traditional, political leadership (Balint, 2006).

On another note, some authors such as Spierenberg, *et al.* (2009), argue that while helping people in need is a noble idea, one important question when considering all developmental projects, is how to avoid the assistance becoming an instrument of dependency. In practice, people may become seduced by their own subordination, preferring to stay dependent as long as reasonable living standard can be maintained, the obstacle of change both intrinsic and extrinsic, appearing too large to be surmounted. Hence, there is need to ensure that capacity development initiatives are part of any community-based conservation and tourism project to empower the members from the grassroots so that they can actively participate in both management and benefit-sharing.

Where governance is weak at local level, community participation might be limited, and traditional leaders or state officials or private firms or all aforementioned, might expropriate community resources and benefits (Balint, 2006). It is critical that governance structures at all levels, especially local levels, are transparent, trustworthy, fair and allow for participation, thus creating an environment that enables the productive use of existing capacities (Neilsen, 2011).
The transparency and collectively accountable management of conservation and tourism (e.g. Loliondo in Tanzania; Purros Projects of Namibia, El Naranjito Project of El Salvador) are exceptions rather than a rule. Critics of CBC-T have highlighted high failure rate of the community participation initiatives. Some authors argue that this is because much of the conservation thinking in Africa has been and is still shaped by the psyche of the "Yellowstone Model" of the Western World.

The new land policy in the democratic South Africa was meant to address the injustices of racially based land dispossession of the past. However, literature has indicated that most of the restitution of land rights agreements did not practically empower or capacitate the local rural communities around the protected areas. Empowerment approaches should enable all individuals to participate on equal terms (Nelson, 2010).

In South Africa, there is substantial evidence from literature that many of the land rights restitution agreements did not create conditions for active participation of the local communities in the wildlife conservation and tourism management. In fact, local communities, in terms of property rights concept (according to Ostrom & Schlager, 1996) only received operational level rights, i.e. access and withdrawal rights. In practice, the management of game reserves still follows the "Yellowstone Model" which tries to isolate the natural resources from local inhabitants. On the other hand, the social development projects come as a favor or a charity case towards the poor local people, some of whom, ironically own that piece of productive land. The issue of capacity development has not been fully addressed, so as to enable the local residents, through their management structures, to have a say in the decision-making processes affecting conservation and tourism, for example, the case of the Dukuduku land claim settlement, as explained by Nustad and Sundnes (2011).

The Mbangweni community living around Ndumo Game Reserve virtually possesses operational level rights but completely lack collective rights. Dahlberg and Burlando (2009) argue that although the Mbila community and Mnqobokazi, later in 2007, won their land claims within the protected areas (state and private, respectively), the communities do not actively participate in the management of these sites. The same situation prevails in land restoration agreement of the Makuleke community of Kruger National Park (Spierenberg, *et al.,* 2009; Bosch, 2003). To this effect, Songorwa *et al.,* (2000) wonder whether tourism operators (and government officials) will exert too much influence, on not only ecological decisions but also, on ability of rural communities, to be genuinely represented.

Benefits to the community arising from natural resources and tourism should be long term and perceived to be better than the alternative ways of utilizing land resource (IIED, 1994; Taylor, 2008). People benefiting from wildlife utilization would be more willing to cooperate in conservation and tourism. Research has also established direct correlations between community attitudes towards conservation and tourism, and the perceived community benefits in terms of both tangible and less tangible assets (Simpson, 2009; Tailor, 2008). Positive livelihood impacts include the creation of employment and economic opportunities and benefits for individuals, households and the collective community (Simpson, 2009; Zou, *et al.,* 2014). Many studies have also focused on non-financial factors which are key to the success of community-based conservation projects, for example, the installation of solar panels in the El Naranjito Project of El Salvador (Balint, 2006); educational level influence on community perception of the protected areas (Tailor, 2008), and nutritional status (Gjertsen, 2005).

In practice, however, benefits do not seem to compensate enough due to a variety of reasons, which include unequal and irregular distribution of incomes derived from wildlife conservation and tourism. Nelson (2010) notes that in many instances tourism revenues are captured by elites (both political and economic) within village governments (local community management structures) and a few economic benefits reach the community members except for those benefiting directly through employment at tourist centers. In northern Tanzania, just like in other countries, e.g. Okavango Delta of Botswana, private elite capture of public resources is increasingly the dominant theme in the countries' social and political discourses (Mbaiwa, 2005; Massyn, 2010; Nelson, 2010).

Conclusion

Tourism has long been a major economic booster to parks but often, local communities have not seen those benefits. Many studies have established that, given the context of the community-based conservation initiatives, a "win-win" situation is almost impossible and utopian (Dahlberg & Burlando, 2009). Literature illustrates that many of the land rights restitution agreements did not create conditions for active participation of the local communities in the wildlife conservation, tourism management and social development. There is also lack of intervention and monitoring strategies for the protection of the rights of the poor rural communities.

Local communities possess only operational level rights, i.e. access and withdrawal rights despite the fact that on paper they are the owners of the land. It has been argued that communities will do better if they instead, take a more advocatory approach to their own interests (Fay, 2007).

Recent literature has also shown that trade-offs within and between conservation and development interests are the norm and more realistic (Dahlberg & Burlando, 2009). However, lack of transparency and concrete support, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for implementation of agreements are noted. Negotiating trade-offs is further complicated if there exists a high dependence on natural resources and if this dependence is unequally represented within the community.

Being a case study, this paper does not exhaust all literature on community empowerment in nature conservation and tourism development. However, it provides more insights into perceptions on local community participation and power relations in this field.

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Protected areas and community wildlife-based tourism influential dynamics on the spiraling of community capitals

MorenTibabo Stone and Gyan P. Nyaupane

University of Botswana, Okavango Research Institute, Botswana,
moren.stone@mopipi.ub.bw
Arizona State University, Gyan.nyaupane@asu.edu

Abstract

Tourism planning in protected areas (PAs) entails addressing two partly competing and overlapping goals: preserving heritage and providing access. Resolving potential conflicts between these two goals is particularly challenging at the intersection of natural heritage and tourism development. Not only are competing goals involved, but professionals such as PAs managers, community development planners, tourism operators, marketing specialists, and paradigms of management often conflict. Even though PAs are increasingly a popular strategy for managing biodiversity conservation, their contribution to livelihoods improvement and sustainable development remains contested. Some case studies show that levels of resources extraction are not sustainable. Promoting alternative livelihoods options within and around PAs through tourism is an obvious management opportunity to reduce pressure on PAs, but such attempts have mixed results. As an intervention management tool, the introduction of community wildlife-based tourism within and around PAs is currently one of the future growth areas, particularly as leisure time, mobility, environmental awareness, and the desire to visit pristine and relatively unspoiled landscape hosted by PAs increase. For community wildlife-based tourism to be an effective conservation tool, increased understanding of its socio-ecological implications is required. When tourism is used to strengthen conservation, it becomes an essential component of the processes needed to implement conventions on biodiversity and other agreements concerning cultural heritage and sustainable development. Tourism can therefore assist with the urgent need to build networks of PAs.

Developing countries, especially those in Africa, lead the way in aspects of sustainable tourism. Networks, corridors, buffer zones and trans-boundary parks are being established with tourism being a crucial contributor unlike under traditional developed nation systems where park administration is almost wholly government funded (Chape et al., 2005). At the forefront of the conservation and development nexus is the expectation that parks provide benefits to communities in terms of health, poverty alleviation, cultural and spiritual sustenance, education outcomes, as well as ecosystem services such as clean water and air (Bushell& Eagles, 2007). As difficulties in the development and sustainable use of the earth's natural resources increases, research should play a key role in informing those who are bestowed with setting the agenda for the vitality and future growth of PAs. The problem is that net livelihood impacts of PAs are not easy to assess, as there is a lack of standardized assessment methodologies (Coad et al., 2008). Because of the different approaches employed in the governance of PAs, effects on community

livelihoods and biodiversity within and between PAs may differ. Further research is required to establish the outcome of these differing relationships. However, in broad terms, general patterns can be observed; the livelihood impacts PAs have vary with PAs' statuses, management styles and stakeholder compositions in governance. PAs with top-down management styles can lead to major livelihood costs and resentment between adjacent communities and PAs management. Pro-active community participatory management of PAs permitting the sustainable use of resources can provide tangible community and biodiversity benefits leading to win-win outcomes. Nevertheless, communities can still sustain significant costs if PAs management and institutional capacity is lacking and issues of governance and land tenure are not resolved.

In view of the lack of standardized assessment methodologies, this paper uses the community capital framework theoretical underpinnings to explore whether the introduction of community wildlife-based tourism in a wildlife management area adjacent to a PA has led to the spiraling of community capitals. The paper adopts a case study approach where the Chobe Enclave Conservation Trust (CECT) living adjacent to Chobe National Park (IUCN category II) in Botswana provides the context of the study. The study uses qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews complemented with secondary data sources. Results indicate that all community capitals are critical resources that play a dynamic role in shaping the spiraling of community livelihoods and biodiversity conservation. The adoption of community wildlife-based tourism in protected areas led to both the spiraling up and down of community capitals underscored as positive and negative feedback loops of the system in which wildlife-based tourism is executed. The spiraling of community capitals is explained by the transformation of one stock of community capital to another in a system thinking dynamics fashion. The spiraling-up of community capitals is explained by increased livelihoods and diversification options facilitated by increased tourism income. The spiraling-down is explained by the heightened human-wildlife conflicts in the form of fragile wildlife-livestock co-existence, which led to livestock diseases, loss of lucrative beef market, and the fragmentation of the ecosystems through the introduction of veterinary fences.

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Why Africans do not visit their national parks: A case of Botswana

Lesego S. Stone and Gyan P. Nyaupane

University of Botswana, Okavango Research Institute, Botswana, *lsebele@ori.ub.bw*
Arizona State University, School of Community Resources and Development, USA, *gyan.nyaupane@asu.edu*

Abstract

Introduction

Present-day Western approaches relating to nature and natural resources management assume that humans are independent from the natural world (Pierotti & Wildcat, 2000). Protected areas such as Yellowstone National Park were created with this narrative in mind. This view of conservation and nature is deeply entrenched and wilderness is still celebrated by many as a place to rejuvenate and discover the purpose for life (DiSilvestro, 1993). This construction sees nature as a resource for human use and a challenge for the rational mind to conquer (Adams, 2003). Despite this worldwide acceptance of Western views on nature, Mackenzie (1988) acknowledges the wilderness-humankind separation provided a means through which British colonizers took over their African colonies' land and created enclaves that could serve their interests.

In contrast to westerners' beliefs, Southerners believe in the harmony between nature and society (Colchester, 2000). For most, there is knowledge on how to interrelate with nature (Redford and Stearman, 1993). Evidence indicates that even with hunter-gatherers and wildlife being a part of local diet and commodity trading, wildlife populations remained high (Murombedzi, 2003). This has been attributed to the use of local myths, policies, customs and religions that reinforced and regulated resource use (Hviding, 2003). These traditional strategies promote and support the conservation of nature while ensuring access to it (Murombedzi, 2003).

The creation of protected areas has had negative impacts on native communities; in Uganda, the Ik were removed from their traditional hunting grounds to allow for the establishment of Kidepo National Park while in Botswana, Basarwa were relocated to make way for Moremi National Park (Colchester, 2000). Hence, local resentments may occur. For instance, although for most White Americans protected places represent, beauty and national pride, the same lands symbolize deception, lost land, and continued oppression for many Native Americans who were displaced from their ancestral lands (McAvoy, 2002).

Aim

The purpose of this study was therefore to explore why local residents do not visit their protected areas in Africa. The study examines non-Western tourists' perceptions of nature-based tourism using Botswana as a case study. The differences in perceptions between local residents

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and international tourists are explored using the North-South conceptualization of nature and the setting up of national parks as a conceptual framework. The assumption made for this study was that the promotion of Botswana as a nature-based tourism destination to both international and domestic tourists might fail to take into account western-southern dichotomies on nature/wilderness, historical contexts pertaining to the creation of national parks and social systems in place in most developing countries. Due to these different conceptions of wilderness/nature, national parks and game reserves may also mean and symbolize different things to both groups. During the colonial period, the separation of animal habitats from human settlements led to the promotion of elite White hunting enclaves in remote regions; Africans were excluded from participating. It may therefore be argued that the continued promotion of western conservation and tourism ideals may further alienate locals and may help explain their low visitation. This adoption of western ideals has been debated in the literature on leisure, leading to arguments that engagements in leisure have been generalized and assigned to all populations of color despite cultural differences in interests,' values, and practices, hence the view that Whiteness exists in leisure (Mowatt, 2009).

Methods

Qualitative data collection methods were employed. In-depth interviews were conducted with local residents at six sites (Chobe National Park, Moremi Game Reserve, Gaborone, Francistown, Maun and Palapye) and with international tourists at the country's two popular protected areas (Chobe National Park and Moremi Game Reserve) to determine their perceptions on nature, particularly national parks and game reserves, the main tourist attractions in the country.

Findings

Results indicate that for international tourists, nature symbolizes recreation, rejuvenation, and an opportunity 'to get away from it all', whereas for locals it is seen as a part of everyday life. Furthermore, while international tourists views fit those common in existing tourism literature, locals' views indicate their conceptualization of nature as well as historical, cultural and political circumstances influence their views on tourism, visitations to protected areas, and beliefs about themselves as/being tourists.

Conclusion

The study presents a clear need for more education for locals on the importance of domestic tourism and its importance in the long-term sustainability of the tourism sector. It also highlights a clear need to involve locals in all aspects of the tourism industry not only as beneficiaries, but also as tourists.

Contribution to research

This paper provides a starting point for understanding and giving the African tourist a voice in tourism research. The study addresses the "Northern bias" on writings on tourism and government policies.

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Social Representations of Tourist Selfies: New Challenges for Sustainable Tourism

John Pearce& Gianna Moscardo

James Cook University, Australia, john.pearce@my.jcu.edu.au
James Cook University, Australia, gianna.moscardo@jcu.edu.au

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Abstract

A number of recent incidents have focused media attention on the phenomenon of tourist selfies, described their negative consequences for tourist destinations and identified a number of challenges for tourist site managers. This paper reports on an analysis of the social representation of tourist selfies in news media, and a review of emerging evidence about selfies from academic research. The aim was to develop a better understanding of this phenomenon to suggest ways that tourist site managers can balance the needs of the tourists taking the selfies with the demands of protecting the setting and others in it from negative tourism impacts. The paper seeks to contribute to more sustainable tourism through better site and attraction management.

Introduction

The theme of balance is a common one in discussions of sustainability both in general and more specifically within tourism. Many definitions of sustainability and sustainable tourism include the idea of finding a balance between economic, environmental and social dimensions. Tourism planners and managers are encouraged to find a balance between the expectations of tourists, the needs of destination communities, and pressures to protect environments. The reality of finding and maintaining an appropriate balance between conflicting and competing pressures and expectations however, is very challenging. Ferreira and Harmse's (2014) review of tourism in Kruger National Park exemplifies these challenges with multiple management pressures. These include political expectations; that the park will provide benefits and economic opportunities for neighboring communities and that growth in tourism numbers will support both these local aspirations and provide funding for conservation; that tourists will have high quality experiences; and that all this will happen without significant negative environmental impacts. They conclude that the implementation of effective tourist behavior management strategies in these situations will depend on having a sound understanding of tourists. The present paper seeks to support tourist destination managers in finding an appropriate balance by improving our understanding of tourist behavior, especially that related to the taking of selfies. Kruger National Park also provides a good example of the issues related to this type of tourist photography with tourists getting into dangerous situations, and disturbing wildlife and other tourists in the pursuit of these photos (News24, 2014).

"*French tourists in nude Cambodia photo scandal to be deported*" (AFP, 2015). "*Tourists risk death to take the best holiday photo or 'selfie'*" (Weston, 2015). These headlines are typical of

recent media coverage of a number of incidents resulting from tourists taking selfies. The word selfie entered the Oxford dictionary in 2013 and has been defined as "*a photograph that one has taken of oneself, typically one taken with a Smartphone or webcam and shared via social media*". Self-portraiture in photography is not a new practice and the addition of the technology and social media elements in this definition is important as it these that make the selfie worthy of new attention. A preliminary reading of media coverage of tourist selfies indicates that the practice has been associated with a range of negative outcomes for tourists and destination places, including damage to environments, wildlife harassment, causing cultural offence, and tourists placing themselves in danger. It appears that this practice may present significant challenges for the sustainable management of tourist sites. This media coverage also suggests that the practice is widespread and has grown exponentially. Despite the extent and growth of tourist selfies and potential negative impacts of the practice on tourists, residents and destination settings, tourist selfies have been given very little attention by tourism academics. This paper aims to explore this contemporary tourist behavior in order to guide further research and suggest directions for sustainable tourist site management.

The research reported in this paper is based on a qualitative analysis of the social representation of tourist selfies evident in a selection of contemporary media reports. The key elements of these everyday social representations are examined in light of evidence from the available academic discussions of selfies with the aim of suggesting management strategies for this type of tourist behavior. The paper begins with a critical review of the academic discussions of tourist photography and selfies in general before reporting on the analysis of the media reports. It then proposes a number of options to assist site managers to find a balance between meeting the needs of the tourists taking the selfies and limiting or avoiding the possible negative consequences for destination places.

Overview of Academic Discussions of Tourist Photography and Selfies

This review will focus on photography by tourists rather than photography for tourists. The present paper is concerned with the photos that tourists take for their own personal use rather than the images produced by commercial entities seeking to present and sell a destination through guidebooks, advertisements, brochures and websites. Sontag (1977) linked the rise of popular photography to modern mass tourism describing both as key features of modernity and cameras as the identity badge of the tourist and introduced two key themes into the academic discussion of tourist photography –tourist photography as a form of place consumption and tourist photography as a negative process. In the first theme, she argued that tourists took photos as a way to structure their experiences and engage with the destination in ways beyond passive observation, to manage feelings of disorientation associated with unfamiliar places, to control the situation and exercise power over the objects and people being photographed, and to meet social obligations. In the second theme, she presented tourist photographers in a negative fashion suggesting that their behavior was often offensive and ignorant and interfered with the lives of both locals and other tourists. "*A photograph is not just the result of an encounter between an event and a photographer; picture-taking is an event in itself and one with ever more peremptory rights- to interfere with, to invade, or to ignore whatever is going on*" (Sontag, 1977, p. 11).

The idea of tourist photography as consuming places has dominated much of the subsequent academic discussion (Robinson, 2014). Urry (1990) also proposed that photography helped tourists to organize their experiences, gave them a sense of productivity and authenticated their presence in the tourist setting. Urry's work focused on what has been referred to as the circle of representation (Jenkins, 2003) or the hermeneutic circle (Urry and Larsen, 2011) in which tourists visit sites made famous in the images in tourist brochures, take and share photos replicating these images and reinforcing presented place myths. Most academic discussion has then focused on aspects of this consumption such as commodification and authenticity (Chalfen, 1987) and most research has concentrated on the content and symbolism of tourist photographs (Donaire, Camprubi & Gali, 2014). Of particular importance to the present discussion are more recent examinations that challenge the dominance of this hermeneutic circle. Donaire et al's (2014) study suggested that while tourists do often take photographs of destination icons, they also take many more photographs of other things with different types of tourist taking different types of photographs. Gillet, Schmitz and Mitas (2013) found that the process of tourist photography was a very social one with tourists often taking many more photos of each other than of things. Stylianou-Lambert (2012) concluded that, while the representations of tourist sites in brochures do influence the photos that tourists take, other factors such as the structural features of the setting which limit where photos can be taken, visual and social conventions that guide photography in general, and etiquette with respect to other tourist photographers are also important.

Stylianou-Lambert's (2012) discussion of etiquette in relation to others at a tourist sites suggests that while tourists can become quite absorbed in their own photography they are still conscious of not infringing on other tourists taking photos and that the decision process of what and how to photograph is a complex one. Scarles (2013) provides a detailed analysis of this issue examining the ethical decision-making that tourists engage in when deciding if, when and how to take photographs of locals. Scarles' (2013) concludes that tourists do recognize the ethical dimensions of these decisions and engage in much more complex decision making than is usually recognized by academic portrayals. They often lack relevant information on what is the appropriate way to behave, and that, even when tourists are aware that photographing locals may be problematic, their desire to experience the place often overrules other concerns.

The justifications given by tourists for their inappropriate photographs of locals in Scarles' (2013) study are similar to those that can found in many online discussion forums about nature and wildlife photography (cf. photography-on-the-net, 2014). These discussions also highlight the wide range of negative environmental impacts that can be associated with taking nature and wildlife photographs, including moving beyond management barriers into fragile areas causing erosion and damage to the flora, removal of vegetation, and disturbing wildlife. Although all these issues associated with tourist photography have been noted in general discussions of tourism management in natural areas (Lilieholm & Romney, 2000; Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005) and there is recognition of the centrality of photography to wildlife and nature based tourism there has been very little academic attention paid to this issue (Lemelin, 2006).

Arguably, this lack of academic attention to the management of tourist photography reflects the dominant focus in the tourism literature on the content rather than the process of this phenomenon. There has been however, a shift in emphasis in discussions of tourist photography

and Haldrup and Larsen (2003) are often cited as the earliest example of this change with their research focused on the processes of family photography. This research suggested a wider range of motivations for tourist photography including a need to understand the world, a desire to build personal narratives, and as a way to build and maintain important family relationships. These themes continue with extensions into considerations of the potential effects of digital photography on tourist practices (Larsen, 2014).

Larsen (2014) notes an important distinction between two waves of digital photography. In digital photography 1.0, the focus was on the use of digital cameras, which allowed for many more photographs to be taken and for immediate checking, deletion and re-taking of photographs. These changes mean less time spent on each individual image and more experimentation and play with the aesthetics and compositions of photographs (Urry & Larsen, 2011). According to Larsen (2014) digital photography 2.0 is about mobile and smart phone technologies associated with the uploading of images to various internet locations including social media, or what Picken (2014) calls the digital context. Descriptive statistics provided by Lo and colleagues (Lo, McKercher, Lo, Cheung & Law, 2011) suggest that many tourists are very active in this digital context.

Although to date selfies have had virtually no attention from tourism academics there are an emerging set of studies from other disciplines that can provide some insights into selfies. Johnson, Maiullo, Trembley, Werner and Woolsey (2014), for instance, found selfies could be used to learn important information and suggested that selfies can support story-telling and self-representation, and act as a tool for organizing information in a personally meaningful way consistent with Urry's (1990) claims about tourist photography in general. Selfies are also just one element of a larger and more complex phenomenon including social network sites (SNSs) and various forms of online interaction (McKnight, Tiidenberg, Barnum-Finke & Tekkobe, 2014). Although this online world is very complex it is not distinctly different to the offline social world (McKinght et al., 2014) with emerging evidence that there is as wide a range of behavior online as offline (Eftekhar, Fullwood & Morris, 2014). Researchers also highlight the importance of the online audience in shaping selfie behavior, noting that the most common motivations for taking and posting selfies is to engage in communication with significant others (Kwon & Kwon, 2015; Lee, 2009). They also highlight to build and maintain social relationships (Van House, 2011; Peek, 2014) and to share in communal or group bonding and identity building (Opel, 2014; Schwartz & Halegoua, 2014). There is also evidence that these online communities have and use complex sets of rules, norms and boundaries to guide and respond to selfies and act as a form of surveillance for selfie behavior (Thornton, 2014; Tiidenburg, 2015).Selfies are also seen as important to the development of individual identity and self-awareness. Schleser (2014) refers to this as a 'mobile autobiography' and argues that selfies help to both organize memory (Hogan, 2010) and explore our identity (Lee, 2009; Marwick &Boyd, 2010; Peek, 2014; Van House, 2011). According to Fausing (2014), Kwon and Kwon (2015), and Warfield (2014) the posting of selfies can offer an opportunity for self-reflection and to incorporate the responses of others in a quest to find our authentic selves, which is, in turn, necessary for positive social interactions and the development of concern for others.

Picken (2014) argues that these new technologies and new social communication practices are changing key elements of tourism and that existing theory on tourist photography is still driven

by analogue thinking that is unlikely to be helpful in this new environment. The discussions of selfies in other academic disciplines highlight several key features unique to this digital context. Firstly, in the discussions of selfies and learning the importance of the tags and text that accompany the posting of selfies and other photographs to SNSs is emphasized. This combination of images, both of self and of others, along with the text provides a narrative for an individual's life and is similar to the process of writing and keeping diaries and autobiographies (Cabillas, 2014). Secondly, there is recognition that the technologies that support selfies combine multiple dimensions of photography, for example, Swaminathan (2014) notes that a Smartphone is a means of production, with social media its means of distribution, and consumption occurring through a network of other smart devices. In this context selfies transcend simple photography and have the unique capability of being singlecast, narrowcast and broadcast at the same time, with individuals being simultaneously models, photographers and consumers. The third key feature is the political and empowerment dimensions of selfies. Fausing (2014), Pham (2015), Rich and Miah (2014), and Shipley (2015) describe a number of examples of selfies used to support political activism, provoke discussions around social issues and raise awareness of important challenges and worthy causes. Ehlin (2014) concludes that selfies are a sensory, communicative and political experience. The fourth feature is the importance of the online audience. There is clear evidence that people posting selfies are aware of their audience and adjust behavior in order to gain positive reaction and avoid censure (Ardvidson & Axelson, 2014; Hogan, 2010; Marwick &Boyd, 2010). The final key difference between selfies and previous tourist photography is that the selfie process is very different in that it is immediate in terms of multiple dimensions. That is, selfies are physically close to the tourist, literally at the end of an arm, the image is immediately available for on-site checking and for presentation to the online audience, and they more closely connect the tourist to the setting.

The present paper seeks to examine in more detail the nature of tourist selfies with the aim of suggesting options for managers seeking to find the right balance between the value of selfies for tourists and the potentially harmful effects that can results from this practice.

Social Representations of Tourist Selfies in the Consensual Universe

Social representations theory explains the development of understandings that allow communication and the development of shared identities and a common reality within social groups (Moscovici, 2001; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003). Halfacree defines social representations as "*mental constructs which guide us [and] define reality. The world is organized, understood and mediated through these basic cognitive units. Social representations consist of both concrete images and abstract concepts, organized around figurative nuclei which are a complex of images*" (1993, p. 29). Social representations emerge when individuals share their experiences and interact and these shared everyday explanations then take on a life of their own being repeated in media and popular culture (Philogene & Deaux, 2001).

While a wide variety of methods have been used to identify, describe and analyze social representations, qualitative approaches are more common (Flick & Foster, 2008). Therefore in order to explore social representations of tourist selfies this study examined news media reports and opinion pieces about tourist selfies using purposive sampling and thematic and discourse analysis. The first stage of the sampling involved a Google search using the phrase 'tourist selfie'

and then examination of all news articles from the first five pages of results generating 17 relevant articles which were subjected to a preliminary round of thematic coding. Examination of the codes indicated that saturation point had been reached with a very clear consensus within discussions of tourists' selfies. Consistent with sampling practice for qualitative research (Mirriam, 2009) the researchers chose to stop sampling at this point and focus on the analysis of these articles. The 17 articles came from Australian, British and American standard news outlets such as Fox News, the Guardian and the Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC), as well as magazines such as the Humanist and specialist news websites such as World News All Round. In most cases, the articles had also been published in print media and presented on television and in radio news segments.

These articles were then examined by two coders in an iterative process seeking firstly major themes and then discussions focused on explanations of actions linked to tourist selfies following the guidelines of Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2008) and Grbich (2013). The first category of key themes related to the negative consequences of tourist selfies. Four major categories of negative consequences were identified – tourists putting themselves at risk to take selfies, negative environmental impacts resulting from tourist selfie behavior, cultural and social transgressions, and interference with others. Examples of common risky behaviors were posing in dangerous situations such as the edges of waterfalls and cliffs, and with wildlife such as bears. In some cases, tourists ignored warning signs and climbed over barriers such as fences and gates breaking management rules and causing damage such as erosion. Selfies with wildlife were also linked to actions such as animal feeding that in turn contributes to more frequent negative human-wildlife encounters in general, sometimes resulting in destruction of animals; entry into wildlife habitat causing distress and disruption to the animals; and increased incentives for the capture of animals for hire as photo props in tourist resort areas. As noted previously these types of action and impact have been linked to tourist photography prior to the adoption of mobile technologies and the selfie (Knight, 2009). The addition of posting photographs through social media to a global audience may provide an additional force encouraging risk taking behavior to match already posted images. This was evident in an article on crowds at Mission Peak Regional Preserve where selfies taken at the peak summit have become very popular on social media prompting tourists to replicate the posted images (Jones, 2014). This has resulted in a very sudden and rapid growth from fewer than 500 to more than 3000 visitors a day contributing to negative impacts on the physical environment, the tourists themselves and residents in the local area.

The second major theme was that of transgressions ranging from those that break laws and cause considerable cultural offence, such as taking nude photographs in temples in Cambodia, to those where the action is considered inappropriate but not illegal, such as the taking of smiling selfies at Auschwitz. Again it can be argued that tourists taking inappropriate photographs is neither new nor restricted to mobile technologies (Scarles, 2013), and again it seems that the nature of the audience for selfies and the process of taking a selfie may be encouraging more widespread and frequent transgressions. In the case of nude photographs in Cambodia temples, for example, multiple different incidents were reported suggesting a social media trend for this behavior. In the case of smiling selfies at Auschwitz, it could be argued that smiling is such a commonly repeated element of selfies that it may be an automatic rather than an intentional behavior (Reis, Wilson, Monestere, Bernstein, et al., 1990). The final set of negative

consequences linked to tourist selfies was related to interference. The most common of these was interference with other tourists especially when selfies were being taken using selfie sticks. There were also examples of tourists interfering with the actions of local residents by posing for selfies.

The second stage in the analysis focused on the explanations given for tourist selfies and evaluations made about this activity. Table 1 lists the headlines for the articles and an examination of these provides some insights into the key elements of the social representations revealed in this stage of analysis. There was considerable consensus that the taking of tourist selfies was a uniformly negative action and reflected the narcissism of the tourists taking them. These headlines reveal a strong negative view of the behavior, with only one commentator offering a positive alternative explanation and one suggesting that it might reflect current social conditions as well the personality of the individual tourists. Blackburn's (2014) discussion of selfies, suggests that some consumers do require a constant stream of feedback from followers to feel appreciated and valued. The actual evidence is, however, mixed with some reports finding a link, albeit not always a strong one, between narcissism and the number of selfies posted to SNSs (Chan & Tsang, 2014; Fox & Rooney, 2015) and others finding no link between selfie behavior and narcissism or depression (Banjanin, Banjanin, Dimitrijevic & Pantic, 2015). It is important to remember that there is evidence that selfies serve a number of social rather than individual functions.

Table 1: Headlines for Tourist Selfie Articles

Article Headline	Reference
Sisters 'arrested and kicked out of Cambodia after taking NAKED photos at sacred Buddhist temple'	Adams, 2015
French tourist in nude Cambodia photo scandal to be deported	AFP, 2015
Death tourism, Auschwitz selfies, and online souvenirs	Blackwood, 2014
Tourists taking selfies with dingoes blamed for attacks on Fraser Island.	Donaghey & Vonow, 2014
Places around the world that have banned selfies.	Fox News, 2015
What's wrong with these selfies? Everything.	Ghert-Zand, 2013
Selfie sticks: Tourist convenience or purely narcissi-stick?	Harpaz, 2015
Crowds overrun Mission Peak in Fremont to shoot selfies.	Jones, 2014
Sacrilegious selfies: Is taking photos at "sacred" places inappropriate?	Myers, 2014
Campaign to stop 'animal selfies' shows that animal lovers are causing cruelty.	Right Tourism, nd
Countries around the world have started to ban selfies.	Ryan, 2015
The scourge of the selfie stick.	Tatz, 2015
Forest service bear selfies: Officials warn tourists to stop taking #Selfies with Bears, South Lake Tahoe could close down due to 'bear selfies'.	Travelers Today, 2014
Tourists take selfies with 'dead' body during LOVE Park Ferguson protest.	Vadala, 2014
Tourists risk death to take the best holiday photo or 'selfie' at Purlingbrook Falls in Gold Coast Hinterland.	Weston, 2015
Photo stop: The ten most popular tourist spots for Selfies.	World News All Around, 2015
Chinese tourists snap selfies with dying dolphin.	Zimmerman, 2013

In some cases the articles depicted the behavior as not only narcissistic but also intentional and uncaring - "*tourists simply ignored the exhibit*" (a protest against the death of Michael Brown in Ferguson) – *or worse, mocked it*". In others there is some recognition that the tourists may be unaware of the negative consequences of their behavior, but they are still treated as stupid - "*there is something curiously awry when people travel the world, visit exotic locations, and still find their own face more fascinating*". Many writers also focused their critiques on young people,

suggesting that the behavior was exclusive to those aged less than 30 despite the accompanying images clearly including people of all ages. Although this tourist selfie social representation focuses on young people, selfies are actually taken by many different people as the technology has moved beyond early adopters to widespread use of SNSs and mobile technologies (Fausing, 2014; Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy & Silvestre, 2011). Finally, many of the articles included the names of those taking these supposed negative selfies, engaging in a shaming rather than solving approach. For example, in discussing an incident where a teenager posted a smiling selfie in front of Auschwitz, most articles referred to the girl by name and did not hesitate to criticize at some length a teenager in a global news outlet. Recently concerns have been raised about the nature of such public shaming in the digital world (cf, Petley, 2013).As many authors attributed the negative consequences of tourist selfies to the narcissistic and/or foolish behavior of the tourists, it is not surprising that few offered solutions. Some did report the actions being taken by site managers. These included total bans on selfies, the development of selfie free areas, fines, and in some cases total closure of the site. Mostly though, these were only given limited coverage and generally presented as unlikely to be effective.

A number of authors in critical discourse have followed Derrida's lead in examining not only what is included (present) in texts and discussions but also considering what is left out or absent (Howells, 1998). In the current study a number of absences are worthy of note. For example, most articles acknowledged that a critical element of the tourist selfie phenomenon was the posting of the images to various social media platforms but only one acknowledged that the social media audience might play a role in this behavior. The absence of the audience allowed the social representation to clearly attribute the behavior to the personality weaknesses of the individual tourist and avoid any serious consideration of positive aspects to the practice. Another unquestioned assumption in these discussions was that the single person tourist selfie was the dominant and/or only photograph taken. The available evidence, however, suggests that while numerically many selfies are taken and posted online, selfies of individuals make up less than a quarter of all posted images and even when combined with group selfies still only account for less than half of all posted images (Hu, Manikonda & Kambhampati, 2014; Selfiecity, nd). Additionally the possibility that a selfie was one image amongst many others was never acknowledged nor was any consideration given to the text or tags that typically accompany the posting of images online. The final notable absence was any recognition that many of the negative actions reported have been associated with tourist photography prior to the adoption of mobile technology or social media.

Table 2: Summarizing and Contrasting Different Views on Tourist Selfies

Social Representation Claims	Evidence
Selfies are a new phenomenon associated with new negative impacts	Self-portraits at tourist sites are not new and neither are the potential negative impacts of tourists seeking a particular photographic image
Selfies are the dominant/only type of photograph taken and are considered in isolation from their tags	Selfies (individual & group) are one of many different types of photographs taken and posted and mostly are posted with accompanying text
Selfies are motivated by narcissism and vanity	Selfies are motivated by a desire to connect to the place and to significant others
There is no value in a selfie beyond self-presentation	Selfies can be used in many ways including in learning, awareness raising and political action
Selfies are an individual pursuit	Selfies are one element of complex social interactions and social processes

Selfies are just taken by young people	Selfies are taken and posted by a wide variety of people
Tourists taking selfies don't care about anyone or anything else	Tourists taking selfies are aware of others but may not be aware of the actual and potential negative consequences of their behavior and may find it difficult to access information on appropriate behaviors
Tourists taking selfies are not interested in the place	Tourists take selfies as part of developing stories about the place and how they experience it
The intended audience for selfies is not important	The intended audience for selfies is critical

Table 2 summarizes the key elements of the popular media social representation of tourist selfies and contrasts these with the available evidence from research and academic analysis into tourist photography beyond selfies and selfies beyond tourism. As can be seen there are considerable differences between these two different views. This social representation of tourist selfies could be described as a moral panic and public discussions of selfies and online activities in general have been classified in this way in the sociology literature and linked to government policies and public education strategies designed to mitigate the negative impacts (Gabriel, 2014). In a similar fashion, in the present case it appears that tourist site managers faced with no systematic critical research into the beliefs, motivations and decisions related to this tourist behavior have begun to develop strategies based on the prevailing social representation. If, as Warfield (2014) notes, responses based on these types of public and media discourse are often ineffective, then it is important to develop a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Finding Balance for Sustainable Tourist Site Management

It is clear that tourist selfies are likely to become more rather than less common over time and that the current patterns of behavior linked to them can and do have negative consequences for the tourists themselves, the people around them, and for the physical and cultural dimensions of the site or attraction. Arguably the existing tourism academic literature on photography in general has shown little concern with implications for managing on-site behavior with both Chalfen (1987) and Scarles (2013) noting a lack of guidance for tourists about appropriate photographic behaviors. Tourist behavior management strategies based on the social representation focus on banning the behavior and shaming the individual tourists and are an example of what Picken (2014) calls analogue thinking, which misinterprets the motivations for, and benefits of, the behavior and focuses attention on blaming the individual for their bad behavior. Such a process deflects attention from analysis of the social context and organizational structures that contribute to the practice (Arvidson & Axelson, 2014) and thus avoids challenging prevailing assumptions (Gabriel, 2014). Shifting to management based on the available evidence emerging from research suggests quite different approaches. It is suggested that management strategies be driven by three core principles:

- that selfies are about making connections between tourists and places, tourists and audiences and the audience and the place;
- that selfies are fundamentally social rather than selfish; and
- that selfies are part of larger complex social systems not just simple swift acts of isolated individuals.

It is possible using these principles, to suggest three main types of management strategy. Although it could be claimed that the first two types of strategy are already used in some

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settings, it is argued here that their use is limited both in terms of the number of locations that employ them and, when they are used, how extensive this use is. The first and simplest strategy is to provide information and guidance to tourists on how to take safe and appropriate photographs (including selfies) in the various tourist settings. Information on where and how photographs can be taken and what subjects and objects are appropriate and inappropriate for images should be provided in different format and locations for both tourists and intermediaries such as guides and other staff in tourism businesses. At this simplest level, this type of information sets the boundaries for the behavior and should be focused on avoiding the physical, cultural and legal consequences of inappropriate and unsafe photographic behaviors.

The second type of strategy involves a more proactive approach to information and guidance with more attention paid to providing better quality and more extensive place interpretation. The use of heritage interpretation to tell the stories of the destination places and people can assist in managing tourist photography in two ways. Firstly, it can support a better understanding and appreciation for the destination and this can encourage tourists to engage in more appropriate photographic practices. Secondly, and more directly linked to the management of tourist selfies, interpretation can provide place specific stories for tourist to retell through the photographs and text they post online, that can be used to substitute for the ones that they have to develop themselves. This interpretation strategy can be supplemented with a third type of action which involves the provision of physical support for tourist photographs such as the selection and development of specific locations for taking photographs/selfies and the provision of props and backdrops which can engage tourists in the place stories.

The previous strategies are already in place to some extent in many tourist locations and represent an extension of existing practices, which focus on the individual tourists and their on-site behaviors. The research evidence summarized in Table 2 suggests a set of more novel strategies linked to the audiences for selfies and other online interactions with a focus on influencing behavior before and after tourists visit the site. The first of these strategies involves developing and maintaining an online presence for the tourist site management organization and using this to present and model appropriate photographic behavior and explain to online communities and audiences what is desirable tourist photographic behavior at the site. This action seeks to limit or avoid audience pressures on tourists to take selfies that may be dangerous or damaging. It is possible to extend this into a second audience-based strategy by seeing selfies as tool that can be used to raise awareness about negative impacts and challenging issues associated with site. Finally, it is suggested that managers seek to work with online intermediaries to establish guidelines about the posting of inappropriate tourist selfies and other images.

Conclusions

The evidence emerging from tourist selfie research challenges the simplistic view that selfies are a result of narcissism and offers instead insights into a communicative and transformative practice reflecting various social connections and self-expression needs of individuals. Critical examination of the social representation of tourist selfies in the consensual universe was contrasted with the available research that provided a range of directions for the management of this aspect of tourist behavior and through that supports more sustainable tourism at the destination level. Academic research into tourist selfies is, however, incomplete and further areas

need to be investigated. In particular, more research into the audience for tourist selfies may improve our understanding of this phenomenon. It can also be suggested that more detailed research focused on tourist selfies is needed to understand exactly how they fit into the larger picture of tourist's online communication.

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Rural renewal or requiem? Establishing new creative ventures through tourism development in the Namibian rural context

Erling Kavita

Polytechnic of Namibia, Namibia, ekavita@polytechnic.edu.na

Key words: rural tourism, community-based tourism, rural development, Namibia

Abstract

During the past decades, concern for rural poverty and underdevelopment of the rural communities of Namibia has been central to government development efforts. This has further given rise to several rural development programs. While, some of the programs have yielded fruitful results, many others have not achieved the objectives for which they were set up. Community-Based Tourism Initiatives (CBTs) are often considered as a component of broad-based plans to improve rural economies. This process occurs through increased community participation in decision-making and the sustainable utilization of both natural and cultural resources. This paper reviews the existing policy and planning frameworks in relation to tourism and rural development in Namibia. Policies aimed towards rural community development are reviewed with a focus on community-based tourism initiatives. The policy emphasizes structures and processes to help local communities to benefit from the tourism industry, and the active and coordinated involvement of communities, which is expected to ensure that the benefits of tourism trickle down to the local level where tourist activities take place. It is noted that in addition to public policy-makers, tourism developers and the private business environment in Namibia need to recognize the full potential of rural tourism development in order to meet the politically driven promises in policy level. In this respect, there is a need to coordinate a comprehensive vision of what type of rural tourism development or tourism in rural environments holds the most potential to benefit both local communities and the mainstream industry. A new narrative is needed, that will enhance the capacity of local perspectives to address key lacunae in recent discussions, including questions of ownership, scale and dynamics.

Introduction

During the past decades, the tourism industry has become an increasingly important issue for governments and regions searching for socio-economic development and employment creation. In the Global South, growing tourism demand is seen as highly beneficial as tourism can create direct and indirect income and employment effects for host regions. These programs have emphasized community involvement and community-based tourism initiatives in many countries (Sinclair &Stabler 1997; Binns&Nel 1999; Saarinen & Rogerson 2014), including Namibia (Novelli et al. 2007; Jänis 2009; Lapeyre 2011). Tourism services and facilities can also improve the general level of infrastructure of a region that benefits local population by providing new, or maintaining the old, services and infrastructure (Brown & Hall 2008). Tourism businesses generate tax revenues, including revenues from employees. In addition, tourism promotion creates positive destination images attracting not only tourists but also businesses, capital

investments and new skillful employees (e.g. so called creative), (Hall 2008; Florida 2002).

In relation to the Global South context, Sinclair and Stabler (1997) have suggested that increasing tourist demand has a significant impact on developing countries' economies. Therefore, in many governmental strategies, tourism has emerged as a driver for development that goes beyond economic issues and the industry is also expected to promote economic diversification and strengthen national economies (UNCTAD 2010). However, Sinclair (1998) has further indicated that the economic aspects of tourism should be placed in an equation consisting of both the advantages and disadvantages of tourism development. Therefore, the economic costs, such as inflation, leakages, land use changes, security needs, crime and increase of domestic prices should be considered. In addition, tourism creates cultural, social and environmental changes and impacts, and issues such as opportunity costs are rarely discussed in relation to tourism development and planning strategies.

All these aspects may have serious direct or indirect socio-economic implications and can create costs for the host regions. In order to manage the costs and benefits of tourism development, many countries and regions have created strategies that aim to highlight the social responsibility of the industry and its' benefit sharing capacity at local and regional levels. This has sparked various participatory planning and community-based tourism and natural resource management strategies, programs and projects that emphasize the sustainability of the businesses and local participation needs (Aref 2011). By involving local communities the benefits of tourism are expected to trickle-down to a local level where the tourist activities and impacts actually take place (Saarinen 2011). This review paper aims to discuss and review the policy issues relating to the development of tourism in the Namibian context, it also focuses on policy aims towards rural community development and community-based tourism (CBT) initiatives.

In the context of tourism and development local participation, tourism awareness, devolution of power and benefit sharing have all been highlighted with an emphasis on community-based tourism initiatives, which are highly relevant in the Namibian and wider southern African development policy contexts (Rogerson 2006; Jänis 2009; Saarinen 2011). This paper reviews Namibian community-based related policy documents analyzing the key aims of these official documents guiding community participation in tourism development.

Tourism development and key policies

After the Independence in 1990, the Government of Namibia embarked upon a new program of economic development, which indicated that tourism could contribute significantly to the overall development of the country in future (Weaver & Elliot, 1996). Based on this the Cabinet declared tourism a priority sector in 1991 (Jenkins 2000). The main tourism products of the country are based on wildlife and wilderness experiences and arid landscapes. In addition, the ethnic groups and rural populations are visibly utilized in the tourism promotion but their actual role is sometimes marginalized (see Novelli et al. 2007; Saarinen & Niskala 2009; Lapeyre 2011; Kavitaet al. 2011).

Since the independence, Namibia has managed to distinguish itself as a country with an enabling environment for development in general and for a community-based tourism-enabling

environment in particular. Key enablers include peace and political stability, good governance, transport, developed information and communication technologies (ICTs) infrastructure, sound economic policies and community-based natural resource management (Jänis 2009). Namibia also has good prospects for accelerating growth. However, despite an enabling environment and good growth prospects, the country has consistently had difficulties meeting its development goals and its performance targets. Poverty is endemic with close to 35 per cent of the population living on less than one US$ per day, while nearly 56 per cent live on less than two US$ per day (Näher 2006). Income inequalities are among the highest in the world (a Gini coefficient of 0.70) (WEF 2001) and Namibia's low-middle income status alongside per capita income of US$2,156 indicates severe inequalities (Marope 2005). The national average unemployment rate is about 52 per cent. Unemployment is highest among the unskilled and youth (Novelli & Gebhardt 2007).

To better respond to these challenges, the government has aimed to reform the national development strategy. The reform agenda is encapsulated in a long-term vision for national development – *Vision 2030*. A key aspiration of *Vision 2030* is to rapidly transform Namibia into a high-income and more equitable knowledge economy (Scholz 2009). Broad goals of the reform are to accelerate economic growth and social development, eradicate poverty and social inequality, reduce unemployment, especially youth unemployment, and curb the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Although tourist activities are concentrated in certain hot spots, tourism in rural communal areas, and particularly community involvement in tourism, was actively promoted from the start of the new economic development thinking in the 1990s, both by the Government and by NGOs (Ashley 2000). Currently the role of communities and Community-Based Tourism (CBT) is highlighted in the national development policies with an aim to use the tourism industry as a medium for achieving economic and social goals at various levels (see MET 2007).

As a result, the Namibian government regards tourism as a sector that could make a vital contribution to poverty alleviation. The National Poverty Strategy states that over the next decade, no other segment of the economy has as much potential to create jobs and generate income for Namibia's rural communities as the tourism industry (National Planning Commission 2008). Like many other developing countries, Cole (2006:630) has viewed Namibia's tourism from four perspectives:

- economists generally see tourism as a route to macro-economic growth, and particularly a means of generating foreign exchange;
- for the private sector, tourism is a commercial activity, so the main concerns are product development, competitiveness and commercial returns;
- many conservationists now see tourism as a form of sustainable use of wild resources and as a way to enhance incentives for conservation; and
- for rural people, and the development non-governmental organizations that support them, tourism is one component of rural development.

The interests of the Namibian government embrace all four perspectives above, with central ministries focusing on macro-economic objectives, the conservation and environment directorates on conservation incentives and the tourism directorate on the development of the

industry in conjunction with the private sector. Ashley (2000:8) notes that there has been a growing interest in tourism's contribution to local rural development, which is now seen as a key element in each of the above perspectives. Several Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) working in conservation and development include tourism development in their work with communities (Dixey 2008; see also Owen-Smith 2010; Jones *et al.* 2009).

Furthermore, the importance of tourism is clearly acknowledged by the Namibian Government in the National Development Plan (NDP) and in the National Poverty Reduction Action Program (NPRAP) 2001–2005 (National Planning Commission, 2005). Action 26 of the latter assigns The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) the role of assisting rural and disadvantaged communities to setup CBT projects, such as business and joint ventures, to facilitate training and enable capacity building. Furthermore, on the basis of the general premises of CBT, the Namibian MET (2005) has initiated the CBT policy, which aims to explore ways that local communities can benefit from the tourism industry (NACSO 2007: Saarinen *et al,* 2009). The policy has strong links to the Namibian community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) program and communal conservancy system (Long 2004) which have served the development of community-based tourism in the country. Conservancies are based on communal lands that are in general managed by communities aiming to use the natural resources of these areas in conservation and development purposes. Thus, conservancies take responsibility for the natural resources, especially wildlife, in a sustainable way that often involves the development of tourist activities (NACSO 2007).

Community-based tourism and rural development

Historical background

Although rural communities inhabiting in communal lands had some usufruct[1] rights, prior to the independence the South African government retained ultimate control over who used the land (Long 2004). In particular, the colonial State kept full decision-making power over commercial and hunting rights in communal lands and captured most of revenue from photographic tourism and hunting activities. By contrast, in 1975, commercial farmers on private lands gained additional ownership rights over certain natural resources (game species) and thus could exclusively use available resources and fully benefit from both consumptive (hunting) and non-consumptive (photographic) tourism (see also Owen-Smith 2010).

At the independence, the new Namibian Government inherited a highly skewed land distribution (Massyn 2007). During the same period, freehold (private ownership) lands comprised 44 percent of lands, protected areas 15 per cent and communal areas, where most of the people lived, comprised 41 percent of lands (Fuller *et al.* 2006). Consequently, the majority of rural inhabitants stayed in a limited and overcrowded portion of arid land, natural resources were depleted, thereby threatening environmental sustainability. Currently the pattern of poverty in Namibia mirrors the unequal distribution of land. Furthermore, uneven allocation of land and resources commonly led to underdevelopment and poverty among rural communities (Ashley & Maxwell 2001). In this context, redistributing land through land reform and devolving rights over

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[1] A legal right to use and derive profit from property belonging to someone else provided that the property itself is not injured in any way.

resources became the highest Government priority to redress past inequalities and to try to reconcile conservation and development.

Hence, the 1995 Policy on Wildlife Management, Utilization, and Tourism in Communal Areas clearly intended to 'amend the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 so that the same principles that govern right to wildlife utilization on commercial land are extended to communal land' (Lapeyre 2010:758). The policy stated that (1) the right to utilize and benefit from wildlife on communal land should be devolved to a rural community that forms a conservancy[2]. (2) Each conservancy should have the right to utilize wildlife within the boundaries of the conservancy to the benefit of the community, once quotas have been set. (3) The conservancy should be able to enter into a business arrangement with private companies, and (4) the conservancy would also have the right to establish tourism facilities (Jones 2004). In order to harness the potential of these policy aims for rural community development another, more tourism-focused framework was seen to be needed: the Community-Based Tourism Policy.

Community-Based Tourism Policy

In the report commissioned by Overseas Development Institute (ODI), Ashley and Haysom (2008), observed that the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET)'s vision of Community-based Tourism (CBT) is in many ways different from what is found in the literature. MET is interested in a large scale, ambitious and implementable approach to rural tourism development. For this reason, CBT in Namibia has been conceptualized in its widest sense to mean, *'tourism that occurs at a local level and seeks to benefit local communities in its impact'*(Ashley 2000:16).

There is a broad acceptance of tourism as a strategy for rural development in Namibia. The adoption of CBT by the Government and powerful NGOs has highlighted the profile of tourism in regional development in rural areas and communities. In this respect, major international donors have assisted in building community tourism, organization and program development (Lapeyre 2011). Within this highly supportive context, CBT projects have flourished in Namibia. In particular, three distinct forms of CBT were promoted and supported through donor-funded programs. Namely: Community-Based Tourism Enterprises (CBTEs) owned and managed by a community as a group; indigenous enterprises, owned and managed by individuals coming from a rural community, and; community-private sector joint ventures where a rural community is commercially partnering with a private operator to own and run a tourism facility.

These programs and approaches are based on a legislative change in 1994 that made it possible for communities in rural communal areas to acquire limited common property rights to manage and use their wildlife resources (Barnes &Novelli 2008). After then communities were enabled to register conservancies through which they could take on rights, and manage and use wildlife resources, with the assistance of NGOs and government. With a long-term support from donors and government to develop the Namibia's CBT program, communities in rural parts of the country have established more than80 conservancies on large portions of communal lands.

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[2] A conservancy is a territorial unit where resource management and utilisation activities are undertaken by an organised group of people. To register as a conservancy the following criteria should be in place: *a defined membership; elected committee members; an agreed boundaries; a constitution including resource management strategy and a plan for equitable distribution of benefits.*

Namibia's conservancy program is regarded as one of the most innovative and effective community conservation and development initiatives in the world (Lapeyre, 2011). This program, which had its beginning in the early 1980s, has evolved through a number of phases, growing from an embryonic community game guard project in northwest Namibia into a full blown, national rights- based communal conservancy movement, covering more than 20 percent of Namibia's surface.

On the basis of the creation of legal ground for conservancies and the positive prospects of CBT, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET, 2005) initiated the CBT policy, which aims to explore ways that local communities can benefit from the tourism industry (NACSO 2007; Saarinen, 2010). The policy has strong links to the Namibian community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) program and communal conservancy system (CCS) (Long 2004). The key issues in the Namibian CBT policy are related to the previously raised questions of participation and empowerment: 'how to integrate local communities in tourism planning and how to ensure a sufficient level of power and control in the decision-making process concerning the use of natural and cultural resources in tourism' (Lapeyre, 2011:307). Clearly, the legal framework aims at involving rural communities in tourism at three levels. First, communities must be involved in the design and planning of tourism on their lands. Second, communities must take part in the operation and management of tourism activities, either through community facilities or through commercial partnerships with the private sector. Finally, communities must capture benefits (revenues) from the operation of tourism activities on their land (see Ashley 2000).

Yet, most African governments have adopted and partially implemented policies to stabilize and liberalize their economies. These policies, promoted by international financial institutions and largely adopted in the context of economic crisis, have included measures to cut government spending, privatize parastatal organizations, and reduce state intervention in markets. However, this liberalization also has implication for CBNRM. For example, African governments are now less willing to fund conservation efforts of any sort. Thus, revenue constraints argue against devoting substantial resources to CBNRM, or to other community engagement efforts, which can be seen as destruction from conservation. The Namibian government for example, has stated formally to introduce market incentives for the management of state protected areas. This includes leasing out of some operations, such as tourism concessions and lodge management, as well as increased efforts to make these self-financing. However, while tourism generates substantial revenue and foreign exchange much of the wealth has gone into private hands, benefiting the state only indirectly. Thus, the coincidence of liberalizing and CBNRM, is not without conflict. As each CBT area competes for a share of the growing but still limited tourism market, it may be difficult for CBT projects to win the competition for tourists and private sector investors.

Discussion: Towards sustainable rural development through tourism

CBNRM emerged from a conservation history deeply intertwined with injustice, exclusion, and dislocation, and it is far from clear that a largely materialist strategy such as tourism can respond adequately to this legacy. Although the principle benefits of CBT are widely recognized (Hall, 2008; Lapeyre, 2010; Saarinen, 2011) the actual socio-economic benefits to the community can be difficult to achieve. Blackstock (2005), for example, calls CBT as naïve and unrealistic due to its focus in practice on industry development compared to community empowerment. In addition,

she states that CBT often ignores the internal dynamics of communities and the external barriers, such as inequality between developers and local community members that affects the degree of local control. The Namibia CBT case suggests that relying on conservation-based tourism for development is a risky business. While tourism has substantial promise, many CBT initiatives are not well positioned to compete against state-supported protected areas and/or private ventures. Therefore, despite presenting an alternate response to traditional forms of tourism development, several elements may explain the lack of significant economic impact from CBT in Namibia.

First, rural communities and supporting NGOs have limited capacity in tourism project management. Many local communities have low managerial capacity to deal with management issues (flexible decision making, accounting, pricing, punctuality, stock taking, forward booking, etc.) and business issues (advertising and distribution networks) (Simpson 2007). In Namibia, Murphy (2004) also provides further evidence that community management of CBTEs is time consuming and is often in contradiction with the industry's standard time scale. In addition, development agencies and NGOs often lack industry knowledge and are 'notoriously ill-equipped to deal with product quality requirements and the promotion of tourism initiatives' (Simpson, 2007:187). Also in Namibia, the NACSCO and other implementing field NGOs are staffed with community-focused workers with little or no knowledge of the international and Namibian Tourism sector. Thus, they may have limited capacity and lack an appropriate orientation and the financial business skills needed in tourism (Hirsch 1978; Rapley 2002). In this context, while necessary and highly laudable, NGO support for CBT often fails to resolve such issues efficiently as the limited capacity within a single particular community. Indeed, most NGOs and donors involved in the development of CBT in Namibia are specialized and focused on biodiversity conservation and rural development programs rather than on tourism as a business, management and marketing.

Second, CBT is only marginally integrated in the very competitive tourism value chain (Lapeyre 2011). Communities are new entrants in the tourism sector with little or no previous experience (Kiss, 2004; Simpson, 2007). As a result, most communities have limited knowledge about the tourism sector and limited skills in tourism management and operation (Tosun 2000). Despite valuable training efforts by the Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association (NACOBTA), communities in Namibia still have poor awareness about, and knowledge of, the tourism market.

Third, we consider that there is a further need to have a broader policy framework for tourism development integrating the business perspectives better with community needs. While the CBT policy is in place, it may not guide the wider tourism development if it is not integrated to the 'main stream' tourism policies. The actual National Tourism Policy that focuses on the mainstream tourism industry has been under development since 1995. The first comprehensive draft was circulated for stakeholders in 2005 and the most recent draft was completed in 2007 (Jänis 2009). Both drafts state that the policy aims to provide long-term National Development Plans 2001/2–2005/6 and 2007/8–2011/12 (see NTB 2012). However, the earlier draft from 2005 is more explicit about how tourism can contribute to the development objectives, while the 2007 draft is more focused on tourism as a viable and competitive economic sector and it has less emphasis on the role of tourism in national development priorities. By logical extension, it can be argued that, as the 2007 draft was prepared by an external consultant provided by the European Union (EU), thus, it can be questioned whether this change in emphasis reflects the views of the

Namibian Government or the consultant. What is clear is the difference between the two versions and how the role of tourism is placed in the national and regional development contexts. The 2005 draft highlights the importance of preparing a national tourism strategy and action plan to articulate the practical implementation of the policy (MET 2007). However, the 2007 draft proposes a national tourism growth strategy that implies a clear emphasis on a growth-focused neo-liberal approach as adopted by the Namibian Government (Jauch 2001; MET 2007). Furthermore, the 2005 draft discusses the challenges and opportunities of CBT as a means of distributing the benefits of tourism, whereas the 2007 draft omits CBT and mentions only the need for partnerships between the private sector and local communities in order to distribute the benefits (Jänis 2009). In general, tourism in Namibia is considered to have major potential for employment and income generation in the country, and the role of community-based tourism and community-based natural resource management with tourism development elements in particular are highlighted by national policy (Saarinen 2010).

Rural communities are faced with a new set of pressures and limitations in the emerging global economy. They are hard pressed to find and develop a competitive advantage, and tourism often presents an appealing possibility. It is not enough, however, for any government to enact a policy that either advocates the benefits of tourism, or alternately enforce a critical policy that cautions communities about negative tourism impacts. Communities, instead, should engage in community discourse that considers community resources and capabilities, and that evaluates residents 'readiness' for tourism development efforts. As an area of study, CBT has at times been dominated by an industry-first viewpoint, one that may include the host community but often as an accessory within the development process (Blackstock, 2005). The local economic development (LED) initiative presents a flexible range of options for communities to circumvent this type of CBT by taking control of the development process and truly placing them at the center, as an entrepreneurial entity unto itself. Though this process is not without challenge, the LED initiative is a way for rural residents in Namibia to develop a tourism industry that is both more reflective of their desires and more rewarding for their communities.

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Perceptions of local communities participation in rural tourism development in promotion of sustainable tourism: a case from Lesotho

Limpho Lekaota & Jarkko Saarined

Vaal University of Technology, South Africa, limphol@vut.ac.za
University of Oulu, Finland, jarkko.saarinen@oulu.fi

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Abstract

In order to maximize the benefits and minimize the costs, rural communities should be able to participate actively in all aspects of tourism, including planning and management. The main purpose of this study is to evaluate the local communities' participation in rural tourism development utilizing mixed method. Survey and interview materials were collected from local rural communities and local authorities (nature reserve managers, tourism officers, environmental/conservation officers and Conservation Committee Forum members) in the Katse and Mohale Tourism Development Area of Lesotho. Non-probability, purposive and convenience sampling approaches were used to gather the data. The study was conducted in three villages adjacent to the T'sehlanyane Nature Reserve - Ha 'Mali, Bokong Nature Reserve -Ha Lejone and Liphofung Nature Reserve - Phelandaba.

The information gathered was used to formulate a model of the elements influencing rural tourism benefit-sharing processes in rural local community contexts. Such model could be beneficial as without a strong emphasis on local benefit-sharing, Lesotho people, especially in the rural areas, would probably not receive the potential benefits of tourism development in the future. Such a model would support communities' participation in tourism development, leading to sustainability of resources in rural tourism.

Ha 'Mali and Ha Lejone respondents recognized community members' participation but the Phelandaba respondents generally disagreed that the communities were involved in planning, as they indicated not being consulted in any planning about tourism. Respondents from all three villages would prefer greater involvement and decision-making power in the management of tourism.

The study concludes that government should not merely construct conservation and tourism development areas but should also empower local communities to participate in all stages of planning, development and management. Involving community members in as well as formulating supporting tourism regulations, implementation, monitoring and evaluation procedures would be beneficial for sustainable rural tourism development.

Introduction

Rural tourism is globally gaining popularity, and it has been widely promoted as an effective source of income and employment, particularly in peripheral rural areas (Sharpley, 2002:233). In

southern Africa too, rural tourism is a growing field representing an intersection of nature and culture (Lubbe, 2003:90). Therefore, participation of the local people in the operation, management and planning of tourism development in rural areas is an important element for the development of locally beneficial rural tourism. According to Cole (2006:630), local community participation is a widely accepted criterion of sustainable tourism, and the reasons for community participation in tourism development are well rehearsed in the tourism literature.

Rural tourism development, like any other business, needs to be managed. One important aspect of rural tourism management is to have a specific focus on local people to participate and work in tourism developments. Local participation in tourism is usually referred to as functional management and can be seen as part of strategic management (Mason, 2008:104).

The inclusion of local communities at all management levels of tourism destinations could solve problems in tourism developments. Researchers have indicated that local stakeholders who have had an opportunity to participate in the planning process from the very beginning, have more positive opinions regarding the development of their area than those who have not participate in the planning process (see Simmons 1994, Jamal & Getz 1995, Page & Thorn 1997). Thus involving local stakeholders to participate should be a crucial component of planning for an area (Tosun, 2000; Törn, Siikamäki, Tolvanen, Kauppila & Rämet, 2007; Jamal & Stonza, 2009).

The idea of sustainability has become an important policy issue in tourism management and development (Saarinen *et al.,* 2009:77). Many tourism-planning scholars agree that sustainable tourism development can best be accomplished by involving local residents in decision-making and in the benefits of tourism, and by collaboration among various stakeholders in decision-making matters (see Timothy, 2001:149). Community participation should be a shared decision-making process at all levels of the programs, such as setting goals, formulating policies, planning and implementation (Butler, Hall & Jenkins, 1998) and having a high degree of control or ownership of the tourism activities and resources (Hall & Page, 1999:195; Saarinen, 2006:1130). It is very important to consider local participation as the success and failure on any rural tourism development depend on local communities. Community participation is considered necessary to obtain community support and acceptance of tourism development projects and to ensure that the benefits relate to the local community's needs, especially in peripheral and rural contexts (Tosun, 2000:613; Cole, 2006:629).

The Lesotho government realized the importance of the participation and involvement of local people in tourism during the 1990s (Lesotho Highlands Development Authority (LHDA), 1998). However, the theory and application of collaboration to tourism planning and protected areas management, as evolving as new forms of collaboration, arise to manage growing concerns over biodiversity loss, resource depletion and impacts of development on indigenous and local inhabitants (Jamal & Stonza, 2009:169). This related partly to the establishment of conservation areas and the development of three fully-fledged natural reserves - the Bokong Nature Reserve; Ts'ehlanyane Nature Reserve; and Liphofung Nature Reserve.

Recognizing the importance of community participation as part of tourism management, the present study aims to evaluate the perceptions of local communities' participation in rural tourism development in selected areas in Lesotho. In addition, the study analyses participation or involvement in tourism in the Katse and Mohale Tourism Development Area (KMTDA),

pertaining to the prevailing problem of communities' resistance to tourism. The respondents of this study are the local communities, local authorities, nature reserve managers, tourism officers, Conservation Committee Forum members and environmental/conservation officers.

Community participation in rural tourism development

Community participation in tourism is a major issue facing governments. Community participation refers to a form of voluntary action in which individuals confront the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship (Tosun, 1999:217). Literature shows that being a community member and being invited to participate do not automatically give a resident/participant easy access to getting his/her issues addressed. Indeed, the right to participate does not always equal the capacity to participate (Bramwell & Lane, 2000:172).

Rural tourism and community-based tourism share community resources in destinations and both need to promote community participation. Community participation is considered necessary to obtain community support and acceptance of tourism development projects as well as to ensure that the benefits relate to the local community's needs (Tosun & Timothy, 2003:5).But citizens tend to participate only when strongly motivated to do so, which requires their ideas to be considered, otherwise community participation may be de-motivated (Tosun, 2000:625).

Issues of participation, collaboration and partnership are at the forefront of tourism research trying to find new solutions to the problems of resource management and destination development (Hall, 1999:274; Hall, 2008). Local community has to form part of a participatory group in tourism for a number of reasons. Local communities are more likely to know what would work and what would not in local conditions; and community participation can add to the democratization process and interest in local and regional issues (Tosun & Timothy, 2003:5). Based on this, communities need to participate in tourism because they will protect the tourism developments and be ready to host tourists, which will promote sustainable tourism.

Community participation is best combined with and related to sustainable tourism. It is clear that community participation has become an indispensable part of sustainable tourism development (Tosun & Timothy, 2003:6).However, planners rush to involve various publics in their work, but some do so without full consideration of the progress of public participation techniques (Tosun, 2000:613). Moreover, many authors support greater public participation while few have tested or evaluated the appropriateness of methods to secure local residents' interest (Gunn, 1988:116; Simmons, 1994:98). The participation of locals often happens in theory, but to a lesser extent in practice (Tosun, 2000:613).

Participation practice improves misunderstandings amongst tourists and local communities. The rationale for community participation in tourism is that it can reduce potential conflict between tourists and members of the host community (Mason, 2008:120; Aramberri & Butler, 2005:13). When communities are participating, the constraints that confuse befuddle their involvement are identified and the difficulties facing public participation are discussed, as well as some provisional action steps(Haywood, 1988:105).

Literature shows that actual participation of a community in tourism depends on a number of factors. These include the following: the awareness of the tourism issue in the community; how members of the community perceive the tourism issue; and history of the community's involvement (or lack of it) in tourism-related issues (Mason, 2008:120). Participation is affected by both the background and future of tourism in a destination or country. Once tourism has not allowed local communities to participate in any tourism planning for their area, the tourism development project will most probably experience problems in the future (Haywood, 1988:105).The community-based approach stresses the wider involvement of various actors in development, especially host communities (Saarinen, 2006:1125).

In consideration of the importance of community participation or involvement, negative issues regarding participation are also researched. Researchers indicate that there are some difficulties associated with participation of community members in the planning process in developing countries. Community participation has some challenges, as local communities that have to participate in tourism may lack information on the operational and necessary equipment for tourism. Related to this, Nyaupane *et al.,* (2006:1374) have identified some limitations of community participation in tourism management. Limitations include (i) local communities may not have the investment capital, know-how or infrastructure necessary to take the initiative in developing tourism. (ii) Local communities may have cultural limitations to involvement in the planning and management of tourism. (iii) Tourism may be a concept difficult to grasp by people living in isolated rural communities, and (iv) Members of the host community may feel that it is the government's duty to plan economic development opportunities for their region and that it would not be appropriate for them to take the initiative. In addition, Hall and Page (1999:252) have identified seven impediments to incorporating public participation in tourism planning. However, this study focused only on the following: the public are not always aware of or do not understand the decision-making process; there may be difficulty in attaining and maintaining representatives in the decision-making process; the decision-making process would be prolonged and there may be adverse effects on the efficiency of decision-making.

Regardless of negative issues relating to local community participation in tourism, residents have become more involved in participating in tourism. Increasingly rural people are becoming involved in tourism to help meet their own goals of independence and cultural survival, although tourism development carries special risks for them (Hall & Page, 1999:195). Community involvement in tourism development has become an ideology of tourism planning (Tosun, 2000: 613; Prentice, 1993: 218). In South Africa, for example, the idea that communities should be involved in tourism planning and management is seen as a crucial issue in the future of tourism at national level (South Africa., Western Cape., Department of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Tourism, (2001); Green paper on the management of provincial property).

Monitoring, decision-making and control in tourism development

The concept of participation is recommended as well in monitoring, decision-making and control of tourism developments. Stakeholders should develop systems that could monitor destination management (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006:1275). Monitoring tourism development is about periodically determining whether the development falls within the guidelines and conforms to principles, taking corrective action where necessary (Keyser, 2002:387). Monitoring should be a

compulsory element of a sustainable tourism strategy and expert advice should be sought on developing a program of environmental monitoring (Hall & Richards, 2006:92). Nature-based tourism also considers monitoring important for sustainability of protected areas and ecotourism, parallel to debates over how to monitor and manage the parks in the wake of the ecotourism boom, and there have been ongoing conflicts with rural poor people living around the parks (Honey, 1999:142). Monitoring and measurement are the final steps in the planning process, since they can make sustainable tourism development operational (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006:1277).

Monitoring agreements are decided during decision-making, which involves all stakeholders. Decision-making and development processes require multi-stakeholder involvement at all levels of planning and policy-making, bringing together government, NGOs, residents, industry and professionals (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006:1275). However, community involvement in decision-making processes is a new concept in most of the developing world (Timothy, 1999:373). Researchers have identified the importance of involving local communities in tourism development decision-making. The new approach to tourism emphasizes the benefits related to communities' involvement in decision-making and control.

Exercising control evaluates whether the tasks that were planned, organized and directed have been successfully carried out (George, 2008:182). In terms of community control and building community culture, case studies present some compelling evidence that if all aspects of a tourist attraction are controlled at the local level, in so doing the operation would have strengthened local identity(Hall &Richards, 2000:253). However, the control of tourism by players within the community and the pressure to increase visitor numbers could tend to widen community differences as well as creating another destination stereotype(Taylor, 1995:487). Other tourism projects can easily be managed, except for money, which brings conflicts among communities. It became difficult for locals to control funds in tourism development, as funds do not normally belong to local communities. Financial resources originate from non-local interests; the consequent loss of control is not easy to overcome and if residents do not own the tourism infrastructure, control over growth and style of development is difficult to achieve (Tosun, 2000:624).

Communities should be afforded a chance to control, manage and own tourism enterprises in promotion of sustainable tourism developments. However, tourism enterprises develop and grow; it may prove difficulties to maintain control of community members, local business people and local authorities (Joppe, 1996:476). Ownership and control are closely related as ownership normally signifies control(Butler & Hinch, 2007). Despite the positive reasons related to local communities in control, management and ownership of tourism enterprises, negative thoughts also exist. Local communities may not have the investment capital, know-how or infrastructure necessary to take the initiative in control and management of tourism (Tosun, 2000).

Sustainability in tourism

The principles of sustainable tourism have special relevance to the development of rural tourism and those principles can be translated into practice by the writing and implementing of regional sustainable tourism strategies (Lane, 1994:102). Sustainability has become an important policy

issue in tourism; it has brought increasing discussions all over the world. The increasing need to understand the nature of the limits of growth and sustainability rests on three integrated elements: the ecological, social-cultural and economic (Saarinen, 2006:1123). Communities need to understand tourism's ecological, cultural and economic benefits in order to promote sustainability in tourism. Kauppila *et al*. (2009:425) argue that the focal factors in sustainable tourism planning are a long-term viewpoint and comprehensiveness. The latter refers to three basic elements of sustainability: ecological, economic and socio-cultural and how to consider them in planning (see Hall, 2008).

The focus of the sustainability debate is that the three basic elements of sustainability should not be depleted. In promotion of sustainability, Timothy (1998:53) suggests that tourism should be planned and managed in such a manner that its natural and cultural resources are not depleted or degraded but maintained as viable resources on a permanent basis for continuous future use. Sustainable development has a primary objective of providing lasting and secure livelihoods, which minimize resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability (Hall, 1999:279). Four basic principles that are critical to the concept of sustainability are: (i) Holistic planning and strategy formulation; (ii) Preservation of essential ecological processes; (iii) Protection of both human heritage and biodiversity; and (iv) Development in which productivity can be sustained over the long term for future generations (Bramwell &Lane, 1993:2). Therefore, all stakeholders should be involved holistically in planning and strategizing on how to avoid depletion and degradation on both natural and manmade resources.

A community-based approach to tourism development is a prerequisite for sustainability (Timothy (1999:373).Sustainability has become an important topic and concept in relation to tourism planning and development (Chandralal, 2010:41). For a tourism development to be successful, it should be planned and managed in a sustainable manner. One main key to the success and implementation of sustainable tourism development is the stakeholders (host community, entrepreneurs and community leaders). Recently, sustainability has featured largely in both international and regional studies; these include debates on development and tourism planning (Cole, 2006:629).

Sustainable tourism development planning embraces a community-oriented approach, promotion of tourism benefits, and encouragement of community involvement and participation. Sustainable tourism planning aims to support the community and economic goals in regional development with elements that safeguard the environment (Kauppila *et al.,* 2009: 426). Sustainability should not be regarded only from an environmental perspective but also from a social and economic perspective. In relation to this, sustainability should great extent consideration to critical element in the exploitation of the whole potential of the tourist sector, which can in turn be a key to enhancing the economic development of many economies, including those of the less developed countries (Brau *et al., 2008:238*).

All the parties involved in tourism need to work together to achieve the goal of sustainability. Planning for sustainability regarding the tourism sector involves not only the host community but also the government at both regional and national levels, as well as private sectors and NGOs (Hall, 1999:276).The significance of planning about sustainability is highlighted by the various national strategies for ecologically sustainable development (Wearing & Neil, 1999:25).

Research methodology

This study is part of a bigger study but for this article only perceptions of local communities' participation in rural tourism development is evaluated, amongst the local communities and authorities, nature reserve managers, tourism officers, Conservation Committee Forum members and environmental/conservation officers. Qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were used to conduct the study, therefore the present utilized mixed method. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were followed in conducting this study in order to compare the findings from the two methods and assess the validity of the results of research. The study was conducted by designed questionnaires in three villages adjacent to Ts'ehlanyane, Liphofung and Bokong nature reserves (called Northern Parks). The sampling frame comprised the environmental/conservation officers, tourism officers, community members and local authorities of villages, which are closest to the park and employees of Northern Parks of Lesotho from the three villages, while interviews were designed to collect data from CCF members.

Local communities are people living closest to the park, who are well informed about the parks' operations. Community members who participated in the research from the three villages of the target population amounted to 278 respondents. Of these 278, there were 95 from Ha 'Mali, 72 from Phelandaba and 111 from Ha Lejone. Furthermore, there were 23 community leaders namely 6 from Ha 'Mali, 10 from Phelandaba and 7 from Ha Lejone. The local authorities' response rate was 85%. The tourism officers' response rate was 75% and conservation or environmental officers was 78%. The lowest rate of 67% was from the nature reserve managers. In the case of community members the total number of questionnaires distributed to the communities were 470 and 278 were returned, which is a 59.14% return rate. Convenience sampling was used amongst community members by self-selection of 278 respondents who were willing to participate in the study. Purposive sampling was used for parks employees and CCF members. The collected data was carried out 3 months (November 2012- January 2013).The questionnaire for the survey was in a form of open-ended and close-ended questions and a structured open interview was used.

The researcher was careful when developing the questionnaire, to make sure that all questions were relevant to what was supposed to be investigated. An expert reviewed questionnaires and the researcher used simple language and contextualized the information to facilitate validity. The researcher used the same questionnaire to maintain consistency in answers from respondents. The researcher also ensured that all respondents understood the questionnaire and interview questions. The study was conducted under the University of Pretoria's name so the researcher had to apply for ethical clearance for the research through the University's Ethical Committee.

The analysis of coded data (from structured questionnaire) was conducted with the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Hypotheses (H0 and H1) were used to state whether there was a statistically significant or no significant differences on opinions between the respondents. The significance of differences between means was examined by using the Mann-Whitney U test and for three or more groups the Kruskal-Wallis H test was used.

The cross-tabulations were applied to quantify the statistical differences noted among respondents using Chi-squared statistics and Cramer's V. The open-ended questions and interview responses were grouped by themes and used to explain the statistical relationships. The use of cross-tabulation was also intended to identify any similarities or differences in the analyzed data and relate the findings to the literature in order to draw conclusions.

To guide this research appropriately, the hypotheses formulated reflect the existing research literature and Lesotho government tourism policy and documents. The hypotheses will be further argued in the literature review and description of the study sites. The specific hypotheses for this study are:

Ho: There are no perceptions that communities' involvement in tourism management is essential in improving their participation.

H2: Communities perceive involvement in tourism management as essential in improving their participation.

Results

As it has been indicted earlier that this study is part of a bigger study, Section D of the questionnaire contained six items grouped under management of tourism. All six items were characterized by having high standard deviations indicating disagreement among the respondents. All six items had their scales inverted and then each one of D31, D33 and D35 were removed as their measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) values were still below 0.6. This left only three items in the factor with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.677 and Bartlett's sphericity of $p < 0.005$. Hence, the resulting PCA with Varimax rotation resulted in one factor, which only explained 63.98% of the variance present. It had a Cronbach alpha of 0.718 and was named *management of tourism.*
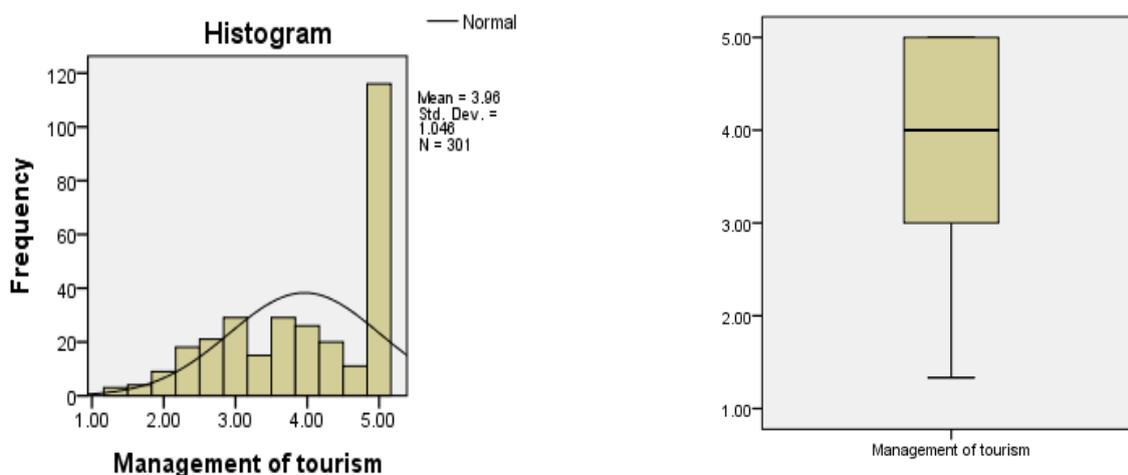
Figure 1: Histogram and box-plot showing the distribution of data in the management of tourism

The mean score of 3.96 and median of 4.00 should be interpreted against the inversion of the

scales. Respondents thus disagreed with the items in the management of tourism factor. Items B31 (the community is involved in planning), B33 (community representatives participate in the formulation of laws and regulations relating to tourism) and B35 (assessment and evaluation are done by the community) were all answered unreliably and had mean scores indicating neutral opinions, which are often found in items which may have political connotations and as such are viewed with suspicion. They were, however, removed from the factor analytic procedure. Significant differences between two independent groups regarding the management of tourism. The Mann-Whitney U-Test can be utilized for two independent groups

Testing the direct income from tourism groups (A 40) regarding the management of tourism
The data distribution in Figure 2 indicates a negatively skew distribution of data and hence non-parametric procedures were utilized in the analysis of the independent groups. The relevant data is given in Figure 2.

Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test

F40A. Income 2010
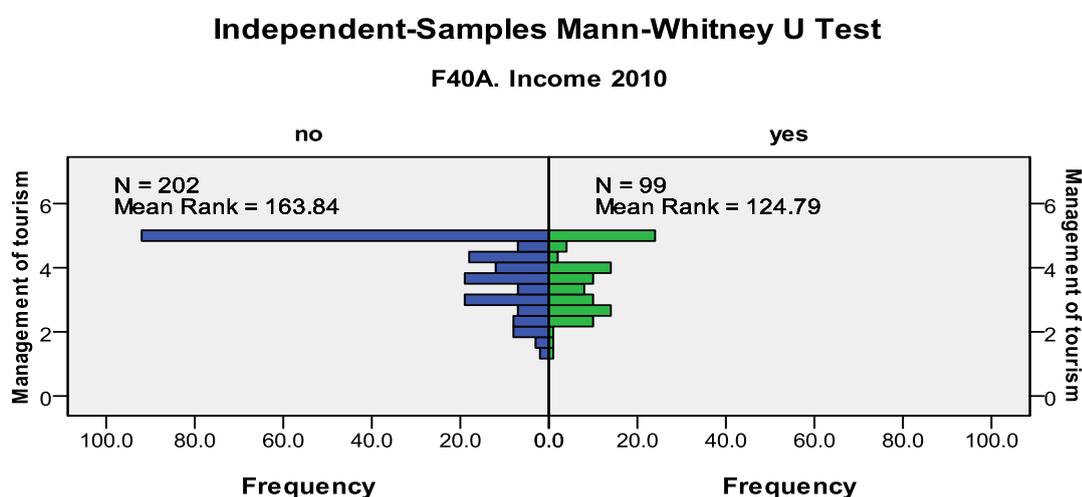
Total N	301
Mann-Whitney U	12,593.500
Wilcoxon W	33,096.500
Test Statistic	12,593.500
Standard Error	687.553
Standardized Test Statistic	3.774
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Figure 2: The data for the two received income groups with respect to the management of tourism

The relevant values are U= 12593.00; Z=3.774; p<0.0005; r = 0.22. Bearing the scale inversion in mind, the respondents who indicated that they had received some income from tourism agreed more strongly $(\overline{X}_{Yes} = 3.66)$ than the group who indicated that they had not received any income from tourism $(\overline{X}_{No} = 4.11)$ with respect to the management of tourism. It thus appears as if the management of tourism and income received are positively associated with one another. Significance of differences between the positions occupied groups (AA3) with respect to the management of tourism.

The respondents concerned with managing tourism had a mean score of 3.39 while the community respondents had a mean score of 4.00. Respondents occupying management positions agreed more strongly with the management of tourism than did community members. As these members in management positions are concerned with the daily management of tourism and are acquainted with both advantages and disadvantages of tourism one would have expected a more positive response although a value of 3.39 can be interpreted as partial agreement. The non-parametric values were U= 4216.50; Z= 2.622; p= 0.009; r = 0.15. Significant differences between three or more independent groups regarding the management of tourism

Item F42 asked respondents to indicate which village they lived in. Reponses were from three categories namely Ha Mali (101), Phelandaba (82) and Ha Lejone (118). These there groupings are likely to see the management of resources differently and the results of the Kruskal-Wallis (H) test are provided below
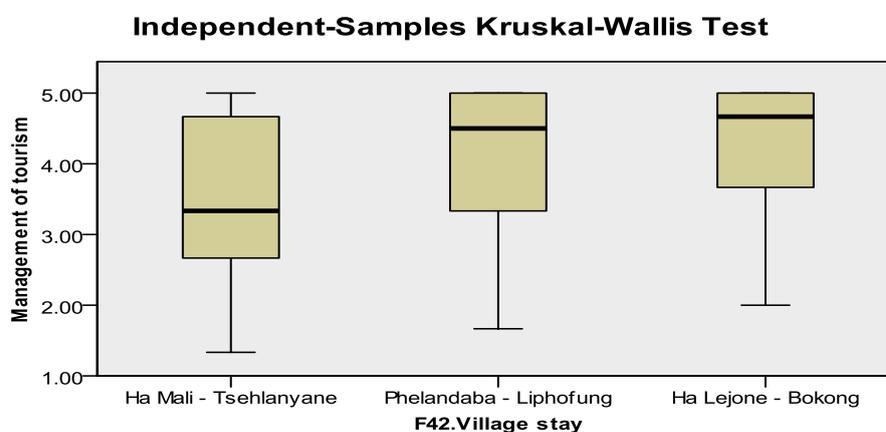
Total N	301
Test Statistic	29.908
Degrees of Freedom	2
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.

Figure 3:The hypothesis for the three village groups with respect to the management of

resources

The data in Figure 3 indicates that the null hypothesis cannot be accepted because the three groups differ statistically significantly regarding their mean scores when considered together, The Kruskal-Wallis H value of 29.91 has a significant p-value (p<0.0005). Thus, the three village groups do differ but one would need to do a pairwise comparison to see which groups differ from which. However, if one observes the graph in Figure 6.13 it seems as if the difference lies between the median value of Ha Mali and Phelandaba and Ha Mali and Ha Lejone. The pairwise comparisons are given in Figure 4.

Pairwise Comparisons of F42.Village stay
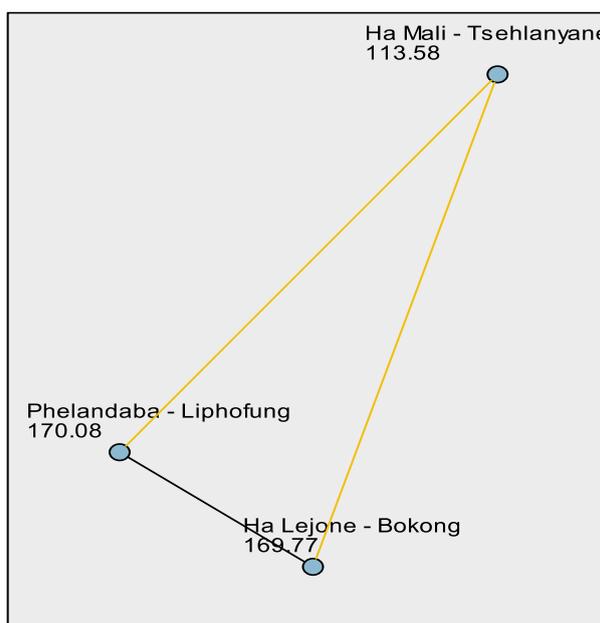
Each node shows the sample average rank of F42.Village stay.

Sample1-Sample2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj.Sig.
Ha Mali - Tsehlanyane-Ha Lejone - Bokong	-56.183	11.434	-4.913	.000	.000
Ha Mali - Tsehlanyane-Phelandaba - Liphofung	-56.495	12.539	-4.506	.000	.000
Ha Lejone - Bokong-Phelandaba - Liphofung	.312	12.127	.026	.979	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.
Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Figure 4:The pairwise comparison of the three village groups regarding the management of tourism.

If one views the box-plot in Figure 4 along with the plot in Figure 6.14 then it should be obvious that the main difference in mean ranks and in median scores is between Ha 'Mali and Ha Lejone (Z=-4.913; p<0.0005; r = 0.28). The second largest difference is between Ha 'Mali and Phelandaba (Z=-4.506; p<0.0005; r = 0.26). There is statistically no significant difference in factor mean scores between Ha Lejone and Phelandaba. As the scale was inverted, respondents from Ha Mali

$(\overline{X} = 3.48)$ agreed more strongly with the management of tourism than did respondents from Ha Lejone $\overline{(X} = 4.20)$ and respondents from Phelandaba $\overline{(X} = 4.21)$ both of whom could be said to disagree with the management of tourism factor. The negative view of the Phelandaba residents is also corroborated by the findings where the semi-structured interviews with the CCF members were analyzed.

A cross-tabulation between "do you think educating or training people about tourism can improve participation and involvement in tourism" versus village of residence? (Q6QLT)
From the cross-tabulation, the overwhelming perception is a positive one, where 95.2% of all CCF members indicated that they do believe that educating or training people about tourism can improve participation and involvement in tourism. Even the CCF members from Phelandaba were overwhelmingly positive. The result is that there is no significant association between the CCF members' yes or no answers and the villages they represent. The Cramer's V= 0.164 was small, as were the associated probability value and effect size (p>0.05; r = 0.16). Despite the previously negative perceptions of the Phelandaba CCF members, they do believe that people can be trained about tourism and hence their participation and involvement in tourism can improve. Hence, it appears as if the Phelandaba village residents are in dire need of such training, as the CCF members believe that this can bring about more involvement with concomitant improved attitudes and awareness of the benefits of tourism.

This item regarding the value of educating or training people was the only item that did not have a significant association between the CCF members and their yes or no answers as to how positive their communities were towards some of the aspects associated with tourism. Their answers were overwhelmingly positive and hence no significant association between the two opinion groups from the three villages concerned.

Findings of the interview

Among the three groups of CCF members, the Phelandaba CCF member's opinion is negative towards whether the people of their village are interested in participating in tourism. With Ha 'Mali and Ha Lejone CCF members, the majority of responses on interest of villagers in participation were yes.

The three groups of CCF members, they all believed educating or training people about tourism could improve participation and involvement in tourism. Among all CCF members from three village's only two members were negative about the training and educating of local communities.

Conclusion

The hypothesis was to evaluate the local communities' participation in tourism. Measuring the rural communities' participation provided information on the importance of involving the community, which led to the issue of sustainability in tourism. The literature referred to in Chapter 4 shows why the community should participate and be involved in tourism, and how this can promote sustainability.

The literature review on community participation in planning and management revealed the

importance of involving local communities in tourism planning to promote sustainability. The information is important for this study considering the overall problem of the lack of community participation in tourism planning. Saarinen (2011:3) states that the issue of control is not only a matter of resource uses and direct benefits but also relates to how local people are used and depicted in tourism. Such representation can be based on participatory planning, hearings, leasing systems for land and other resources or ownership in business.

The responses received from community members of Ha Lejone and Ha 'Mali seemed more focused on the activities of tourism than were those of members from Phelandaba. For example, the respondents from Ha 'Mali and Ha Lejone indicated that at the art and crafts shops or visitors' centers, which are situated within the nature reserves, their handicrafts are sold on their behalf to tourists, whereas in Phelandaba the situation is different, as the park workers sell crafts from outside the village. Elliot (1997:138) indicates that local managers do not and cannot act in a vacuum; they work within and are influenced by society and the political and administrative system. A system is moral when it is honest and based on the public interest and managed for the benefit of the people. It would appear as if the Phelandaba respondents feel that the park workers at Phelandaba serve their own interests instead of those of the community. The Phelandaba community members also complained that their representation in Conservation Committee Forums (CCFs) was not effective as they felt that there was no participation on their part. While social scientists have long taken a critical stance toward the concept of community, it remains widely popular in the tourism planning and communicative power of tourism, since representations of destinations have a direct and potentially significant influence on the people to whom they are being presented (Salazar, 2012:9).

Phelandaba respondents did not agree their community was involved in planning, as they were not consulted on any planning about tourism. As they see it, the park workers do all the planning and call the CCF members to meetings at which the opinions of the CCF members are not taken into account. CCF members have no role in making decisions on tourism planning and development in the area. Resident participation in decision-making would promise a greater expansion of benefit throughout the community and residents (Timothy, 1999:374). The local communities should be taken into account in the planning and management of tourism destinations for sustainability. Involvement in planning is likely to result in more appropriate decisions and greater motivation on the part of the local people (Cole, 2006:630). In practice, perceptions are that the Phelandaba community is not sufficiently involved in planning. Lack of involvement and participation has resulted in no perceived tourist benefits in Phelandaba. Participatory tourism planning in KMTDA would change the system and promote orderly development to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of the development process. The planning and management of tourism development require the cooperation of local stakeholders, including property owners, residents, local business groups and local authorities and government agencies at the national and sub-national levels. Tourism planners are being asked to use greater community participation in tourism planning but the Liphofung respondents indicated that there was no effective community involvement.

Based on the study and related experiences, the researcher would recommend that for the next study the questionnaires for the parks workers should be different from those for the community members. On the whole, the respondents participated well, even though it would have been

much better if the emphasis could have been placed on the fact that the information they were providing to the researcher would be taken up to the Ministry's offices in Maseru. Despite the identified limitations of the study from the findings that have contributed to the literature, these geographical areas are require further research, Quthing priority area; King Moshoeshoe the First's royal route priority area; and The Koti–Sephola Ski Resort in Qiloane village in Lesotho, in regard to perceptions of local communities participation in rural tourism development.

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A modified value chain analysis of tourism development in the Inlay Lake region, Myanmar

Sonja Frommenwiler & Péter Varga

Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne, HES-SO, University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland,
sonja.frommenwiler@ehl.ch
Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne, HES-SO, University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland,
peter.varga@ehl.ch

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Abstract

Tourism development in a relatively unknown country is faced with various challenges. The difficulty is not only choosing an appropriate tourism development strategy but also managing it in a complex sociocultural, economic and political environment with diverse stakeholders' interests. The present research analyzes the current tourism dynamics of the Inlay Lake region in Myanmar from an innovative conceptual framework: the modified value chain. The paper aims to comprehend and detect potential development strategies that can lead to sustainable tourism practices through a comparative analysis between two divergent areas in relation to their tourism dynamics at the Inlay Lake,

Introduction

Myanmar is currently undergoing a major transition: having been boycotted by the International community for nearly a quarter century due to various human rights and political issues (Thett, 2012; Rieffel 2012), it is now appraised as one of the last frontiers in Asia for foreign investment (Barta, 2012; Euromonitor International, 2013). The country, a hitherto little known tourism destination, has been gradually entering the international tourism dynamics as a potential 'newcomer' of exciting and mysterious opportunities in the global tourism scene. The country's political changes since 2011 have been easing the development of the national tourism industry. According to ASEAN statistics, Myanmar recorded for the first time in history more than 1 million visitors in 2012 and the highest growth rate within ASEAN (Ministry of Hotels & Tourism, 2013). This explosion in tourist arrivals requires careful planning and most importantly, a regulatory framework in order to ensure a smooth transition (Nilsen, 2013).

The Inlay Lake region, the focus of this study, is an area of over 19,000 square kilometers with an estimated population of 1.4 million (Appendix 1 and 2). The local population is mainly constituted of seven main ethnic groups: Bamar, Danu, Innthar, Palaung, Shan, Taunggyo and the PaO. The present paper will focus on the PaO population that inhabits a Self-Administered Zone at the Inlay Lake with a relatively low level of tourism activities (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014). Inlay Lake is among the four most popular tourism destinations in Myanmar, after Yangon, Mandalay and Bagan. National statistical sources indicate that 17% of the country's international tourists visited the area in 2012 (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014). The Inlay Lake region is

divided into two major areas, depending on its level of tourism involvement: the western side with a strong presence of tourism activities since the 1990s and the Eastern side where tourism is at its early stage now. In addition to this, the number of visitors has been increasing significantly. While there were 20,000 international visitors in the Inlay Lake in 2009/10, the number grew to 110,000 in 2013/14.At the same time; domestic tourism is growing quickly in the area, too. Despite the lack of official statistical data concerning domestic tourism, the Institute for International Development (2012) estimates that, domestic visitors outweigh international tourists two-to-one (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014, p.51).

The Inlay Lake area is a concrete example of how increased tourism activities can influence a region's environmental, social and economic system. On one hand, the lake decreased in size due to various external factors, endangering the future of the lake as a tourist site as well jeopardizing the lives of those depending on the lake. On the other hand, the region's undeveloped Hillsides show potential for taking part in the tourism boom, as the minorities living in the hills would also like to be included in tourism development. By spreading tourism further out in the hill region, the increasing tourism demand in Inlay Lake would get distributed more evenly in the region whilst putting off some of the already negatively affected Lake. In addition, as Myanmar is considered one of the most ethnic divers countries with more than 100 different minorities (Gosh, 2008), Inlay Lake region also represents a melting pot of various ethnic minorities benefitting differently from current tourism activities.

The question arises; will it be possible for Inlay Lake to develop a tourism strategy, which benefits all stakeholders in the lake area as well as those living on the Hillsides? More specifically, the first aim of this paper is to propose concrete tourism services with potential for further development, whilst benefitting the PaO people living on the Eastern Hillside of Inlay Lake.

The Australian-based research and consultation organization Institute for International Development (IID) has been active in Myanmar through several projects in the past that have focused on rural development. Since the country's political opening in 2011, IID has worked closely with the Ministry of Tourism & Hotels in order to set up a regulatory framework for the country's tourism development. As such, a concrete project was launched in April 2014 in Inlay Lake as a follow up on past projects in the region, with the goal of setting up a Regional Tourism Destination Management Plan (RTDMP) for Inlay Lake, which also includes the rural Hillsides. Therefore, the other goal of this paper is to explore the potential of tourism development of the less developed Eastern Hillside at Inlay Lake by creating an assessment tool, which ultimately provides a clearer understanding of the region and helps to propose valid tourism development strategies.

The RTDMP clearly revealed two major certainties relating to the tourism development strategy of the Inlay Lake region. First, the local stakeholders lack the potential competences, essential expertise and infrastructural basis to manage sustainably the growing tourism presence in the area. Second, there is a high risk that tourism, if poorly planned and managed, will negatively impact the foundations of the tourist attractions, such as an increased degradation of the natural environment and the traditional sociocultural settings of locals (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014).

Literature Review

The complexity of the tourism phenomena has divided the tourism research world into the advocacy and cautionary platform (Sofield, 2000). The latter one takes a critical view of the net benefits of tourism as they warn from the various side effects tourism development might entail: acculturation, negative impacts on the environment, economic exploitation or social problems in the host country, among others(Nash, 1996). Critics such as Parnwell (1998) argue tourism development draws local, rural villages into the complex system of a globalized economy, corrupting the current social-value system with new ways of living. It is hence crucial to define the right tourism strategy, which minimizes the negative outcomes whilst maximizing its positive impacts for the host country as well as for the visitor.

The advocacy platform, on the other hand, favors tourism development for its economic potential (Sofield, 2000). Various scholars have acknowledged the positive contribution tourism might have towards community empowerment due to economic benefits (labor, higher income), to raise awareness building (promotion tool for minorities, cultural revitalization), to receive higher governmental support (conservation of sites, improvement in infrastructure, better education) and increased sense of community identity and solidarity (Hwang, Stewart and Ko, 2011; Yang & Wall, 2009). Under terms such as ethnic tourism or community-based tourism, scholars agreed that tourism could contribute to the positive development of a community (Nash, 1996; Smith, 1989; Xie, 2011).

Nonetheless, those approaches have also been criticized for their lack of an economic dimension and proper market analysis in terms of demand and supply (Haynes, 2014; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010; Sofield, 2000). A solution can be found in the triple-bottom line approach, which balances economic, environmental and societal development (Tyrell*et al.*, 2013). The triple-bottom line approach converges with UNWTO's description of sustainable tourism development, "…that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts" (UNWTO, 2005).

Concerning the Inlay Lake Region, the RTDMP emphasized the following in 2014:

> "There is a need to meet the triple bottom line (social, economic and environmental impacts) by investigating and raising awareness on positive and negative impacts, and providing guidance for infrastructure development, creation of new and redesign of existing tourism products and human capacity development" (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014, p.8).

Furthermore:

> "The Inlay Lake Region will develop as a competitive and sustainable destination that is a great place to live, work and visit."(Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2014, p.10)

In addition to balancing the three aspects of sustainable development, a thorough stakeholder analysis is also crucial. Applying the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) in a tourism context it can be concluded that for a successful implementation of sustainable tourism development in a

community, stakeholder involvement and support is a key factor (Pimbert and Pretty, 1995; Byrd, 2007). Consulting ethnic minorities and locals during the project planning and implementation phase is crucial to ensuring the long-term success and sustainability of the tourism development project (Black & Wall, 2001; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Rocharungsat, 2008; Yang & Wall, 2009).

A new conceptual framework: The modified value chain

The triple-bottom line approach, together with the stakeholder analysis, provides a solid basis for sustainable tourism development. Still, a more concrete tool is needed when setting tourism development strategy in order to ensure that the potential products and services are optimized whilst considering modern market dynamics. In recent years, an increasing number of researchers and international organizations have shown interest in the dimensions of the tourism value chain (Yunis, 2006; FAO, 2007; Ashley and Mitchell, 2008; Núñez and Sievers, 2011; Song et al., 2012). Initially derived from the business environment (Porter, 1985), the value chain approach in a tourism context offers the possibility of identifying concrete leverage points within the value chain. These leverage points can be addressed in order to increase the producer's (in this case the PaO ethnic minority) economic return and reduce leakages through the chain (ODI, 2007;M4P, 2008; Hoerman *et al*., 2010).

In order to turn the traditional tourism value chain theory(Appendix 3)into a pro-poor approach, horizontal aspects such as poverty, gender and environmental considerations have to be added (Ashley, 2006). The aim is to identify a balance between poverty reduction, economic growth and environmental protection. It is hence not sufficient, to only look at the vertical linkages (as the traditional value chain theory suggests), but also take the horizontal aspects and its impact on the value chain into account (Stamm & von Drachenfels, 2011). This broad definition of the value chain does not only take the activities of one single firm into account, but also all other linkages from the raw product to the final consumer and beyond (M4P, 2008).

Nevertheless, the traditional tourism value chain theory as described above does not fully meet the needs of the study region. The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development ICIMOD focuses only on tangible products produced by the rural communities (Hoerman*et al*., 2010), leaving out intangible tourism services such as trekking or home stays, whereas Ashley's (2006) profound tourism value chain research misses out on important criteria specific to mountainous regions. Hence, the need emerged to create a modified value chain analysis in order to respond fully to the specific criteria of the study setting. In addition, due to limited resources, the value chain had to be adapted to the researcher's feasibility and reduced to three basic steps: Value Chain Selection, Value Chain Analysis and Identification of Strategies (Appendix 4).

In a first step, the right value chain needs to be chosen. The traditional value chain theory by Hoerman*et al.* (2010) suggests hereby looking at the environmental and geographic aspects of the study region in order to choose a product with further potential. However, in this paper more criteria of social and economic nature need to be added. In the modified value chain, the environmental/geographic, social and economic aspects are named under the umbrella term macro environment, which ultimately help to gain a better understanding of the study setting.

Taken from Ashley's (2006) value chain theory, the microenvironment evaluates the supply and demand dynamics in the local tourism industry. Once the macro and microenvironment analysis has taken place, potential tourism products and/or services will be identified for further sub-value chain analysis. In a second step, the modified value chain framework suggests researching the local stakeholder's power and interest relations. In the final step possible strategies, on how to implement the identified products or services, will be proposed followed by a risk and benefit assessment for the studied people.

By merging traditional theories in tourism development (triple-bottom line approach) with recent approaches from the value chain theory, it is possible to create a modified value chain assessment tool (Appendix 4). The modified value chain tries to assess the needs of a tourism development project applied to an ethnic minority by taking various factors from modern market dynamics into account, whilst ensuring a sustainable development.

Research methodology

Following the country's political opening in 2011 the present study can be considered as a one of the pioneer attempts to understand emerging tourism dynamics at the Eastern side of Inlay Lake area. Due to the fact that very little research had been conducted in the

Inlay Lake region prior to 2011, there is a dearth of official statistics in the tourism sector. Consequently, the research project took a qualitative approach as the most appropriate method to use in emergent tourism destinations.

The paper aims to understand the specific case of potential tourism development in one of Myanmar's main tourism destinations, the Inlay Lake area. Tourism development is a very complex project with various stakeholders whose differing interests can impede the development itself (Freeman, 1984). Therefore, qualitative research contributes to understanding such a complex phenomenon as it tries to capture what people say and do and how they interpret their world and what their point of views are (B. R. Burns, 2000). It helps to study complex and sometimes sensitive issues (Trochim, 2001).

Qualitative research is similar to the case study approach because it looks at an issue from all angles and as a whole (Thomas, 2011). According to Thomas (2011, p.10) "a case study is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, program or system in a real life context. It is research-based, inclusive of different methods and is evidence led. The primary purpose is to generate in-depth understanding of a specific topic".

During a one-month fieldtrip to Myanmar, various aspects of ethnographic field research were conducted. As part of the overall RTDMP project, four stakeholder workshops with representatives from the government, private sector, tourism and non-profit organizations were organized where methods such as participative observations, focus groups and SWOT analysis were used (Appendix 5). In addition, forty semi-structured interviews with the major stakeholders were conducted through individual research. Furthermore, supplementary participant observations about the rural livelihoods were made during the two treks in both

Hillsides. This way, the study setting in the Eastern Hillside could then be linked and compared to the Western Hillside.

The sizeable quantity of data was then consolidated and clustered into four distinct categories: private sector (13 people), CSO/CBO/NGO (8 people), officials/ government (3 people) and villagers/PaO (16 people). As the literature review identified stakeholder theory and power relations to be an important part of the overall value chain analysis, it was crucial collecting information from all relevant stakeholder groups (Appendix 6). The data was used to follow the three steps of the modified value chain.

Value Chain Selection

The macro environmental analysis of the study setting revealed clear differences between the two Hillsides. The Western Hillside of Inlay Lake consists of various ethnic groups living next to each other in different villages. The Eastern Hillside on the other hand is quite homogenous with mostly PaO villages. It shows signs of dry farmlands, visible through agricultural products such as cheroot leaves, turmeric and garlic, which require less water but also yield less value than rice. Mobile phones, electricity and water coverage was very limited and almost non-existent in the East. Nevertheless, given the close proximity of the Chinese and Thai borders, many households possessed solar panels and could hence watch DVDs or listen to the radio. On the other hand, the PaO villages showed very traditional structures with the village chief acting as the main authority and as the judge of disputes. The pre-dominant PaO culture in the East was celebrated widely through festivities with traditional music and dance. The Eastern Hillside possesses many natural and historical attractions such as waterfalls, caves or the religious site Kekku with its hundreds of Stupas. Though there is a lack of official statistical data, the fieldwork detected that only a very limited amount of tourists currently visits this Hillside. Until recently, the Eastern Hillside was restricted area for tourists and only a small part of it is accessible today.

Analyzing the value chain of current tourism services also shows that the PaO-owned hotel group organization GIC (Golden Island Cottages) is the only one allowed to organize trekking tours through the Eastern Hillside. If other tour agencies wish to organize a trekking tour, special permission from GIC - as well as a PaO guide - is required. A comparison of net revenues, which house-owners participating in the program receive for hosting guests, shows that the PaO people on the Eastern Hillside receive triple the amount for hosting guests than those on the Western Hillside. In contrast to the GIC monopoly situation in the East, the Western Hillside's trekking industry is quite developed with various players making up the highly fragmented market. Kalaw in the West, for instance, has established itself as a trekking mecca since the early 1990s. According to insiders of the Kalaw trekking industry, the recent boom in tourism arrivals has led to a downward price spiral with many new tour operators entering the market, offering cheap trekking packages mostly at the expense of local hosts.

In addition, there exist communication issues between host minorities such as the PaO and the tour operators, as they do not share the same language. According to a village Chief on the Western Hillside, rivalries between and within villages has increased, as trekking tours becomes a bigger share of their income. On the Eastern Hillside, on the other hand, trekking tours are still in their infancy. According to GIC, during the off-season they organize 2-3 tours per month, during

the high season every week.   Consequently, tourism services in the Eastern Hillside show potential for further analysis within the modified value chain.

Value Chain Analysis

The situation on the Eastern Hillside is more homogenous as there are not as many stakeholders involved in the trekking industry as in Kalaw (Western Hillside). Nevertheless, the relations between the different stakeholders remain highly complex. Although the hotel group GIC is very closely linked to its PaO people, it is still wholly owned by the PNO (PaO National Organization) and seen as a business unit within their various other business segments such as cement, jade, rubies or a winery.

The political party PNO used to be an armed underground rebel group called PNA (PaO National Army). In 2010, as one of the first ethnic rebel groups in Myanmar, the PNA signed a ceasefire agreement with the ruling government and became a political party. The PNO enjoys tremendous influence and popularity in the PaO region: almost all households had a picture hanging of the national PaO leader besides the altar. In 2011, two SAZs (Self-Administered Zone) were established in the Eastern hills, which afforded the PaO - for the first time in the country's recent history - a certain amount of political freedom and responsibility over their own people.

As a multiethnic State, other ethnic minorities in the Shan State have watched the PaO's development nervously and they criticize the PNO's close ties to the ruling government. Pointing to the creation of the two SAZs, some claim that the PNO's long-term objective is to establish their own PaO State and therefore break free from the Shan State. In fact, the Shan people are anxious about further independence movements from other minorities in their state, as it would mean a deterioration of Shan State in terms of economic and political power.

As the largest of the 14 administrative zones in Myanmar, the government on the other hand dislikes Shan State's economic power. Indeed, according to various political leaders in the region, the government is unofficially still at war with the Shan State Army (SSA). This can be considered as a possible reason why most of the region in Shan State is not open for foreigners to visit, despite its tourism appeal. Another reason might be the fact, that Shan State holds the largest poppy cultivation in the country, with Myanmar being the second largest producer of Opium after Afghanistan (UNODC, 2013). Overall, the PaO region falls into a multifaceted conflict zone, where various interests from ethnic minorities and the government collide, which is an obvious impediment to the potential development of the tourism industry.

Villagers have the least power in this highly complex area. Analyzing the situation in the Western Hillside, where tourism development has already advanced it is clear that villagers do not receive enough of tourism's benefits. A village chief on the Western side has recently just given permission to a businessman from the capital of Shan State to build a new bungalow complex in the village with the goal of absorbing the increasing number of trekkers. In return, the businessman promised the village water supply, electricity, a village fund and $200 for the education fund. Although construction has already started, no contract has been signed yet, according to the Village chief.

To summarize, despite the current efforts to develop the tourism industry there are various issues that jeopardize its successful implementation at the Eastern Hillside. The region's political instability and unclear leadership dynamics alongside with its unconsolidated independent status and a clear vision of its economic development, the Eastern Hillside copes with multifaceted challenges. In the next, the paper proposes some strategies that could ameliorate the situation.

Proposed strategies including risks and benefits

Hosting foreigners is officially still illegal in Myanmar (Häusler*et al.*, 2013), leaving a legal grey zone and making future projects and investments unsecure. Nevertheless, the trekking and homestay industry has significant potential on the Eastern Hillsides. As the region just opened up recently for foreigners, it still enjoys the authentic touch of the local PaO culture, such as local products, festivals and lifestyle, in contrast to Kalaw on the Western side where mass trekking tourism is increasing. The Eastern side could benefit from lessons learnt on the Western Hillside by ensuring a different approach to tourism. This is already guaranteed, as the PaO-owned hotel group GIC holds a monopoly over trekking and homestay services. Consequently, the whole value chain is shorter and easier to evaluate.

According to GIC, it is in the organization's best interest to up lift the PaO people and ensure that all revenues will be distributed equally among the people. Schools, health facilities and jobs are just a few of the things GIC aims to provide its people. The comparison to the Western Hillside has shown that having the tourism industry in the hands of a sole organization, which belongs to the minority people themselves, can ensure that more of tourism's benefits, such as higher monetary compensation, wind up in the pockets of the local people. Nevertheless, with increased tourism activities in the Eastern Hillside, some major points need to be addressed in advance and solutions need to be found.

Increased tourism also means a greater inflow of trekking-related consumer products, such as food, technical gadgets and outfits among others that would spawn consumer demand from the locals. In addition, this would create myriad waste management challenges since local infrastructure cannot absorb large quantities of western products. Nevertheless, if the emerging tourism activities in the Eastern region are sustainably planned and managed then locals could benefit from the growing tourism trade.

Among various actions, an upgrade of current infrastructure in the communities, in the long term,is needed in order to cater to the needs of the targeted tourists. More tourism will also mean more pressure on the environment (*e.g.*firewood for cooking and heating). As the hills are already suffering from deforestation, alternatives to the traditional wood-fired stove need to be found in order to prevent soil from becoming even more arid. As there are currently no sanitary facilities in the hills, more water, mixed with western shampoo and soap, will all seep into the soil. An alternative might be to provide tourists with traditional and organic PaO soap and shampoo, which are already produced by the locals in small quantities.

Currently, there are already two GIC hotels on Inlay Lake. As the Eastern Hillside and in general the PaO people are still little known to tourists visiting the area, GIC could dedicate a small

exhibition area, on their hotel premises, to showcase the local PaO culture. They already offer traditional folklore dances and music on special nights for their guests; however, GIC could supplement this by displaying traditional PaO products such as hand-woven bags, clothes or bamboo baskets. GIC could start offering traditional PaO soap and shampoo, which would also be more environmentally friendly and ease the negative impact on the lake.

Still, although GIC enjoys high legitimacy among the PaO people, the organization is not very transparent yet in terms of financial activities. It is difficult for a regular PaO villager to take a stake in the decision-making process of GIC. Furthermore, owned by the PNO political party, conflict of interest may arise as their goals might differ. Hence, it is crucial for GIC, and for the PNO, to improve transparency and provide its people with the possibility of playing an active role in the decision-making process. If tourism activities should increase further in the future, transparency is crucial in order to prevent jealousy and competition between the villagers and villages, as was the case on the Western Hillside.

As tourism is increasing in the region, its development, without any doubt, will affect the sociocultural life of the PaO people. Consequently, the main question is; how to ensure that tourism development is for the PaO and not for satisfying other stakeholder interests. Hence, it is important to first train the villagers and make them aware of the dynamics of tourism. The villagers need to be ready for the complex mechanism of tourism, but also in terms of infrastructure and service level. GIC who has already trained many young PaO people could take a leader role in this. However, it is crucial to concentrate tourism activities not solely in Inlay Lake where GIC resides. The majority of the PaO people working in Inlay Lake's tourism industry do not intend to return to their home village. Especially among the young and educated PaO people, tourism at Inlay Lake is perceived as a viable alternative to their less prosperous future on the Hillside. Hence, by developing tourism services further in the region by including the Eastern Hillside, said Brain drain of young villagers to Inlay Lake might be prevented and reversed.

Conclusion

With the country's efforts to open itself to the world, tourist arrivals to Myanmar and to the region of Inlay Lake (Euromonitor International, 2012; McKinsey 2013;Haynes, 2013; IID, 2012)will continue to increase. This paper has shown that there are opportunities in rural Myanmar to develop further, current tourism services such as trekking and homestays. The modified value chain analysis has provided an overall framework and a general understanding of the background of the study through a thorough analysis of the macro and microenvironment and the various stakeholders involved. The analysis has shown that there exist opportunities for the under-developed Eastern Hillside to benefit from past lessons learnt on the Western Hillside. Having tourism activities under the sole control of an ethnic minority can ensure that the flow of benefits stay within that ethnic minority. Yet, the modified value chain analysis has also revealed how complex tourism development can be, especially in such an intricate country as Myanmar where the different interests of various stakeholders collide.

The modified value chain has been proven as a generic model with the goal of obtaining an overall understanding of an ethnic minority, the PaO, and proposes tourism development strategies. In a next step, the proposed strategies could be assessed individually by calculating

their net monetary value for the villagers. In a further investigation, surveying tourists about their views on tourism development, as well as tourism products and services, could help to enhance the in-depth understanding of the different stakeholder groups. To complete the value chain analysis, the proposed strategies should then be implemented, monitored and evaluated in order to assess their positive impact. To conclude, this research has shed light on a region little known to the world of tourism research. A deeper awareness of the social-cultural context in Myanmar can enhance future tourism projects in the region and ensure their long-term success.

Limitations and further research

The modified tourism value chain is a generic model used to obtain an overall understanding of the PaO and propose strategies. In a next step, the proposed strategies could get assessed individually by calculating their monetary net value for the villagers. In a further investigation, interrogating tourists regarding their views on tourism development, but also tourism products and services, could help to enhance the overall understanding of the different stakeholder groups. To complete the value chain analysis, the proposed strategies should then get implemented, monitored and evaluated in order to estimate their success.

This study can be considered as one of the pioneer works on tourism development at the Inlay Lake in Myanmar and certainly, others will follow. The authors anticipate that not only the findings but also the approach of the present paper could be further developed and applied in other areas of the country, and elsewhere, with comparable sociocultural, economic and political complexities. The authors also hope that Inlay Lake, and particularly the Eastern Hillside, will follow sustainable tourism patterns with thoughtful and long-term benefits for its stakeholders and the surrounding environment.

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Appendix 1

Map of Previously Restricted Areas
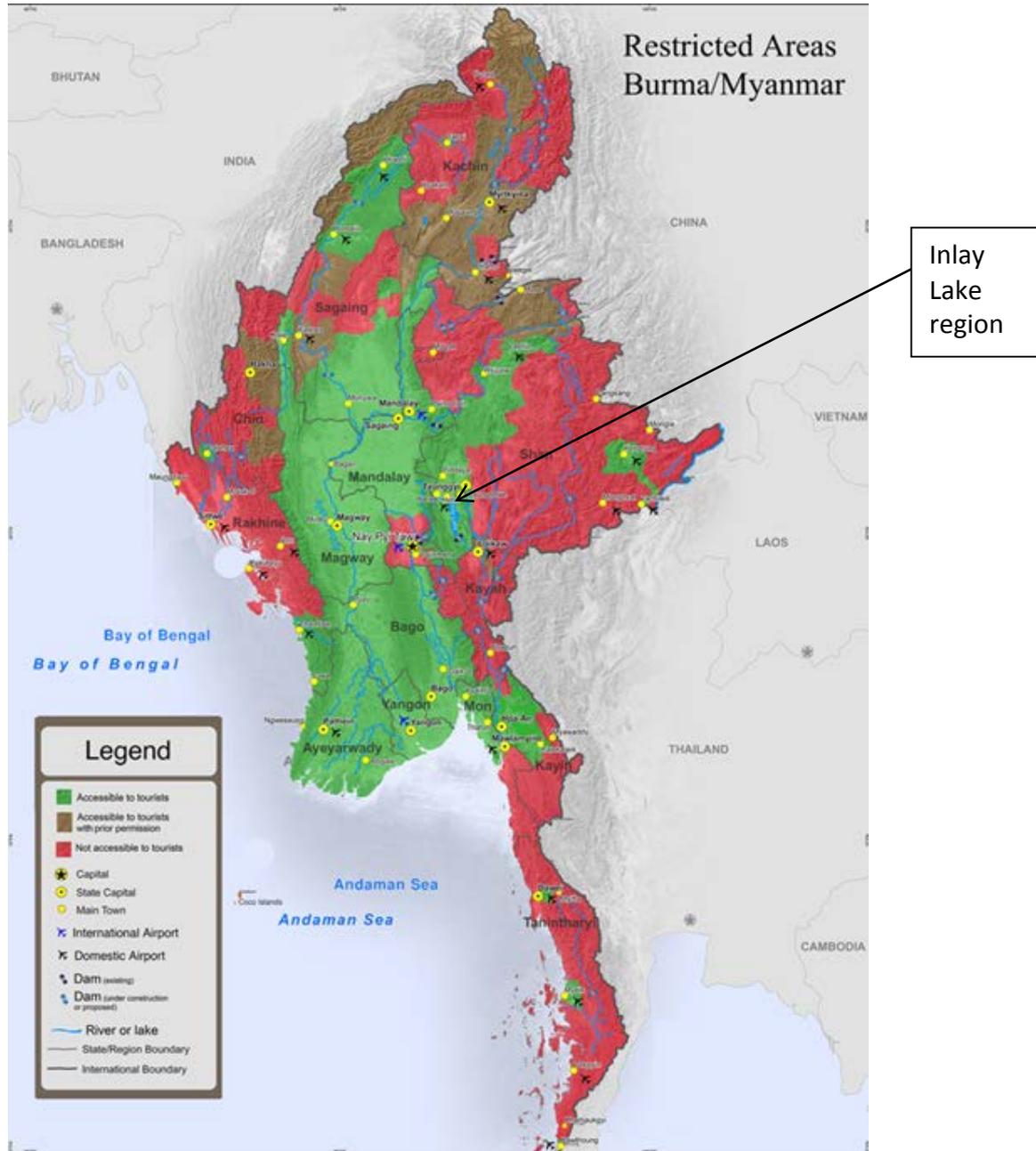
Source: Myanmar Ministry of Hotels and Tourism. Evolution of the No Go Zones in The Republic of Myanmar. Retrieved on February 14, 2015 from http://www.tourismtransparency.org/no-go-zones-changes

Appendix 2

Current Map of Restricted Areas
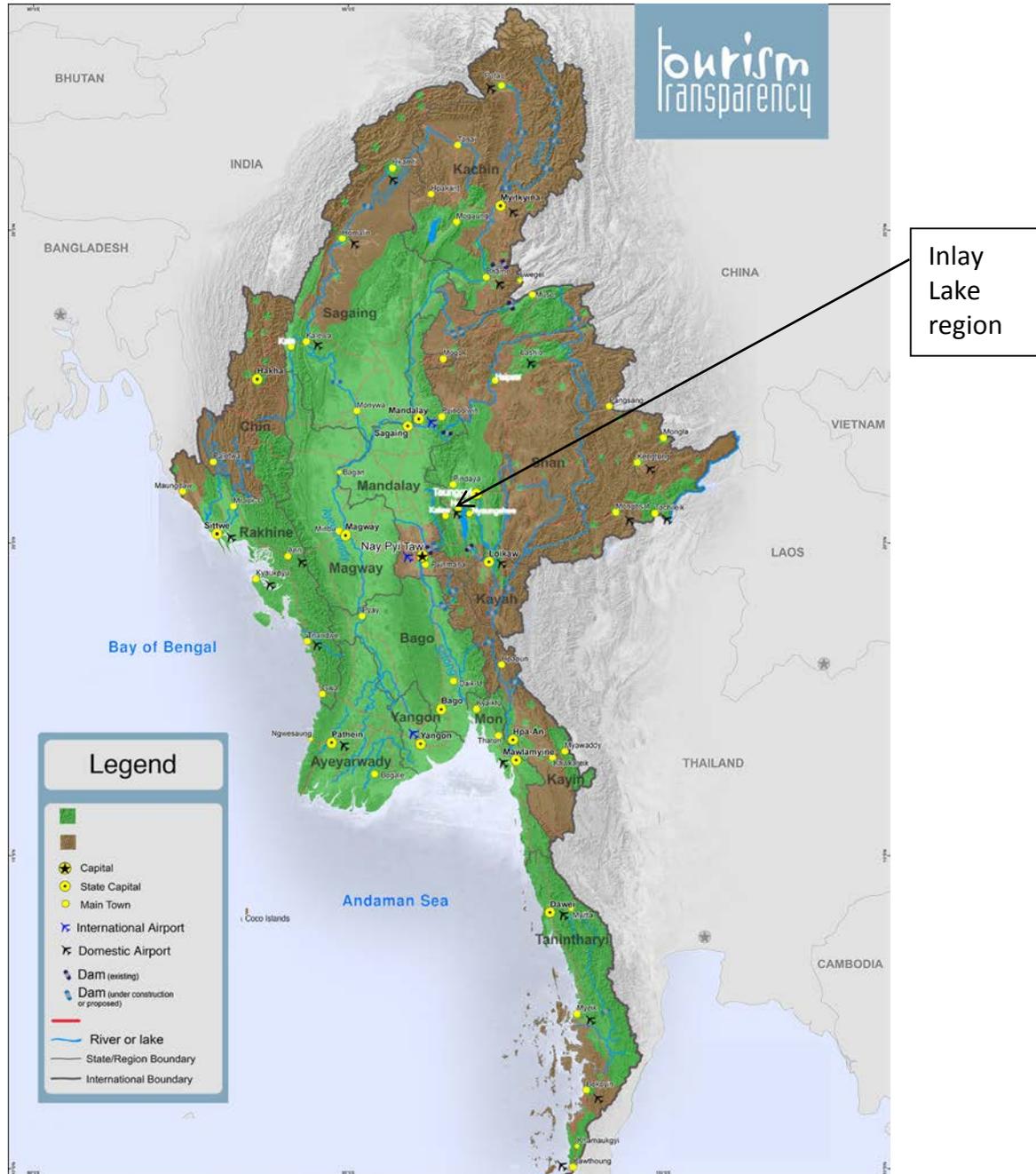
Source: Myanmar Ministry of Hotels and Tourism. Evolution of the No Go Zones in The Republic of Myanmar. Retrieved on February 14, 2015 from http://www.tourismtransparency.org/no-go-zones-changes

Appendix 3

Traditional Value Chain Framework
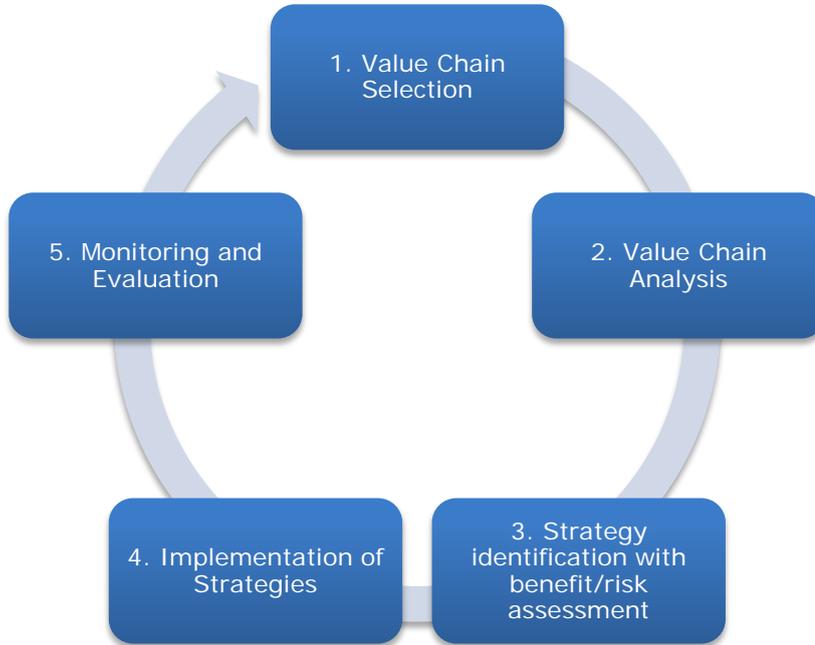
Source: Created by the authors adapted from Hoerman*et al.*, 2010

Appendix 4

Modified Value Chain Framework
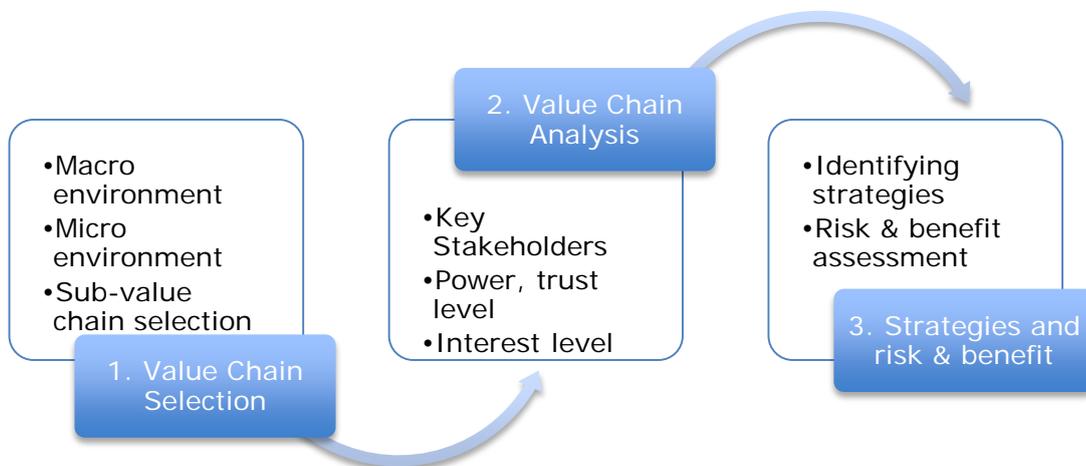
Appendix 5

SWOT analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
Authentic trekking	Currently undeveloped product
Stunning scenery	Poor community involvement
Established trekking operators	Product based on low price
Accessible	Low development of tourism infrastructure at hubs (such as independent trekking information)
Physically easy trekking	
Easy climate	Poor facilities in communities
Relatively long season	Some negative cultural impacts.
Opportunities	**Threats**
Improved communication technology could introduce mobile phone-based booking systems in villages and help develop a more locally-controlled trekking industry	Environmental threats such as deforestation, water pollution, agricultural erosion etc. could have detrimental effect on communities and thus trekking
Improvements in village accommodation standards would benefit the industry	Demand for extra resources such as water and firewood from communities
More funding likely to become available from donors to support sustainable development and tourism activities	Social impacts from trekking in traditional communities
Growing potential market	Waste management with increases in demand for consumer products related to trekking.
Significant potential to develop niche trekking: there are many aspects potential.	

Source: Ministry of Hotels and Tourism (2014) *Destination Management Plan for the Inlay Lake Region 2014-2019, p. 49.* (Unpublished research paper).

Appendix 6

Summary of research methods and limitations

Method I: Participatory Observations and Focus Groups	• 4 RDTMP events • 2 day trek through Eastern Hillside • 2 days at PaO Village (Kekku) • 3 day trek through Western Hillside
Method II: Semi-structured Interviews	• 13 private sectors • 8 CSO/CBO/NGO • 3 officials/government • 16 villagers/PaO
Limitations	• Selection of participants for IID's meetings • Snowball system for interviewees • Language barrier/dependency on translators • Varying quality and length of interviews

Environmental Practices and Hotels' Performance: an empirical analysis of the accommodation sector in Dubai

Christelle Cortese & Mondher Sahli

Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland, email: christelle.Cortese@ehl.ch
Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, email:mondhersahli@hotmail.com

Key words: accommodation sector, environmental management, financial performance, quantitative methods, Dubai

Introduction

Firms are nowadays facing growing pressure from governments and environmental institutions to reduce their ecological footprint. While a growing number of empirical studies have examined the impact of green management policies on firms' financial performances in the manufacturing industry, little has been discussed in the literature about service activities, such as the accommodation sector. The purpose of this research project is to fill this gap by examining the relationship between environmental practices and firm performance in the hotel sector in Dubai. With its current status as the "*gateway between the east and the west*" thanks to its positioning as a regional hub for trade, travel and transport and its recent award to host the World Universal Exposition in 2020, the city of Dubai fits perfectly the purpose of this study. In 2013, the city hosted more than 2.2 million international tourists (Dubai Statistics Centre, 2013) for a total land area of approximately 3'885 km^2. In order to comply with the increasing demand, many international hotel chains are now located in this city. Hotel groups, such as Accor, Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels & Resorts, InterContinental Hotels Group and Starwood Hotels & Resorts have many properties in this city. Furthermore, due to the rapid growth of the tourism industry in the UAE, domestic hotel groups are beginning to enter the market and gain recognition. The most known brands are Jumeirah Hotels & Resorts, Rotana Hotel Management Corporation and EMAAR Hospitality group.

Literature Review

Before delving into the empirical study of the relationship between environmental strategies and financial performance of hotels in the context of Dubai, this study investigated different types of environmental management strategies that have been implemented in the accommodation sector. These strategies cover both technical and organizational activities of firms (Peattie & Ringler, 1994; Cramer, 1998; Klassen & Whybark, 1999; Alvarez-Gil et al., 2001). Organizational strategies affect firms' formal systems, such as the training of employees or the planning and control of environmental objectives (Alvarez-Gil et al., 2001). On the other hand, technical strategies consist of infrastructural and regulatory changes that are made in order to comply with the latest environmental regulations.

Green management strategies are also influenced by contextual factors, such as age of hotels (Theyel, 2000, Alvarez-Gil et al., 2001), size of facilities (Carmona-Moreno et al., 2004, Alvarez-Gil et al., 2001; Sharma and Vredenburg, 1998); affiliation to hotel chains (Zurburg et al., 1995,

Carmona-Moreno et al., 2004); and environmental pressure (Alvarez-Gil et al., 2001, Carmona-Moreno et al., 2004), as well as the level of hotel environmental commitments (Molina-Azórin et al., 2009). This latter consists of basic level of commitments, which concerns only the physical aspects of the company, such as the purchasing policies of the hotel, energy-saving and water-saving practices and waste separation. The second level of commitment is related to human and communication aspects, such as the training of employees on environmental issues, the use of ecological arguments in marketing campaigns or the implementation of a long-term environmental approach that fits into the global strategy of the company.

To examine the relationship between environmental management and financial performance, empirical literature has used both qualitative and quantitative methods. The majority of empirical studies in the accommodation sector have focused on the Spanish hotel industry. As a result, opinions seem to differ, although a predominant tendency can be observed in the positive relation between environmental commitment and firms' financial performances (Molina-Azórin et al., 2009). Nonetheless, some studies have also shown that the impact of environmental management on a company's performance may not be immediate and may take some time to appear in their financial results (Nehrt, 1996).

Methodology

In order to examine the links between environmental practices undertaken by hotels in Dubai and their financial results, 32 hoteliers holding top managerial positions in four and five stars hotels in Dubai participated to our self-complete online-based questionnaire. This sample of hotels represented approximately 21% of the studied population (152 hotels).

Our analytical framework is structured as follows. The first part of our analysis aims to identify the level of basic or advanced commitments of our sample of hotels in Dubai and the impact of their respective contextual factors (age of hotels, size, chain affiliation, clientele segmentation and stakeholder environmental pressure) on their level of environmental commitments (**Error! Reference source not found.**). The second stage intends to establish the relationships between hotels' environmental commitments and their financial performances (occupancy rate, average daily rate, revenue per available room and gross operating profit per available room).

The following hypotheses have been tested:

> H1: Hotels with modern facilities will have a larger amount of environmental practices than establishments with older facilities.
> H2: Large-size hotels[3] will have a much greater involvement in environmental practices than small-size hotels.
> H3: The hotel structure will have an impact on the environmental practices set up by its management:
>> - H3a: International chain affiliated hotels will deploy more extensive environment management practices than national chain affiliated hotels.
>> - H3b: 5* hotels will have more efficient environment management practices than 4* hotels.

Large size hotels are the ones with more than 200 rooms

H4: The customer segmentation & dominant tourism type will impact the environmental proactivity of a hotel
- H4a: Leisure oriented hotels will deploy more extensive environmental management practices than business-oriented hotels
- H4b: Hotels that target mainly Occidental clients are more environmentally proactive than hotels targeting Asian customers.

H5: Hotels receiving more pressure from their stakeholders deploy more extensive environmental management practices than their counterparts who do not perceive such pressure.

H6: There is a relationship between the implementation level of environmental policies and practices and financial performance

H6a:Hotels environmentally involved will have a better financial performance.

We used ANOVA F-Statistic and regression analysis to examine the above hypotheses.
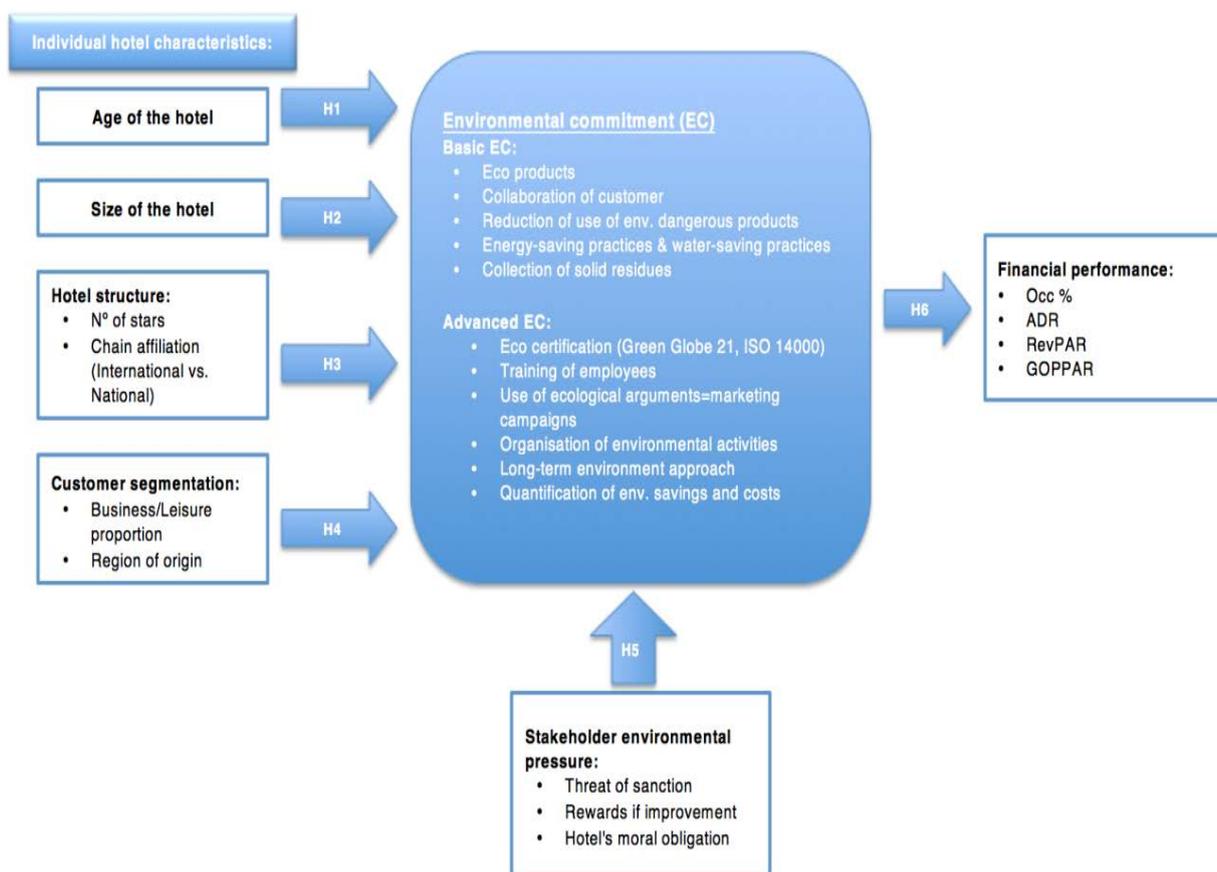

Figure 1: Analytical framework

Main findings

Our empirical results identified four contextual variables that have influenced positively the degree of environmental proactivity of our sample of hotels. These are respectively the affiliation to an international hotel chain, the hotel stars category, the leisure oriented customer

segmentation and the stakeholder environmental pressure.

In addition, the link between financial performances and the level of environmental commitment of Dubai's four and five stars hotels has proven to be effective, as environmentally proactive establishments showed better financial results as their counterparts.

Conclusions

With the growing pressure faced by the hospitality industry regarding its environmental footprint, this study is a step towards better understanding of how hotels can improve their environmental proactivity and how their green management strategies may be beneficial to their financial performances. To our knowledge, this is the first study that focuses on a fast growing tourist destination such as Dubai. Nevertheless, we have to bear in mind the exploratory nature of this study. The sample of hotels that we identified is relatively small. Eventually, this study could lead to an extensive analysis of the global Dubai hotel market industry, with a view to point out the significant financial benefits an environmental oriented strategy can deliver.

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The operational challenges of community-based tourism ventures in Swaziland

S.E. Lukhele &K.F. Mearns

*Department of Environmental Sciences, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
E-mail: slukhele@webmail.co.za*
*Department of Environmental Sciences, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
E-mail: mearnkf@unisa.ac.za*

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Abstract

Community-based tourism is increasingly being developed and promoted as a means of reducing poverty in developing countries assisting local communities to meet their needs through the offering of a tourism product. The Swaziland Tourism Authority with the support of the European Union Fund has made significant contributions to the development of community-based tourism in Swaziland enabling rural communities to develop tourist attractions. However, whilst many community-based tourism ventures have been established in developing countries, their operations have not been monitored. The same scenario exists in Swaziland where, at the operational level, projects are completely left in the hands of the communities, these projects seem stagnate. It is apparent that most of these community-based tourism ventures are faced with a number of challenges at operational level. This study investigated the operational challenges facing community-based tourism ventures in Swaziland.

Introduction

The tourism industry is a very dynamic and challenging one, where change is the rule, not the exception (Bennett, 2000: 4). This dynamic has seen the emergence of various new forms of tourism, of which community-based tourism (CBT) is one. Rural livelihoods are no longer considered as being a synonym for farming activities. Instead, it has been acknowledged that people in rural areas of developing countries pursue multiple strategies to make a living with some discovering tourism as a potential source of income complementing other activities (Forstner, 2004). Murphy (1985) states that the growth of tourism has helped convert many communities into destination areas, either as major resorts or as temporary stopovers for travelers. Tourism is undoubtedly important not only at local level, but also at national and international levels (Aref, 2011). It has become a source of income generation for many communities seeking ways to improve their livelihoods. Clearly, tourism and its impacts comprise a multidimensional phenomenon that encompasses economic, social, cultural, ecological, environmental and political forces (Singh *et al*., 2003 cited in Aref 2011: 20).

At the beginning of the 21st century, a change was observed in the behavior of adventurous tourists who moved to other forms of tourism. These tourists are exploring new destinations with greater focus on local customs, history, ethics and the particular culture of the destination (López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares & Pavón, 2011b: 69). For a number of developing countries,

their natural and cultural heritage are a source of significant economic benefits, attracting international and domestic visitors often in search of an authentic natural and cultural experience (The Mountain Institute, 2000: 2).

Community-based tourism is generally considered to have appeared during the 1970's as a reaction to the negative consequences associated with of international mass tourism (Hall & Lew, 2009). López-Guzmán *et al.* (2011b: 73) concur when they state CBT has emerged as a possible solution to the negative effects of mass tourism in developing countries, allowing it to become a strategy for community organizations to attain better living conditions for community members. Goodwin and Santilli (2009: 11) state that CBT emerged as an alternative to mainstream tourism. Along with other integrated conservation and development schemes, CBT projects have gained popularity over the last three decades (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). These relatively recent methods of development are based on a participatory approach that has been widely practiced by both conservation and development organizations (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009: 9). Thus, it is evident that, at local level, opportunities for the development of new projects and activities are being developed, for tourism purposes, through the exploitation of natural and cultural resources inherent to the local community (López-Guzmán, Borges & Cerezo, 2011a). The involvement of communities in tourism is important and is a growing trend. Amidst the social changes brought about by globalization, local communities cannot live in isolation; they are an important part of tourism (REST, 2010: 10).

Tourism can have both a positive and a negative influence. These effects are most apparent at the level of the destination community. As a result, researchers have emphasized the need to decentralize tourism development and integrate it into overall community-defined development goals (Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 1994 cited in Timothy, 2002). The community approach to tourism has been heralded as a way of empowering communities and affording them opportunities to break free from the destructive influences of mass tourism (Timothy, 2002).

Recent years have seen much debate over the concept of sustainable tourism, which has led scholars and environmental advocacy groups to demand methods of development, planning and consumption that promote the enduring veracity and quality of cultural and natural resources (Mowforth & Munt, 1998 cited in Timothy, 2002). CBT is a more sustainable form of development than conventional mass tourism as it allows host communities to break away from the hegemonic grasp of tour operators and the oligopoly of wealthy elites at national level (Timothy, 2002). CBT is about grassroots empowerment as it seeks to develop the industry in harmony with the needs and aspirations of host communities in an acceptable way and which sustains their economies (Fitton, 1996).

Related to the increased sense of environmental and social responsibility in tourism plus sustainability, CBT is also gaining popularity as an integral part of strategies for conservation and development (The Mountain Institute, 2000). Niche markets and tourism trends such as eco-tourism, heritage tourism, sustainable tourism, community-based tourism and pro-poor tourism approaches; have been developed in response to the need to reduce negative impacts on the environment and to try to extract benefits from the industry for the marginal sectors of society (Cooper, 2004).

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As an alternative to mainstream tourism, CBT ventures have such appeal that they are rarely subjected to critical review. There are very few studies on the actual contribution of CBT to either conservation or community livelihood. However, despite very little demonstrable benefit, the idea remain attractive, largely because little effort has been made to record, measure or report the benefits accruing to conservation or local communities (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009: 10). CBT is a development tool which when used properly, can minimize the negative impacts of tourism while generating income, diversifying the economy, preserving culture, conserving the environment and providing educational opportunities.

While using tourism to promote community development sounds like a wonderful concept in principle, in practice it is fraught with challenges (Scheyvens, 2002). One of the challenges relates to the heterogeneous nature of the communities. Often communities are split into various factions based on a complex interplay of class, gender and ethnic factors, and certain families or individuals are likely to lay claim to privileges because of their apparent status. In such circumstances, it is unlikely that community members will have equitable access to involvement in tourism development and the benefits this may bring. Elites often dominate community-based development efforts and monopolize the benefits of tourism. Scheyvens (2002) further identifies another challenge with identifying tourism as a strategy for community development in that communities typically lack information, resources and power in relation to other stakeholders in the tourism process, thus they are vulnerable to exploitation. When finance is not available locally, there is generally a loss of control to outside interests (Scheyvens, 2002). Contrary to the goals of CBT which are commendable and worthwhile to pursue, Timothy (2002) states that barriers to the implementation of CBT can relate to socio-political traditions, gender and ethnicity, accessibility of information, lack of awareness, economic issues, and lack of cooperation and partnerships among others. There is insufficient rigor in the use of the concept of CBT and the concept is used very flexibly (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). As Cooper (2004: 1), states "experience shows that tourism's contribution to community and rural development and local industry has not been fully realized".

Ndlovu and Rogerson (2004) highlight a number of factors that may potentially effect on the success of any CBT venture in the developing world. Some of these outcomes could potentially relate to:

.   the level of demand for the tourist assets of the community;
.   traditional concentrated structures of authority;
.   the marginalization of women and minorities in community decision-making;
.   issues of access to information;
.   awareness and tourism expertise; and
.   the absence of much-needed partnerships or cooperative arrangements necessary to ensure the success of CBT projects.

It should, however, be remembered that, when the main driving force behind the involvement of communities into community-based tourism is business, it often alienates rather than benefits the local community (Mearns, 2003). Therefore, CBT should not be seen as an end in itself, but as a means towards empowering poor communities to take control over their land and resources, to tap their potential and to acquire the skills necessary for their own development (Mearns, 2003).

"In 2006 Goodwin asked whether community-based tourism was failing to deliver" (Goodwin & Santilli 2009:10). Some concerns about the viability of CBT enterprises were raised within the international donor and research community asking whether the significant amount of grant money provided by the donors and non-government organizations (NGOs) to these CBT enterprises was justifiable based on the limited benefits to the community and the environment (Goodwin & Santilli 2009). It was said that the CBT enterprise model had failed (Jones, 2008). Mitchell and Reid (2001) state that communities, particularly rural ones, are often on the front line in service provision but last to receive benefits from their effort. While scholars, entrepreneurs and practitioners are beginning to understand the need for placing greater emphasis on community empowerment in tourism planning and implementation, little work has been done on the details of development and the execution of CBT (Mitchell & Reid, 2001). Whilst many CBT projects have been funded in developing countries, such as Swaziland, their success has not been widely monitored. Therefore, the actual benefits to local communities remain largely un-quantified (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). While CBT goals are commendable and worthwhile to pursue, and their contributions to sustainable development are obvious, many barriers to their operationalization exist. This is particularly evident in the less developed world (Timothy, 2002). CBT has demonstrated the potential to generate significant returns on its conservation, socio-economic and business objectives as ventures have spread and evolved. However, major challenges have emerged relating mainly to the governance of these enterprises (Nelson, 2008). It has been contentiously suggested, however, that mounting empirical evidence indicates that most CBT projects have not contributed to local poverty reduction or delivered sufficient incentives for conservation (Goodwin 2006 cited by Dixey 2008: 324). Publications that are more recent have raised major concerns about the ineffectiveness, potential un-sustainability or failure of CBT enterprises and the lack of accountability with regard to responsibility and performance (Dixey, 2008: 324). Whilst some CBT tourism schemes have been widely adopted, many under the guise of ecotourism, their success or otherwise are something which has not been greatly researched (Goodwin & Santilli 2009: 9). In recent years, academic studies of tourism and development have been enriched by a much more specific focus on the benefits that tourism might bring to the poor (Hall, 2007). In Swaziland, some CBT projects have been successfully initiated but are faced with various challenges at operational level - some struggling to sustain income levels while others have been forced to cease operations altogether. This study investigated the operational challenges of selected CBT ventures in Swaziland.

Study area

Swaziland is a country in the southern region of Africa, and is bordered by the Republic of South Africa on the north, west and south, and Mozambique on the east. It is a small, landlocked kingdom of about 1.1 million people (World Bank, 2011) and, within its 17364 square kilometers, there is considerable geographic and climatic diversity (Harrison, 1995). It is described as a tiny country with a big heart and warm, friendly people, a country that embraces and holds fast to its unique and ancient traditions. These are carefully guarded and faithfully celebrated and comprise just one aspect of the kingdom that makes it a very special place to visit. With its peaceful, friendly and warm-hearted people, visitors are ensured of a warm welcome that will make them enjoy a memorable experience (Forsyth-Thompson 2012). Apart from its friendly people, Swaziland has many nature reserves that protect a vast variety of flora, fauna and birds. Nature reserves include Phophonyane Nature Reserve near Piggs Peak, Malolotja Nature Reserve (which

is the largest in the country), Mlilwane Wildlife Sanctuary (the oldest nature reserve in the country) and Mantenga Nature Reserve, which are all in the Hhohho region. In the Lubombo region, there are Hlane Royal National Park, Mkhaya Game Reserve, Mbuluzi and Mlawula Nature Reserves and Nisela Safaris. The kingdom offers a diverse array of accommodation. It offers bush camps, traditional huts and luxury lodges in the nature reserves, homely bed and breakfast facilities and guesthouses in the towns and villages. There are also luxurious hotels such as the Royal Swazi Sun and Royal Villas in the Ezulwini Valley. As a tourist-receiving region, southern Africa is relatively undeveloped and relatively unknown and Swaziland barely appears in the literature on tourism development. Harrison (1995) states that prospects for any significant future expansion of tourism in Swaziland will be largely contingent on development in South Africa.

Tourism in Swaziland

Tourism in Swaziland has been identified as a national priority for employment creation, poverty alleviation and income generation for the country. The Swaziland government has shown the importance of tourism by the establishment of the Swaziland Tourism Authority (STA) which aims at stimulating and expanding the tourism industry through various programs (Swaziland Review, 2011).

The Swaziland government has identified tourism as a national priority. As a national priority the Swaziland Government allocated in its 2010 budget R14.7 million to the Swaziland Tourism Authority (STA) over the next three years to market the country as a preferred tourist destination in order to increase the number of tourists and lengthening their stay in the country (Central Bank of Swaziland, 2010). According to Forsyth-Thompson (2011) Swaziland has tended to be an overnight destination in the past but during recent years stays have increased to two or three nights with 57% staying for at least one night. The country is a popular place for weekend getaways and has excellent conference venues but relies on South African visitors and it relies on "spill over" by overseas visitors to the region, as the country is too small to stand alone as an international destination. Although the global credit crunch and economic slowdown reduced disposable incomes, the tourism industry showed improvements in 2009. The country has also started to reap the benefits from the vigorous marketing drives by the STA and the private sector (Central Bank of Swaziland, 2010).

The development of community-based tourism during recent years has created employment in rural areas, where people previously relied solely on agriculture for their incomes. The developing sector of community-based tourism also enables visitors to acquire first-hand experience of Swazi life.

Community-based tourism in Swaziland

The Kingdom of Swaziland, under the auspices of the Swaziland Tourism Authority, a parastatal body of the government of Swaziland is in the process of establishing tourism developments in order to promote biodiversity conservation and resource use for the benefit of local communities. This has stimulated local communities to establish tourism development projects in various areas to benefit the communities and promote conservation. While the Kingdom of

Swaziland offers diverse and sophisticated tourism facilities, the visitor will experience the true soul of the country and her people by visiting the community-run tourist attractions, where the residents of these areas will open their hearts and homes to share their heritage with visitors. It is at these developments, which are supported by the Swaziland Tourism Authority that the visitor will get to know the real Swaziland while supporting and encouraging the people who operate the various projects (Forsyth-Thompson, 2012).

The STA has made significant contributions to the development of community-based tourism, enabling rural communities to develop tourist attractions on national land. This is undertaken in a manner that avoids any negative environmental impact (Forsyth-Thomson, 2011). Many national aid agencies, for instance, have devoted resources to community-based tourism (Hall, 2007). There are eight projects under this scheme, namely Shewula Mountain Camp, Ngwempisi Hiking Trails, Khelekhele Horse Trails, Mahamba Gorge Lodge, Maguga Dam Panorama, Nsangwini Rock Art, Sibebe Hiking Trails and Lonhlupheko Craft Market (Forsyth-Thompson, 2011). Figure 1 shows the location of the eight CBT ventures.
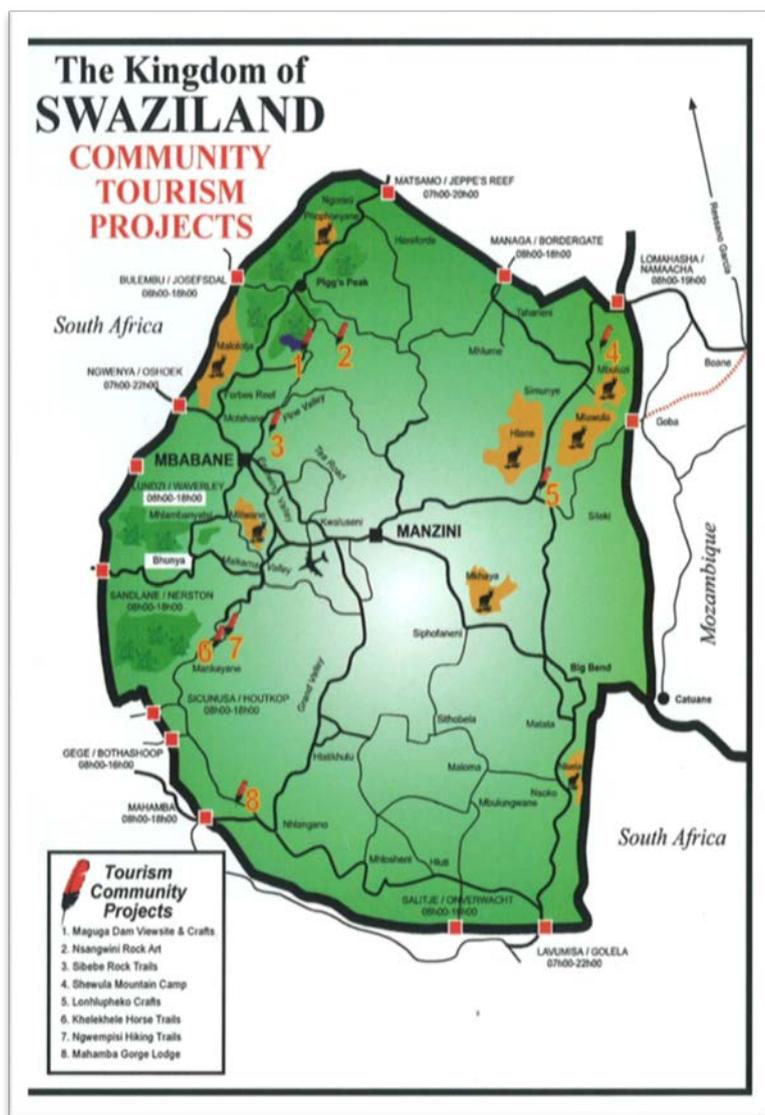

Figure 1: CBT map of Swaziland (Forsyth-Thompson, 2012).

Methodology

This study used the mixed methods research design where data was collected through in-depth interviews, focus group interviews and participant observations for the qualitative research, and visitor questionnaires for the quantitative research.

As the purposive sampling method was used in the study, the researcher identified individuals who were involved with CBT in Swaziland. Preference was given to key informants who, because of their position and/or experience, had accurate knowledge and information. In this study, the researchers purposefully selected four tourism experts for interviews. These were STA's product development officer and STA's marketing manager, Swazi Trails' director and Myxo's Woza Nawe Cultural Tours director. However, Swazi Trails' director was not available for an interview. A recommendation was made to include All Out Africa's director as tourism expert, as he was available for an interview. A discussion with STA's product development officer helped the researchers identify four CBT ventures that were used as case studies. The four CBT ventures were Shewula Mountain Camp, Ngwempisi Hiking Trails, Khelekhele Horse Trails and Mahamba Gorge Lodge. In each of these CBT ventures, focus group interviews, questionnaires and personal observations were employed as data collection tools. Data was collected between May 2012 and September 2012.

Operational challenges community-based tourism

Each of the operational challenges identified are discussed in detail in the sections that follow.

Lack of CBT policy

The findings of the research showed that Swaziland started CBT without a ready government CBT policy. In order to maximize the benefits and minimize the disadvantages of tourism's power to transform resources and host communities, it is necessary to formulate clear planning and management policies, and government is the logical source for such planning (Murphy, 1985). From the onset, there was no clear vision on how CBT ventures were to be developed and sustained. Even with the current scenario whereby CBT structures are deteriorating, there is still no clear direction from government as to what will be done to revive the situation. Most CBT ventures in Swaziland started without the necessary preparedness in terms of policy formulation to give them direction into the future. The current situation for some ventures such as Khelekhele Horse Trails is that no one is taking the responsibility to commit to rejuvenating this venture. The community is looking upon government to take action, and government expects the community to own up and take responsibility. This then leaves the future of this venture in limbo.

Unrealistic donor funding time frames

Without a CBT policy in place, donors unfortunately came in with tight and unrealistic time frames to set up some of these CBT ventures. A lot of training and capacity building within communities are needed when setting up CBT ventures, and this was not done. Setting up three to five CBT ventures within a period of two years to meet donor-stipulated that time frames was a recipe for disaster. As Goodwin and Santilli (2009) state that the bulk of the failed CBT projects

were set up using donor funding. Typically, Swaziland has some classical examples of failing CBT projects namely Khelekhele Horse Trails and Ngwempisi Hiking Trails not doing well. Setting up a CBT venture requires a lot of investment in terms of training and capacity building of the communities. The study found that, when the donor funding arrived, there was not much time invested in educating the communities about these projects. The Shewula Mountain Camp, however, had a different time frame set up. There was ample time given for its set up as a period of up to two years was spent studying the camp's viability and training the community of Shewula. All the background checks and studies were undertaken, and consequently they have managed to sustain income levels and are regarded as a successful CBT venture in Swaziland.

Venture ownership

Most of the CBT ventures in Swaziland do not have anybody who has the initiative to make them work. There is nobody driving these projects, nobody, who takes ownership of the project, nobody who has something to lose if the projects fail and something to gain if they succeed. Communities do not take full ownership, partially because they gave nothing, so there is no incentive to make them work. The concept of collective ownership does not seem to work, especially where the community did not use their own money. When things do not seem to work as per their expectations it is easy for community members to lose interest after all, they have nothing to lose. However, when a venture is successful, everyone claims ownership. These projects are managed and operated by a board of trustees who are elected by the communities and chiefs. During the interviews, it was clear that some board members did not have the inner drive to make these ventures operate well, and they were board members merely because the communities elected them.

Heterogeneous composition, trust, expectations and size of communities

In literature, the heterogeneous nature of communities was highlighted as one challenge of CBT. The study found that the idea of sharing has not been accepted within some communities, probably because they have experienced sharing which has failed in other community development initiatives, so when the CBT concept was introduced, communities were skeptical even before it started. Not only sharing, but also trust among communities is a challenge. There has been mismanagement of funds by other rural development initiatives, so some community members lack trust in their leadership. The lack of trust among communities has seen some community members lack the drive to participate in the operations of the ventures. When there are challenges, communities tend to start pointing fingers resulting in division. This concurs as stated earlier on in literature that whether a community participates or not is determined by a number of factors such as reluctance to participate because the community members do not trust each other (Aref, 2011). The current study also established that communities are impatient by nature, especially when they are not educated on the realistic benefits and time frames of CBT.

The size of the community does affect the performance of CBT venture. For a large community to come together and operate a CBT venture is a huge challenge. It is very difficult for a large number of people to reach consensus when making decisions and to have enough benefits derived. A community under one chief owns the Shewula Mountain Camp. Such a small

community structure is more manageable than when a CBT venture is under more than one chieftaincy. The Shewula Mountain Camp demonstrates that when a community is united through its chief, this eases the challenges, such as mobilizing the community into a meeting that comes with a very large community. The Mahamba Gorge Lodge has four chieftaincies, which make it difficult to mobilize all the communities into one meeting. Each community has a representative in the board of trustees, and if that board member does not report to the community, that particular community is left out. As a result, some members of the community did not even know that they were beneficiaries of Mahamba Gorge Lodge project. A small community also helps members to enjoy truly the benefits of CBT, while a large community has to share the benefits. The initiative or approach of a large community coming together to operate a CBT venture is almost impossible.

Attracting and keeping qualified personnel

Some of the barriers involving communities as stated in literature are a lack of education and business experience. CBT ventures need people who fully understand how to operate a successful tourism venture. Getting qualified people within communities to operate these CBT ventures seems to be a challenge for both the board of trustees and management of the venture. Most of the educated people will leave their rural origins to seek better jobs in the cities, thus leaving these CBT ventures without qualified people. The members of the board of trustees work on a voluntary basis for these CBT ventures, making it very difficult to get and keep qualified people. It is therefore difficult to expect a qualified person to stop doing his or her business and do voluntary work. Most often than not, qualified people are just there to gain experience and then move on. Some employees have been offered training through the STA, but they did not work for long, as these projects do not offer competitive salaries. To aggravate matters, there were some instances where ventures had no money and employees had to go for months without any remuneration.

Management structure

The management structure of CBT ventures showed some weaknesses. In terms of day-to-day operations of the ventures, there are the staff members who report to the board of trustees. There is however, no clear indication as to whom the board of trustees reports to. Trustees are meant to report to the community, but there is a lack of communication between the board of trustees and the communities. If the board of trustees does not give feedback to the community, the community in turn does not follow-up on the operations of the venture. This loophole has been exposed, as there have been reports of mismanagement of funds by some members of the board of trustees, with some community members not knowing this. Some communities have not had any feedback from their representatives on issues pertaining to their ventures. This management structure creates the gap for corruption to take place and members of the board of trustees to mismanage CBT venture's funds.

Venture site and location

The location of a CBT venture plays a huge role in its success. Constructing a CBT venture in a remote rural area without the support of other attractions nearby is doomed to fail. The

Mahamba Gorge Lodge, Khelekhele Horse Riding and Ngwempisi Hiking Trails do not have the support that the Shewula Mountain Camp is getting from the nearby Hlane, Mbuluzi and Mlawula Game Reserves. Tourists visiting this latter part of the country will get the wildlife experience from these game reserves, and then drive up to the Shewula Mountain Camp for their cultural experience. The location and site of the Shewula Mountain Camp make a significant contribution to the success of the Shewula Mountain

Camp demonstrating the importance of developing a CBT venture in close proximity to other tourist attractions

Partnerships and collaborations

Partnerships with other tourism stakeholders are key to the success of CBT. Stakeholders such as tour operators make a significant contribution by including CBT ventures in their tour packages. From its conception, the Shewula Mountain Camp has received the support of tour operators such as Swazi Trails who assisted in bringing guests to the camp. Moreover, tour operators help the camp by marketing and by receiving payments on behalf of the camp. This collaboration has assisted the Shewula Mountain Camp to sustain income levels. The same can however not be said with Mahamba Gorge Lodge, Ngwempisi Hiking Trails and Khelekhele Horse Trails. Marketing of these three ventures has been a challenge. They do not do their marketing themselves, but rely on the STA to promote their products. However, CBT ventures need tour operators who have already established customers to include CBT ventures in their packages. Including CBT ventures is how the Shewula Mountain Camp has managed to pull through over these years until they managed to establish their own marketing tools.

Quality of the product

Some CBT challenges are related to the level of demand for the tourist assets of the community. The challenge with CBT ventures in countries like Swaziland is the type of product around which the CBT venture is founded. Tourism is demand-driven, and most of the successful CBT ventures are based on wildlife. The communities in close proximity to game parks are therefore the people who benefit most because they also develop accommodation next to the park, which enables them to benefit from the flow of tourists that visit the park. The challenge in Swaziland is that there is a lack of plentiful wildlife, which CBT ventures could use as a draw card. Some of the products are not necessarily very attractive and do not appeal to the niche market. For instance, the elderly cannot go hiking, which is the main product for some of these CBT ventures in Swaziland. No matter how much effort is put into promoting these products, as long as they do not satisfy the expectations of the tourists, the CBT ventures will continue to find it difficult to bring tourist to the ventures.

Access to resources

Most of these CBT ventures do not get the necessary support of financial resources; thus, they struggle to sustain income levels. Donor funding lasted until the construction stage, neglecting the operational costs. No amount of investment was done to market these ventures. To date, the Mahamba Gorge Lodge, Khelekhele Horse Trails and Ngwempisi Hiking Trails still rely on the STA

for their marketing. The communities were given these ventures without any operational resources to kick start business. Without financial backup, it is a challenge to promote their product, resulting in a low number of guests.

As Simpson (2008) states, the involvement of the community may not only prove difficult but may also cause problems in achieving the goal of benefit delivery, aggravating and creating internal conflicts and jealousy, and creating unrealistic expectations. CBT ventures do not bring instant benefits; returns take a while before they materialize. Without the proper planning that was required before the start of some CBT ventures in Swaziland, communities saw CBT as a means for poverty alleviation. However, without instant benefits, communities lost enthusiasm. As a result, some then started vandalizing and stealing some of the property at the ventures. With CBT ventures in competition with other rural development initiatives, some, which bring instant benefits, communities then tend to lack interest in CBT.

Because of some of these operational challenges, these ventures find it difficult to maintain the roads in good condition. The road conditions among the four visited ventures were poor. No clear party takes responsibility to keep the roads in good condition. The communities expect government to assist in maintaining the roads, while government claims these roads close to the projects do not fall under their maintenance. With the current situation where the government of Swaziland is facing financial challenges, the challenge of keeping these roads in good condition will continue. In addition, all four ventures lack good signage and they lack responsibility on the side of these initiatives. The signs were erected when the ventures first stated, but were brought down since and no one is taking responsibility to maintain them. Probably some members of the community do not appreciate their importance.

Access of information

The private sector plays a substantial role in accessing information. Shewula Mountain Camp and Ngwempisi Hiking Trails are classic examples as most respondents stated that they have to know about these ventures through tour operators such as All Out Africa. Not only do tour operators give information; the study showed that they also take care of the reservation process; thus preventing visitors experiencing reservation challenges. Mahamba Gorge Lodge, on the other hand, reported that the respondents came to know about the lodge through a friend. As a result, most visitors to Mahamba Gorge Lodge did not make prior reservations but made reservations on arrival.

Reservation systems

Visitors to the Shewula Mountain Camp made use of all the means available to make a reservation, namely email, telephonic, walk-in and tour operators. Ngwempisi Hiking Trails had three means of making a reservation; tour operators, walk-in and telephonic. None of the respondents made their reservation via email. Respondents to the Mahamba Gorge Lodge used only two means of making a reservation; telephonic and walk-in. There is no website link to the lodge to make reservations directly via email. With 83% not making prior arrangements for their arrival, this could prove a challenge as it could result in overcrowding, especially during peak seasons.

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Accessibility

When these CBT ventures were constructed, they erected good signposts. However maintaining the signposts in good condition or even having them stand for long is a challenge. The writing on some has faded due to climatic conditions. Children have brought some down, while livestock, such as cattle scratching themselves, have damaged others. Notably though, all four ventures had signage from the main (tarred) road. It is only on the gravel roads where the signs start to disappear or fade as one drives further into the communities. The majority of respondents to Shewula Mountain Camp stated that they did not have difficulty getting to the camp. This is a result of the upgrading of the signage, with new signs erected. However prior to the update, visitors mentioned that signage was indeed a problem more, especially at night. The study found that Mahamba Gorge Lodge also had a fairly good signage to the lodge at the time of writing. At Ngwempisi Hiking Trails, the majority of respondents rated the signage as poor. They further stated that were it not for the guides from All Out Africa, they would have had difficulty getting to the site. The researchers also had difficulty using the signs leading to the Khelekhele Horse Trails. When the researchers visited the site the last sign was on the main road and from the gravel road, there was no other signpost.

Most of these CBT ventures are located in remote rural areas and some of the road conditions leading to the ventures are not good. During the rainy season, road conditions make it practically impossible to access these CBT ventures. In good weather, the Shewula Mountain Camp and Mahamba Gorge Lodge can be accessed using a small car. The road to Mahamba Gorge Lodge is in good road condition and the majority of the respondents rated it as average while an equal number of visitors to Shewula Mountain Camp rated the road as poor to average. However, access to Ngwempisi Hiking Trails and Khelekhekle Horse Trails is difficult regardless of weather conditions. As a result, the researcher could not drive to these two ventures and had to leave the car at nearby homesteads, and walk to the ventures.

Visitor experience

Shewula Mountain Camp offers a great experience. The respondents reported that from the moment they arrived, they received warm hospitality, as the staff members were friendly. All respondents felt safe and they described the interaction with the locals as 'awesome'. However, respondents encountered a few problems, which the camp needs to address, such as the challenge on long and tiring walks around the Shewula community. There were some challenges to visitors at Ngwempisi Hiking Trails, mainly regarding the kitchen facility at Khopho Hut. Respondents experienced varying challenges such as no functional cold-water tap and few kitchen utensils to for cater large groups, among others. One concerning factor at Ngwempisi Hiking Trails was the issue of safety. Respondents complained that the shaky structure did not afford them peaceful sleep. Visitors to Mahamba Gorge Lodge indicated that they had a great experience. The hospitality was good and the respondents felt safe. However, visitors who spent nights at the venture experienced some problems, such as a leaking gas valve. From the above responses, it was evident that there were common operational challenges among the CBT ventures and some operational challenges that are unique to each venture.

Conclusion

Even though recent developments in tourism are paying more attention to local actors, it is argued that structural causes of uneven and unequal development, will dampen any potential positive impacts related to poverty alleviation in developing countries (Issac & Van der Sterren, 2004). For many countries, such as Swaziland, CBT is a new dimension of tourism and many communities are not familiar with the operations of such projects. Above that, there is insufficient rigor in the use of the concept of CBT (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). There is evidence that the large majority of CBT initiatives enjoy very little success (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). Contrary to the successful CBT projects, some have found it difficult to continue operating. Whilst many projects have been funded in developing countries, their success (or otherwise) has not been widely monitored and, therefore, the actual benefits to local communities remain largely un-quantified.

The big problem for these small-scale and often remote community tourism ventures is marketing, among many others. Too often, it is the case that they are so small and so remote that nobody knows about them. The question remains whether community-based tourism can actually be profitable enough to create sustainable lifestyles, and so support conservation and local economic development.

There is no doubt of the benefits which community-based tourism has on both communities and the conservation of the environment. Much hope has been planted in the hearts of communities that with the CBT ventures being established in their respective communities, life will change for the better. However, it is renowned that CBT worldwide is faced with challenges, especially at operational level, which if not addressed would have CBT look good on paper without achieving its practical ultimate goal. This study found that a lot of work that needs to be done, as many respondents stated that the government of Swaziland should take responsibility in leading the way to uplift the declining CBT ventures. Communities are interested to seeing these ventures benefit them, but have no financial means and expertise to see their dreams come true.

Identifying the challenges was the first step towards finding a possible solution in reviving the declining state of CBT ventures. The operational challenges presented by this study could therefore be used to improve the operations for the current and future CBT ventures. The prospects of CBT in Swaziland are unclear; however, this study concluded that CBT could be a success in Swaziland through a collective effort from all stakeholders concerned.

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The social enterprise as a vehicle to poverty alleviation: business models and earning strategies

Sebastian Ferrari & Dagmar Lund-Durlacher

*MODUL University Vienna, Austria,*1111532@modul.ac.at
MODUL University Vienna, Department of Tourism and Service Management, Austria,
dagmar.lund-durlacher@modul.ac.at

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Introduction

Over the last decades, social enterprises have increasingly gained importance in the travel and tourism industry and they are revolutionizing the way business is done. Instead of maximizing profits for external shareholders, a social enterprise is an organization that applies commercial strategies to address society's most pressing needs; thus creating sustainable solutions, that empower the underprivileged to independently lift themselves out of poverty. Social enterprises can be structured as a for-profit or non-profit, and may take different forms between these two poles (Ridley-Duff, R. J. and Bull, M., 2011).

Professionals and researchers agree insofar as they argue that non-profit organizations are not self-sufficient due to the fact that they depend largely on donations. On the other hand, having the opportunity of reinvesting their own income, for-profit enterprises are not confronted with this problem. However, some businesses are to be found in neither end of the spectrum. These hybrid models combine elements from both forms (Elkington and Hartigan, 2008).

The purpose of this paper is to explore different business models of social enterprises operating in the travel and tourism industry. The focus is on what motivates social entrepreneurs, which social needs are addressed, what are the approaches taken to improve them and what are the social enterprises' income generating strategies to ensure their self-sufficiency.

Literature Review

Social enterprises tend to operate at the base of the population pyramid, which refers to people earning less than $3000 per year. This part of the world's population consists of four billion people, who altogether form a consumer market worth $5 trillion. Its distinguishing characteristics are poverty, the inability to satisfy basic needs and restricted economic opportunities. Social entrepreneurs adopt market-based approaches to solve the world's most pressing needs by enhancing the market's competitiveness (Hammond et al., 2007). The identification of sustainable ways to deal with social issues is also referred to as "Mindset 3.0". This concept suggests that social entrepreneurs explore new business models, investigate the notion of value, place special emphasis on the value chain's transparency and tend to involve end users in the creation of goods and services (SustainAbility and The Skoll Foundation, 2007).

Social enterprises are a substantially distinct business branch, which extends across various sectors of the economy. Elkington and Hartigan (2008) identified three main corporate business structures.

The **leveraged non-profit** venture provides poverty-stricken people with access to reasonably priced goods and services. The goal does not only foster change, but also empowers the underprivileged. Although this type of business tends to engage in various partnerships, the excessive reliance on external financial support is disregarded. In fact, this represents an obstacle to the organization's expansion due to the fact that there are few donators in proportion to the non-profit institutions.

The **hybrid non-profit** venture also deals with disadvantaged people neglected by the established economic system, but profits are managed in a different way. Indeed, the organization is legitimized to sell products so to partially recuperate its expenses. This represents a combination of non-profit organization and income generating strategies.

The **social business** venture is established with the purpose of bringing about change. The financial gains are put back into the organization in order to encourage growth and increase outreach. This business model differs to a great extent from the previously mentioned ones. Indeed, finding equilibrium between the economic viability and the social objectives is believed to be the social entrepreneur's toughest challenge (Elkington and Hartigan, 2008).

It is also important to briefly acknowledge the academic research focusing on tourism, because this sector lends itself to social entrepreneurship. Von der Weppen and Cochrane (2012) carried out a representative study about social business models in the tourism branch. It is ascertained that the **Service Subsidization Model** is the prevalently adopted corporate structure. It clearly separates the business practices from its social mission, but the financial earnings support the company's social programs. It is further shown that lodging establishments tend to combine it with the **Employment Model**, which provides employment opportunities or job training to individuals with limited access to the job market. Travel agents show a clear preference for the **Market Intermediary Model**, which helps small-scale manufacturers to access the market insofar as they trade their products and services at a small margin. Considering the essential success factors of social enterprises in the tourism industry, von der Weppen and Cochrane (2012) identified that the strongest business models incorporate internal earnings coming from operations as well as external financial resources. Such a dual anatomy enables the social enterprise to rely on different sources of income and therefore facilitates the pursuit of their mission. However, these two distinct facets need to be attentively considered and continuously balanced in order to ensure the firm's success (von der Weppen and Cochrane, 2012).

Methodology

For the present study, a qualitative research approach applying case study analyses was chosen. Expert interviews were conducted via Skype and were recorded through MP3 Skype Recorder with the consent of the other party. The conversation mainly revolved around the organization's business model and its income generating strategy, but also briefly touches upon other subtopics

such as social impact assessment and performance measurement.

Considering the sampling methodology, organizations were chosen by judgment sampling which relies on the researcher's personal opinion to choose the most suitable respondents for the study (Hair, 2008). Since this technique is highly subjective, results must be interpreted with due care. Even though cases from all over the globe based on expert advice were selected (Figure 1), the limited sample size restricts its generalization. Consisting of only five businesses, the conclusions should be regarded rather as insights into the business models and income generating strategies of social tourism enterprises.

Figure 1: Sample Distribution(Traveltip.org, 2014)

The sample consists of the following businesses:

TravelGiver is an online booking agent for responsible travelers enabling them to *"donate up to eight per cent of their booking to community projects worldwide at no extra cost"*(TravelGiver.com, 2015). TravelGiver website users are referred to one of the well-known booking platforms such as booking.com or Expedia to book their holiday there and in return TravelGiver receives a commission which automatically goes to the selected ethical grass roots initiatives. (TravelGiver.com, 2013)

Tribewanted supports the development of local communities. Acknowledging the role tourism plays in their growth, this business creates off-grid escapes for tourists. Partnering with local communities in Sierra Leone, Italy and Bali, this company not only provides people with the opportunity to spend memorable holidays, but also gives them the chance of contributing to the regions' sustainable development through tribe membership (Tribewanted.com, n.d.).

Lalaland is a social business that offers families a "tender, playful and caring" environment. It consists of a Café and a Bed & Breakfast. The former predominantly welcomes mothers with very young children. It cooperates with local sustainable suppliers and place value on fresh ingredients for their creatively designed menu (Lalaland-wiesbaden.de, n.d.).

PEPY Tours is a tour operator that offers *r*esponsible travel experiences and experiential learning opportunities in Cambodia and Nepal while raising money to support local community development. The sister organization, the PEPY empowering youth NGOruns youth leadership and educational programs in rural areas in Cambodia with the purpose of improving education in

Cambodia and is partly financed by PEPY Tours. (Pepytours.com, 2013).

Sumak Travel is a tour operator, which cooperates directly with local Latin-American incoming agencies. Being an ethical enterprise, it offers judicious voyagers genuine adventures and thereby empowers this continent's communities. It is a for-profit business, but return maximization is not its primary goal. On the contrary, the company puts half of its financial gains back into own growth and the other half into local projects (Sumak-travel.org, n.d.).

Findings

The respondents had a clear understanding and definition of a "social enterprise". Their definitions are in line with the definition of the social business venture proposed by Elkington and Hartigan (2008). This organizational structure tends to be preferred due to its potential reinvestment of corporate profits and its affinity with the traditional economic system. Two statements of respondents underline this argument:

> "Social business is a sustainable business model that is not necessarily not-for-profit. It needs to be profitable to keep growing, to be responsible, sustainable and invest in the future" (TravelGiver, 2014).

> "For me it is a private company, which has the primary goal to generate positive impact. [...]To keep it simple: a private company, for- profit, but the primary goal is to generate positive impact" (Sumak Travel, 2014).

The motivation to become active in the field of social entrepreneurship in tourism is partly in line with certain distinguishing features of social entrepreneurs put forward by Elkington and Hartigan (2008) and Dees (1998). These are the desire to resolve a social problem and generate social value. Whereby the social problem was often recognized or experienced by the entrepreneur while working in tourism businesses, to drive social change through the offer of tourism products and services, the pursuit of personal interests and self-realization and the recognition of a 'golden' opportunity in life and the spontaneous reaction to take on the opportunity.

When addressing social needs, social enterprises in tourism seem to take rather a market-based and sustainable long-term approach (Hammond et al. 2007). They emphasize on the empowerment of the underprivileged individuals and local communities rather than on donations and put the underprivileged in an active role.

"We think that donations are counterproductive and the best we can do is through business: empower local communities. [....] The local communities our company works with are tired of the patronizing approach of receiving money for free and this is why we want to create initiatives that solve their problems in the long term - lasting solutions (Sumak Travel, 2014).

Social entrepreneurs in tourism also take a leading role in creating awareness and knowledge building among their travelers. Often socially motivated people do not understand the complexity of social issues and companies use their position to introduce awareness and

educational programs for their travelers.

> "We work with young people ('the leaders of tomorrow'), encouraging them to ask questions, think critically, contemplate complex issues, and examine their role as a global citizen" (PEPY Tours, 2014).

Social entrepreneurs in tourism also encourage their travelers to "Do Good" not only through the consumption of goods and services but also in taking an active role in resolving the social problem. They focus on a well-defined target audience, which is concerned about society's overall well-being and aware of their impact as buyers. The attitude of the respondents also matches with the features of Mindset 3.0proposed by SustainAbility and The Skoll Foundation (2007).

> "There is a broad range of people visiting and staying with Tribewanted with a big range of motivations. […] They care about how their money is spent and its impact and want to connect with likeminded people" (Tribewanted, 2014).

The activities of social entrepreneurs predominantly revolve around offering the end users an easy way to act responsibly by bridging the gap between intention and action.

> "Basically giving while you travel without paying more - that is what it all comes down to. […] There is a massive gap between intention and action; I want to bridge intention and encourage people to do something and actually act on it" (TravelGiver, 2014).

The analyzed cases combine both internal and external sources of income in order to rely on various revenue streams. Referring to the success factors suggested by von der Weppen and Cochrane (2012), this strategy facilitates the alignment of the enterprise's social and financial objectives. A representative example is the PEPY Family, which combines a for-profit company and a non-profit organization: the PEPY NGO carrying out youth programs in Cambodia and PEPY Tours contributing to its financial viability. "*Money from PEPY Tours supports around 20% of the PEPY NGO's annual budget and makes a big difference to the programs on the ground*" (PEPY, 2014).Tribewanted also consists of two entities: a limited company with several shareholders and a community interest company which reinvests its profits.

Although the respondents unanimously recognize the need for performance measurement and impact assessment, their perspectives on social reporting considerably differ from one another. For instance, Tribewanted prefers the audience's emotional involvement to objectively quantified accounts.

> "Ultimately it is necessary to change behavior. Statistics and data play a part, but what drives behavioral changes is emotional engagement and empathy. Between the option of telling a great story or have smart measuring tool, I would go for the story every time" (Tribewanted, 2014).

Discussion

The travel and tourism industry could potentially turn out to be social enterprises' key catalyst. It is a steadily growing sector, which is forecasted to reach 1.8 billion international tourist arrivals by 2030; 57% of these are expected to be in developing countries. Moreover, the tourism branch strongly focuses on sustainability in order to reduce its deleterious effects on tourism destinations (UNWTO, 2014).

Social enterprises revolutionize the way business is done by taking up a market-based approach to address society's most pressing needs. Focusing on sustainability, it endeavors creating long lasting solutions that empower the underprivileged to get independently out of poverty.
The findings are not only in line with the literature review, but also provide valuable insights into the field of social enterprises in the tourism industry.

Social enterprises are operating within the traditional economic system. However, these businesses entirely reinvest their profits into the company and its social projects with the purpose of further responsible and sustainable expansion, and investment in a sustainable future. The most thriving business models incorporate internal earnings as well as external financial resources. In many cases the for-profit tourism business established a separate legal entity in the form of foundations, NGO's or other legal not-for profit entities in order to facilitate the raising of external funds which then are invested in social projects together with the profits of the for-profit business. Often these non-for-profit entities are managed separately. This integrative strategy enables organizations to rely on different sources of income and facilitates their social and financial objectives. Social enterprises in tourism pursue to empower the underprivileged individuals and local communities to enable them to solve their problems independently in the long run. Social entrepreneurs also take a leading role in building awareness and educating their customers, about complex social issues as well as they involve customers through the consumption of goods and services and active engagement into their social activities and offer them an easy way to act responsibly by bridging the gap between intention and action. Ultimately, this should induce behavioral change.

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Perceptions of the business community on the sustainability of second homes

Anita Zehrer

*MCI Management Center Innsbruck, Austria,*anita.zehrer@mci.edu

Key words: sustainable development, perception analysis, second homes

Abstract

The holiday property market has seen a genuine boom in the last years with second homes being an integral part of today's tourism and an important pillar in the accommodation sector. Today second homes are seen as an enabler for destination development and repositioning, yet also show serious concerns with regard to the consequences they might have in terms of sustainability. Therefore, literature is often discussing if second homes are curse or blessing for tourism destinations. The paper reports a case study on the socio-economic and environmental impacts of second homes in the destination of Kitzbühel, Austria. The author made use of a standardized online questionnaire and found out that second homes in general are estimated to obtain the least important impact on Kitzbühel, while sustainable development is regarded to be of utmost importance. Results show how service providers of Kitzbühel cope with the growing challenge of second home properties within their destination.

Introduction

Second homes are not an issue of the past – they are an important element of contemporary lifestyles, mobility and tourism. Since the 1990s the growing interest in second home tourism has been prevalent across social sciences(Müller & Hall, 2004) and the demand for second homes has increased significantly since the 1990s (Buller & Hoggert, 1993; Kaltenborn, 1998; Müller, 2000). Second homes are an expression of elitism, exclusion and a more authentic holiday experience. Although second homes are seen as an enabler for destination development and repositioning, this issue also shows serious concerns of sustainability and the arising question therefore is if second homes are curse or blessing for tourism destinations. On the one hand, second homes are regarded as a curse as they bring economic benefits to the destination; on the other hand, they are seen as a blessing for residents and service providers of the holiday destination both in terms of their impacts on the society and the environment. The contribution of this paper is to find out if second homes in an Alpine destination context are regarded as positive or negative considering socio-economic and environmental aspects.

Literature Review

Second homes are a phenomenon of contemporary tourism and largely contribute to regional economies. There is a great variety of definitions for second homes, such as vacation homes, holiday properties, summer houses, cottages, recreational homes or weekend houses (Hall & Müller, 2004; Bieger, Beritelli & Weinert, 2007). The origin of the term 'second home' dates back to ancient societies referring to the house on the countryside(Coppock, 1977). Mainly, second homes have become popular destinations for seasonal retirement migration (Williams, King,

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Warnes, & Patterson, 2000).

Constitutive criteria for *sustainable development* can be conceptualized by the three dimensions of environmental, economic and socio-political sustainability(Baumgartner, 2005). While environmental or ecological sustainability refers to the aim of contributing to sustainable ecologic development by protecting and renewing the biosphere, economic sustainability refers to the economic growth of a country by acknowledging the importance of natural resources. Socio-political or human sustainability refers to building human capabilities and skills for sustainable performance and for community and societal well-being. Above other actors, facilities and issues, second home properties do have impacts on the environmental amenity of a destination, as they are often purpose built and not integrated into the overall picture of the destination planning; the economic development of a destination by providing temporary or permanent employment, or by additional spending in local shops or facilities; and the local residents due to the 'absentee' ownership or temporary use of the majority of second holiday homes.

More recently, concepts and approaches emerge regarding a sustainable development in tourism, e.g. benchmarking of sustainable tourism (Baumgartner, 2005)or CSR reporting in tourism(KATE, 2008). Furthermore, some works also focus on local or regional case studies on sustainable development of second homes, e.g. second home tourism and sustainable development in North European peripheries (Müller, 2000; Müller, Hall, & Keen, 2006). By comparing relevant literature regarding second homes, discrepancies between different regions become evident. Second home tourism is an opportunity especially for regions with few experiences in tourism, e.g. Norway (Flognfeldt, 2003). However, the opposed situation appears in regions with long experiences in tourism and high tourism dependency, e.g. Switzerland (Stettler, 2007). While in the first situation second home tourism is generally accepted as a form of profitable tourism, it is rather considered as a threat for the well-established local tourism industry. Yet, the perception of second homes appears to shift according to different stages of tourism development.

Methodology

The research methodology was chosen to achieve a multi-faceted description of relation-ships, due to the exploratory facet associated with the subject, to reveal relevant and updated information for practitioners. In order to gather relevant input, all service providers which are registered members of the Kitzbühel tourist board (n=100) were analyzed. The gathering of data was done via the local tourism association (KitzbühelTourismus). The service providers registered as members of the Kitzbühel tourist board were contacted via a standardized online questionnaire. The survey design is based on the study carried out by Hall & Keen in New Zealand in 2001 (Müller et al., 2006). Although it was impossible to include all items used in New Zealand, the majority are comparable. The survey contains two overall items regarding the importance of second homes and sustainable development and then splits sustainable development into the three sustainability dimensions derived from by Hall and Müller (2004). Each of these three dimensions is interrogated in more detail by five positively and five negatively associated items. The last part of the questionnaire focuses on socio-demographic data, such as nationality, resident status, tourism dependency or personal relation to local second homeowners.

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Out of the 100 service providers who received the questionnaire, 74 took part and 61 fully completed the survey, resulting in a response rate of 61%.Besides social demographic data, the survey uses twofold-stratified overall-items to test the perceived importance of second homes. Table 1 indicates the arithmetic means (explicit importance) and respective standard deviation of the four overall-items (OA) and the corresponding items regarding the positive (POS) and negative (NEG) consequences of second homes. The scale ranges from (1) not important at all (3) neutral to (5) very important. The table presents self-stated importance specified by the service provider; implicit importance represents each item's Pearson correlation with the overall-item of second homes (implicit importance overall) and the respective sustainable development aspect's overall evaluation (implicit importance category), followed by the according value and significance (value/sig.).

Key Findings

The findings show that second homes in general are perceived as slightly important (3.57) for the region, while their impact is evaluated as more important on economic (4.11), social (3.84) and ecological aspects (3.67). All positive items are recognized as less important than negative ones (mean of all positive vs. negative items: 2.78 vs. 3.94). Hence, all positive items obtain positive correlations with the overall evaluation of second homes and almost all negative ones have negative correlations. The only exception is A6 "increase in crime rate", showing a positive implicit importance (+0.12). Furthermore, there are few items with particularly interesting results. Most important impacts of second homes have the items C6 "increase in property prices and rents" (4.95) and A9 "insufficient housing stock" (4.84), which are thematically related closely to each other. While all positive items of the categories social and ecological aspects do have less important impact (≤2.90, mean: 2.34), all positive items regarding economic aspects have more important impact (≥3.28, mean: 3.66), indicating the importance of the economic value of second homes.

Moreover, comparing the arithmetic means of the 10 items with each category's overall-item proves the very significance of the economic aspects, since it shows the least discrepancy between both (economic aspects: 0.19 vs. social aspects: 0.80 and ecological aspects: 0.56). This goes hand in hand with literature, where it is said that economic sustainability refers to the economic growth of a country by acknowledging the importance of natural and human resources (Baumgartner, 2005).

The Kitzbühel survey allows a comparison with a study carried out by Hall & Keen in New Zealand in 2001 where 58 out of 86 country's councils were interviewed as they were seen to treat all components of housing stock in the same way. While the items regarding positive social aspects do not differ significantly, those referring to negative social aspects do tremendously. While Kitzbühel's service providers evaluate the negative social impact of second homes mainly as important, the New Zealand councils' evaluate it as not important (Kitzbühel mean 1.85 versus New Zealand mean 4.12). The same outcome, although less significant, appears for environmental aspects. The four positive items do not diverge considerably, but the four negative ones do (Kitzbühel mean 1.96 versus New Zealand mean 3.33). However, the positive economic aspects with a mean of 2.33 in Kitzbühel versus 2.75 in New Zealand differ less than the negative economic aspects with mean 1.26 in Kitbühel versus 3.74 in New Zealand, all economic aspects

vary significantly, particularly the negative ones. The findings of this comparison prove the discrepancies mentioned in literature. The survey in New Zealand documents a neutral or even unimportant perception of second home impacts on destinations. This may be due to insufficient importance or lacking awareness of second home tourism in specific regions

Table 1: Explicit and implicit importance of second homes

item type	#	item	explicit imp.	St Dev	Implicit imp. overall	value	sig.	implicit imp. category	value	sig.
OA	-	**Second homes**	3.57	1.12	n.a.	n.a.	**n.a.**	n.a.	n.a.	**n.a.**
OA	**A0**	**Social Aspects**	**3.84**	**1.04**	**-0.25**	**0.25**	n.s.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
POS	A1	Enhanced community lifestyle	2.48	1.23	0.46	0.46	**	0.01	0.01	n.s.
POS	A2	Creation of social facilities	2.34	1.28	0.47	0.47	**	0.01	0.01	n.s.
POS	A3	Increase in local pride	2.46	1.25	0.36	0.36	**	0.09	0.09	n.s.
POS	A4	Preservation of a traditional way of life	2.05	1.06	0.43	0.43	**	-0.07	0.07	n.s.
POS	A5	Use of redundant housing stock	2.11	1.36	0.29	0.29	*	0.00	0.00	n.s.
NEG	A6	Increase in crime rate	2.36	1.08	0.12	0.12	n.s.	0.11	0.11	n.s.
NEG	A7	Loss of cultural identity	3.54	1.23	-0.22	0.22	n.s.	0.20	0.20	n.s.
NEG	A8	"Cold Beds"-Empty properties in off-season	4.07	1.14	-0.19	0.19	n.s.	0.19	0.19	n.s.
NEG	A9	Insufficient housing stock	4.84	0.45	-0.14	0.14	n.s.	0.15	0.15	n.s.
NEG	A10	Change in social life	4.16	0.97	-0.33	0.33	**	0.69	0.69	**
		Mean	3.04	1.10	0.12	0.12	n.a.	0.14	0.15	n.a.
OA	**B0**	**Ecological Aspects**	**3.67**	**1.04**	**-0.06**	**0.06**	n.s.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
POS	B1	Beautification of area	2.90	1.15	0.37	0.37	**	-0.01	0.01	n.s.
POS	B2	Opportunity to realise new projects	2.79	1.21	0.61	0.61	**	0.08	0.08	n.s.
POS	B3	Protection of heritage buildings	2.13	1.06	0.39	0.39	**	-0.07	0.07	n.s.
POS	B4	Protection of natural areas	2.05	1.10	0.52	0.52	**	0.00	0.00	n.s.
POS	B5	Creation of environmental facilities	2.02	1.06	0.43	0.43	**	0.03	0.03	n.s.
NEG	B6	Loss of visual amenity	3.75	1.26	-0.15	0.15	n.s.	0.43	0.43	**
NEG	B7	Environmental degradation	3.56	1.22	-0.39	0.39	**	0.45	0.45	**
NEG	B8	Stress on road systems	4.41	0.80	-0.21	0.21	n.s.	0.16	0.16	n.s.
NEG	B9	Exploitation of natural areas	4.46	0.85	-0.34	0.34	**	0.23	0.23	n.s.
NEG	B10	Overpopulation	3.05	1.22	-0.23	0.23	n.s.	0.33	0.33	**
		Mean	3.11	1.09	0.10	0.10	n.a.	0.16	0.18	n.a.
OA	**C0**	**Economic Aspects**	**4.11**	**0.61**	**-0.32**	**0.32**	*	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
POS	C1	Increase in employment opportunities	3.33	1.25	0.31	0.31	*	0.06	0.06	n.s.
POS	C2	Creation of predictable economic base	3.28	1.25	0.50	0.50	**	-0.06	0.06	n.s.
POS	C3	Growth of construction industry	4.26	0.83	0.14	0.14	n.s.	0.20	0.20	n.s.
POS	C4	Growth of service industry	3.80	0.91	0.26	0.26	*	-0.08	0.08	n.s.
POS	C5	Increase in governmental revenues (tax)	3.64	1.10	0.68	0.68	**	-0.26	0.26	*
NEG	C6	Increase in property prices and rents	4.95	0.22	-0.22	0.22	n.s.	0.17	0.17	n.s.
NEG	C7	Increase in costs of local goods and services	4.54	0.77	-0.27	0.27	*	0.08	0.08	n.s.
NEG	C8	Replacement of existing hotel industry	3.39	1.24	-0.39	0.39	**	0.47	0.47	**
NEG	C9	Low frequentation in off-season	4.30	0.90	-0.27	0.27	*	0.21	0.21	n.s.
NEG	C10	Minor added value for local economy	3.74	1.14	-0.43	0.43	**	0.38	0.38	**
		Mean	3.92	0.96	0.03	0.03	n.a.	0.12	0.20	n.a.

* Significant on a 0.05 level	n.s. not significant	OA overall item
** Significant on a 0.01 level	n.a. not applicable	POS/NEG positive / negative item

Conclusions

The paper reports an online survey on the socio-economic and environmental impacts of second homes among service providers of the destination of Kitzbühel, Austria. Single case study research methodology was chosen to achieve a multi-faceted description of relationships, due to the exploratory facet associated with the subject, to reveal relevant and updated information.

Second homes are a critical issue in today's tourism market. Results clearly show that second homes in general are estimated to obtain the least important impact on Kitzbühel, while sustainable development is regarded to be of utmost importance. It can be stated that Kitzbühel's service providers are highly sensitive towards second homes and conflicts between relevant stakeholders might well arise. Compared to the results of the New Zealand study where local governments perceive second homes as both a curse and a blessing, the attitude of Kitzbühel's service providers is largely reserved and skeptical towards second homeowners. This implies that that the destination needs to address these issues in the future (Brida, Osti & Santifaller, 2011) in order to remain competitive as a community-type destination, which primarily relies on the collaboration of all stakeholders producing the tourist product. Thus, governance of second homes, responsibilities and regulations will become an emerging issue.

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Conserving biodiversity as tourism (including wildlife tourism) expands: outcomes of discussions across four wildlife tourism workshops

Ronda J Green

Wildlife Tourism Australia Inc., chair@wildlifetourismaustralia.org.au

Keywords: tourism sector, tour operators, wildlife parks

Abstract

Governments throughout Australia and elsewhere recognize that tourism is an important sector of the economy, and are encouraging its growth in a variety of ways, some more environmentally sound than others do. This paper presents not the results of basic research but of discussions by tour operators, staff of wildlife parks and national parks staff, academics, NGO members and others, spread across four separate workshops conducted by Wildlife Tourism Australia Inc. (WTA) between 2012 and 2014. Many topics were discussed at these workshops, but those presented here are relevant to protecting biodiversity as tourism expands in terms of numbers of visitors and the introduction of new activities, especially in protected areas. The topics are divided into: (1) **expanding the potential of sustainable wildlife tourism;** (2) potential threats to wildlife and their habitats; (3) **management of tourism in protected areas, and contributions of tourism to conservation;** (4) **encouraging wildlife tourism outside of protected areas;** and (5) research needed for sustainable wildlife tourism and biodiversity conservation, and how tourism operations can assist. The report is not intended as a final set of guidelines endorsed by WTA but rather a report on the results of open discussions: however, WTA members are using them to formulate such guidelines and direct current and future actions.

Introduction

Tourism as an industry is an important sector in the economies of many of the earth's nations. The tourism industry is continuing to increase with widespread access to information through the internet, diminishing of regulations formerly restricting travel (e.g. China), the growing affluence of some populations, and the continued growth of the world's populations. Tourism Research Australia (2014) for instance reported record growth in 15 of its key international markets for the year ending September 2014, with a total visitation of 6.3 million visitors and a total expenditure of $30.7 billion dollars. The worldwide trend (apart from countries deemed unsafe for travel) is similar, with the World Travel & Tourism Council (2015) reporting that travel &tourism "generated US$7.6 trillion (10% of global GDP) and 277 million jobs (1 in 11 jobs) for the global economy in 2014".

Ecotourism is often hailed as a force for conservation, and may well be essential for the preservation of some wild places despite the many problems involved (e.g. Hohl 2012). Tisdell and Wilson (2012) caution that there is no simple answer to whether the growth of nature tourism has a positive or negative effect on nature conservation, and conclude that nature-based tourism "should not be regarded as a substitute for other policy measures designed to sustain wild biodiversity, but it can be a useful supplement to such efforts." Some politicians and other

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decision-makers who see the growth of "ecotourism" as an important way of obtaining revenue from national parks and other protected areas but do not always appreciate the importance of regulations designed to protect the biodiversity of such areas (Green 2014) have also used the term rather loosely.

Wildlife tourism (from viewing iconic species in a zoo through to long wilderness treks in pursuit of rare creatures, with much variation in between these extremes) is an important component of tourism. Providing unique selling points for countries such as Australia with high endemism of species (e.g. 87% of Australia's mammals, 45 % of birds, 93 % of reptiles, 94 % of amphibians and 86 % of vascular plants are endemic: Chapman (2009). Tourism Research Australia (2014) reports the number of international visitors to national or state parks rose 12% to 2.7 million in the year ending September 2014, while tourists indulging in scuba diving increased 13% to 280,000 and snorkeling 5% to 589,000. Wildlife tourism has potential to aid conservation, including monetary or practical assistance in conservation projects, participation in research, conservation breeding of rare species, protection and restoration of habitat, and monitoring of illegal activities (e.g. Higginbottom, Northrope and Green 2001). But it can also bring its own problems, such as deliberate or accidental killing of wildlife, disturbance of wildlife from feeding or breeding grounds, alteration of natural behavior of wildlife, and habitat fragmentation and modification (e.g. Green and Higginbottom 2001).

There are currently many moves by governments and tour agencies to increase tourism revenue by "opening up" the national parks of Australia to new activities and facilities such as horse-riding, mountain-bike riding, off-road driving, hunting, fishing, and accommodation within the parks. This has prompted excitement by some politicians and tour companies. By contrast, consternation by conservationists as environmental protection regulations are watered down and many changes are happening too fast for adequate research and monitoring of their effects (Green 2014, Richie *et al* 2013).

Wildlife Tourism Australia Inc. (WTA) was established in 2002 as a result of discussions at a wildlife tourism conference in 2001 run jointly by Tourism Tasmania and the wildlife sector of the Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism (see www.sustainabletourismonline) to promote the sustainable development of a diverse wildlife tourism industry that supports conservation. The association now includes tour operators, wildlife parks, eco-lodges, students, and academic researchers amongst its membership.

WTA has recently conducted a number of workshops with delegates from across Australia and elsewhere, inviting members and non-members, on themes related to the above. Many ideas were suggested and much information shared by many experienced researchers and tourism personnel. The purpose of this paper is to report on the outcomes of these very active discussions, which in themselves include suggestions for future research and other actions, some of which has indeed been taken up by WTA members. Much of the material is available on the website, but some of the results have been expanded here to include material that does not yet appear on the website, and they have been reorganized and collated to combine similar themes from across the various workshops under meaningful headings. There are also results presented on the website that are not mentioned here because they did not address the major topic of this paper (conserving biodiversity as tourism expands) or because they included too much local

detail for an international audience.

Method of collecting and collating information and ideas: round table discussions conducted by Wildlife Tourism Australia Inc. 2012 to 2014

Over the past three years, Wildlife Tourism Australia Inc. (WTA) has conducted two multi-day national workshops (in Queensland in 2012 and Northern Territory in 2013) and two half-day workshops (in New South Wales and Western Australia, both in 2014). Delegates included tour operators, academics, national parks staff, NGO representatives and others. Most were from Australia, but there were also representatives from Asia, Europe and the Americas. The half-day workshops consisted almost entirely of a brief introductory talk followed by delegates dividing into groups of about eight to simultaneously discuss a set of questions and then combining for a plenary discussion to summarize the main points. The afternoon sessions of each of the national workshops were conducted in similar manner. Discussions were recorded by scribes appointed to each group (some of these scribes were students who were given free registration in return for their services, others were delegates selected from within the discussion groups). Summaries of the results of these discussions have been uploaded to the WTA website (www.wildlifetourism.org.au). Topics for round-table discussed included:

During "Using Wildlife for Tourism: Opportunities, Threats, Responsibilities" (3-day national workshop, Currumbin, Queensland, 2012):
- The value of wildlife tourism to Australia's economy and environment
- Small business finances relevant to wildlife tourism: Insurance, licenses, promotion etc
- Using wildlife to value-add to tours and accommodation
- The Repositioning of Zoos as conservation organizations
- Emerging threats to wildlife and tourism
- The three-way marriage of conservation, research and tourism
- Environmental ethics and wildlife tourism

During "Snake as sister, spectacle or scientific object: connecting the dots for wildlife tourism" (2-day national workshop, Darwin, Northern Territory, 2013):
- What works and what doesn't? Problems of training and working as a guide or ranger (including Indigenous) in regional Australia
- Doing it differently: what kinds of new products or new approaches to old ones could we be attempting, in the Top End and elsewhere?
- How can we best make wildlife tourism contribute to wildlife conservation?
- Using GIS to help with wildlife tourism and biodiversity conservation
- Close encounters with wildlife vs minimal impact is there a place for both?
- Developing the wildlife tourism research network at all levels and in all regions
- Jumping hurdles: overcoming financial, bureaucratic and other problems for high-quality but low-budget wildlife guides, tourism businesses, research students and NGOs
- 'Problem' wildlife and tourism: fruit bats, emus, wombats, ferals and others
- Guide training: what works and what doesn't
- Problems of Indigenous guides and rangers
- Positive effects: how to really make wildlife tourism benefit wildlife

"Wildlife tourism and conservation of biodiversity in parks". Half-day workshop, Sydney (jointly with Office of Environment and Heritage, as a parallel event to the World Parks Congress, 2014):

.   How can we ensure the conservation of biodiversity with as visitation increase?
.   How can we best use both old and new technologies for low-impact wildlife viewing?
.   Under what circumstances should interaction with wildlife be allowed?
.   What research is most urgently needed?

"Innovation and diversity of experience in Sustainable Wildlife Tourism". Half-day workshop, Perth. 2014

.   What wildlife species are fascinating and appealing but not well promoted for tourism? Why?
.   How can we enhance the viewing experience without increasing negative impact?
.   What seasonal spectacles could we make better use of?
.   How do we best employ tour operations in wildlife research to enhance our knowledge of wildlife and monitor for conservation?

In this paper I summarize some of the main points that were most relevant to the topic of conserving biodiversity as tourism (including wildlife tourism) activities expand, combining results from all discussions. Although the focus here is on wildlife tourism in Australia, the same principles will apply to other world regions. I have not included the names of participants here, as I have not gathered permission from all to do so, but some will be ultimately posted on the WTA website. This report is not intended as a final set of guidelines endorsed by WTA but rather a report on the results of open discussions: however they are being used to formulate such guidelines and to direct current and future actions by WTA members.

Expanding the potential of sustainable wildlife tourism

Tourism expansion is inevitable, but, while bearing in mind some of the obstacles to true ecotourism, some kinds of tourism (e.g. bird watching in woodlands) would seem more conducive to biodiversity protection than others (e.g. clearing for massive casino complexes) and also offer economic gain from wild lands that might otherwise be cleared for agriculture, mining and urban expansion. Across the various workshops, we discussed ways of increasing the potential for environmentally sustainable wildlife tourism, especially in regional areas. We hoped that this would lead not only to an increase in revenue for tourism businesses and local communities (as has been demonstrated for a few locations such as Lamington National Park and Mon Repos turtle rookery: Tisdell and Wilson 2002 and 2004).   Also, lead to a greater appreciation by locals (including politicians) of the value of wildlife and the protection of their habitats.

Major points included:

.   Although nature tourism is probably over-valued in many surveys, (visitors are counted as nature tourists if they have visited a zoo or national park or participated in a whale watching tour during their visit, even if the main purpose of their visit was unrelated). It islikely to be under-valued in the economy of regional and local areas, as it can encourage visitors to visit places that are "off the beaten track" or to stay an extra night or two, thus

spending more on accommodation, food, fuel etc. but these tourists do not always make themselves obvious to travel agents.

. A comprehensive "Australian Wildlife Trail" would be a useful tool for WTA to develop. Tasmania seems to lead the way in Australia in recognizing that wildlife is an important component of the tourism experience, and promoting it as such. WTA has been involved in the Tasmanian Wildlife Trail and similar trails for Adelaide and southern Queensland, and Roo Tourism (www.rootourism.com) produces extensive information on kangaroos, wallabies and kin as well as where to see them throughout Australia.

. Local governments are often not well-informed about wildlife, and are unaware of the wildlife tourism potential in their areas (e.g. unaware of the less conspicuous species, or that some of their local species are not found, or not so readily encountered, in other regions). How can WTA best provide relevant information to these?

. Some government department staff tends to see wildlife tourism as involving a bunch of "weirdo fringe elements" rather than really contributing to the tourist product that visitors want to experience. This image is changing, and we need to assist that change. One WTA member was told by a state tourism organization staff member that experiential tourism referred to such things as massages, not wildlife viewing (she responded by informing him that she might enjoy a massage while visiting South Africa, but she would certainly not fly across the Indian Ocean for one, whereas she was about to do just that for a wildlife experience).

. We could work with other publicity campaigns to raise awareness of lesser-known wildlife: e.g. projects such as the wildlife cards that children collect at Woolworths stores.

. Every visitor knows about koalas and kangaroos, but Australia has a very high endemism, and many Australian animals are under-utilized for tourism but could have great appeal with appropriate promotion and interpretation. Some can be challenging to find and view, as we have many unique species with a restricted ranges, not easy to find and not well-known by tourists (or by many Australians). Good interpretation is required to make some species exciting (e.g., an explanation of dasyurid life cycles can transform an easily over-looked mouse-like marsupial into something quite fascinating).

. Under-promoted mammals include echidnas (should be better-known as the 'other' egg-layer, not compared to porcupines or hedgehogs). Numbats (very attractive, active by day in contrast with most Aussie mammals), phascogales, quolls, bilbies, bandicoots, honey possums, ringtail possums, bettongs, musky rat kangaroos (active by day, similarities with ancestors of kangaroos), tammar wallaby, rock-wallabies, water rats, fruitbats (regarded as nuisances by many Australians but exciting for visitors, especially during dusk flyouts).

. Under-promoted birds include emu (very common in many parts of Australia but exciting for visitors), mallee fowl (handsome bird with unusual breeding behavior), black cockatoos (not as well known as other cockatoos as they are not used in pet trade, but

very striking birds, and cockatoos are a primarily Australian family). Bowerbirds, birds of paradise (most are in New Guinea but four are Australian, including the world's only subtropical species), songbirds generally (despite misleading common names, most belong to families not found on other continents, and there is now evidence that the ancestors of all songbirds came from the Australian part of Gondwana).

. Under-promoted reptiles include thorny devil (bizarre appearance and movement, and intriguing adaptations for moisture retention, but can be hard to find in wild), other dragons, perentie (largest Australian reptile other than crocodile), bob-tailed gecko, and sea-snakes (those of Shark Bay, Western Australia, are endemic and non-tropical, but need to find out where and when to view them). Reptiles are often less active in winter months.

. Frogs can be very appealing, but are nocturnal, and it can be difficult to predict when conditions will be right (breeding season I reasonably predictable but some for instance only appear on warm and very wet evenings within the season). They sometimes need to be handled for identification but a permit is needed for this, as spread of disease or dehydration from salty hands can be a problem. It is easier to hear the calls than find the frogs, and most can be identified this way. Specialized frog tourism would appeal only to small subset of tourists, but frogs could be combined with other features such as platypus-watching or nocturnal bird watching, or an add-on attraction such as the terrariums at Cedar Creek Estate winery and glow worm caves (Queensland). If keeping captive frogs though, their progeny cannot legally be released (because of regulations for disease control).

. Some insects already figure in tourism (butterflies, glow worms, termites that build massive mounds) but others could be included in tours and promoted more, especially if large and colorful, such as dragonflies, phasmids and spider-eating wasps. Invertebrate sampling (e.g. aquatic macro-invertebrates)could be included in tours that combine scientific research with the tours.

. Plants and fungi also form an important part of our wildlife – e.g. wildflowers, orchids, mangroves, luminous fungi, and plants that provide food and shelter for animals.

. Some seasonal or opportunistic spectacles could be promoted more, and special tours designed to cater for them. Bogong moths gather in enormous numbers in alpine areas, and small mammals feed on them. Many colorful fungi emerge at the end of the wet season. Flowering, fruiting, bird migrations, bird courtship, turtle breeding and other such events are often highly seasonal (although some are less predictable in Australian habitats than in other regions). Birds and butterflies often come in for the nectar of wildflowers, interpretation can include plant-animal interactions, and inclusion of wildlife in promotion of wildflower tours could offer a wider appeal.

. We don't need to give up on animals that are hard to find. Mammals such as numbats or honey possums can be 'matched up' with searches for easier creatures, so tourists still see animals, and the habitat of those that are not found. Nocturnal tours do not always

produce the hoped-for mammals and owls, but can combine animal-viewing with star-grazing, and include invertebrates (e.g. fire-flies, spiders) and luminous fungi. Ultraviolet light can be used to view scorpions, and torches (flashlight) are reflected by spiders' eyes. Indirect evidence of animal presence can be used as a backup plan for times the animal itself doesn't appear - e.g. scats, tracks, nests, burrows, hollows, food-plants, scratches on trunks. Recorded bird calls can be used either for identification or to call up birds, but there are problems with the latter if it wastes too much energy of birds coming to defend their territories or scares some birds by playing predator calls. Bat detectors, anabats and apps can be useful for microbats – identification will improve as more calls are added to a reference library, but even demonstrating the variety can be of interest without necessarily identifying them all. Wolf and Croft (2012) found visitors to be intrigued with modern equipment such as night-vision goggles and bat detectors. Radio-tracking is very useful for showing where animals are, and could be useful to research and monitoring if linked with suitable projects. Trapping can be used – especially if this can be part of a conservation or research project, not just trapping solely to show tourists. Some animals can become trap-shy – or trap-happy (knowing they'll get a free feed!).

. Fear (e.g., of sharks or crocodiles) can be a draw card for tourists, and visitors can get an adrenalin rush even when not in danger (e.g. swimming with reef sharks, enhanced by a feeling that underwater is not our natural habitat, taking us out of our comfort one or watching crocodiles from a safe viewing platform). Interpretation can be effective while the emotional arousal is high. Recent interest in sharks in WA (because of attacks and culling) can be used for PR.

. Other ideas to facilitate viewing of cryptic or shy wildlife include viewing platforms in trees, underwater and perhaps underground, walking in the water in wetlands through routes where impact is minimal and alternative forms of transport (e.g. quad bikes used responsibly on established trails). Overnight hides, tree-houses that act both as accommodation and hides, underwater restaurants and hotels, underground tunnels leading to viewing platforms at outback waterholes (so animals don't see the approaching humans), eco-friendly cable-cars or zip-lines through canopies(and live footage from these for non-riders). Live footage of animals outside tour vehicles can be shown within the vehicle for visitors afraid of the outdoors or for animals that would flee if doors are opened or difficult to see without magnification (e.g. leaf-tail geckos on high tree-trunk) , and also shown at neighboring visitor centers or accommodation.

. Hotels near outback waterholes or other wildlife-rich areas could promote themselves more effectively to birders and other wildlife enthusiasts, and offer altered schedules and services for wildlife-focused guests (pre-packed picnic breakfasts or dinners for those wanting to be out watching animals at dawn and dusk, live-streaming cameras at waterholes or eagle nests projected onto screens in dining area for guests who don't want to be out at such times, late checkouts for those who need to freshen up and relax before moving on after a morning's outing, as the usual 10.00am checkout is very inconvenient). Hoteliers sometimes complain that birders and other nature enthusiasts tend to camp rather than use their facilities, but many would probably opt for the extra comfort if such changes were made and promoted.

. Consider different factors appealing to different kinds of tourist: adventure-seekers, backpackers, conservation volunteers, photographers, and artists, handicapped(not just those in wheelchairs but those who may have 'hidden' handicaps that prevent participation in some tours: severe asthma, recent hip replacement, etc.). Different categories of tours could be advertised by the same company with add-on value (e.g. higher cost for smaller group, greater interaction with animals, opportunity to join scientific excursions involving animals not usually seen by the public), in similar vein to the animal experiences offered in addition to the entry costs by some zoos and wildlife parks. Also, consider child-focused wildlife tours for families.

. Consider novel approaches made possible by the digital age. Apps can be developed for nature trails, information can be looked up for animals sighted (such apps already exist for Australian birds and more recently, frogs). Communication on where animals are right now, etc. (e.g. Echidna Walkabout guides use a phone app to communicate with each other on locations of wild koalas)but many regions in Australia still lack good reception for mobile phones and Wi-Fi. Geo-caching challenges could include earth-caching and puzzle-caching with wildlife themes. Endoscopes can be installed in burrows, hollows or logs or nesting boxes with plug-in laptop attachment for viewing and monitoring. Remote-controlled drones could be used if not disturbing to the animals. Go-pros could be attached to domestic animals that wander through wildlife areas (e.g. on outback sheep or cattle stations where livestock may feed and drink in similar places to cockatoos, emus, and kangaroos).

. Visitor information centers and eco-lodges could use (and promote) maps showing recent sightings (as is currently used at rest camps in South African National Parks). This could be educational not only for tourists but also for local residents and for the volunteers and others who staff the centers, and for local politicians and tourism associations.

. Interpretation of wildlife by Indigenous guides is seen as exciting by many international tourists and deserves more emphasis.

. The economies of regional areas could be helped if well-trained and knowledgeable local people could be hired as guides, but many find the costs of public liability prohibitive if they are not employed full time in such activities, and the seasonality of much tourism makes year-round employment difficult, as does the challenge of getting known when first setting up as a guide. Umbrella associations or cooperatives could be set up to take on the burden of public liability and other associated costs. The Guiding Organization for Australia provides this to some extent, allowing a reduction in premiums for their members. Large tour companies could also hire local guides and include them in their own insurance policies.

Potential threats to wildlife and their habitats

Here we were mainly focused on minimizing the effects of tourism, including both wildlife tourism and some of the proposed additional activities in protected areas (horse-riding, off-road driving, hunting etc.: e.g. see Green 2014), on wildlife. For a review of actual and potential

impacts of wildlife tourism on wildlife, see Green and Higginbottom (2001). Major points made in the various discussions included:

- Wildlife are already facing many threats such as climate change, habitat destruction, illegal hunting and collecting, pollution (e.g. bits of plastic swallowed by turtles and seabirds), and we do not want inappropriate tourism activities adding to this. Minimizing our impact is essential.

- The primary purpose of national parks must be to preserve biodiversity, as even the parks themselves will not be able to do this alone with increasing human population pressures, habitat destruction, climate change and other threatening processes.

- Some areas are too sensitive for visitation and should be left untouched. However, the neglect of some areas can be a problem, e.g. failure to burn firebreaks or to allow fires that benefit some fauna and flora. Inappropriate burning regimes are also a problem.

- Tourists who especially want to get close to or photograph a particular animal and disobey their guides can disturb the animals and also spoil things for the next visitors. Some animals also present a danger to tourists (e.g. crocodiles). Guides who disobey rules for the satisfaction of their customers (or for bribes) can also be a problem.

- Misguided fears of some animals lead to their dispersal or destruction: e.g. the dispersal of bat colonies because of lyssa or hendra virus (the former can only be caught by being bitten or scratched by a bat, and the second by close contact with an infected horse), killing of harmless snakes or snakes, or any snake that could have been relocated instead.

- We need to bear the precautionary principle in mind but also need to be open to the idea that some new activities could be quite acceptable in some areas even if not in others, and not just see fauna surveys as an opportunity to ban all new activities if a threatened species is found.

- Weeds can cause severe problems: e.g. gamba grass in northern Australia, which is useful to graziers but totally alters wildlife habitat when it spreads out from pastures. Tourists can also spread weeds and fungal spores (e.g. on boots, tires or horse hooves).

Management of tourism in protected areas, and contributions of tourism to conservation

Major points made in the various discussions included:

- Criteria for new activities in the parks should include no decrease in the biodiversity or scenic value, no negative (or at least minimal) impacts on breeding and feeding grounds oron waterways. Critically-endangered species should not be disturbed (we need some no-go areas, or seasonally no-go, or areas where only remote viewing is permitted)

- No new activity or facility should be permitted in protected areas without adequate prior

fauna and fauna surveys and comprehensive conservation monitoring plans with triggers to action when problems are noted.

. Many of the activities and facilities proposed for national parks and other protected areas (e.g., horse-riding, off road driving) could be readily developed on other government land or on leasehold and freehold land in scenic areas neighboring the parks or in similar landscapes, rather than in the parks themselves.

. Partnerships and linkages could be developed with neighboring landowners for off-park conservation and sustainable tourism. It takes time, maybe a decade or so, to build relationships with the community.

. We need to educate politicians as well as the general public on biodiversity and conservation principles. Politician education could involve invitation to demonstrations of, and even on-ground involvement in, conservation projects in parks.

. Good training of guides and other tour operators, eco-lodge staff etc. is important. There is probably much for Australia to learn from the training of South Africa rangers, who learn about animal ecology and behavior, which enhances interpretation as well as adding to the safety of their guests. There is currently no national guide training organization in Australia (although Savannah Guides provides some training in northern areas). TAFE courses in nature tourism were deemed to be rather poor.

. Many visitors have unrealistic expectations of the variety of animals they will see or how close they will get to the animals: managing visitor expectations and experiences is important, both before and during their visit

. 'Sacrificial' zones can provide for easy viewing of wildlife in high traffic areas and discourage mass visitation to other parts of the park that retain higher conservation value and offer a true wilderness experience.

. If planning to feed wildlife, it is important to observe available 'wildlife encounter' guidelines. Feeding can be used in some 'sacrificial sites' as long as tourists are told clearly not to feed them elsewhere and if they are not fed enough to become dependent or seriously alter behavior. Some could be fed for a while and weaned off it to see if they remain in the vicinity. There is no need to feed some animals for close encounters: e.g. in Kakadu the crocodiles tend to congregate around tidal causeways. Feeding or other habituation to bring animals close for viewing can sometimes alter behavior to the extent that the experience is less satisfying for those who want to view authentic wild behavior, as well as altering population dynamics and sometimes presenting a danger to tourists and animals.

. Tour operators and independent travelers need to be aware of the effects of disturbing animals while spotlighting (Wolf and Croft, 2012, found many tourists under-estimated potential effects, and national park rangers reported noisy groups spotlighting on their own were often much worse than organized tour groups). Red light can be used for

mammals and turtles, as they do not see it as well as white light (although Wilson 1999 found that for several species of possum the dimming of the light was more important than the color of the filter).

. Many travelers want to "give something back" and can join conservation and research projects. Tourists can also be encouraged to donate money to conservation projects, and are more likely to do this after establishing an emotional connection with animals they see. Visitors to Lord Howe Island pay to spend several days weeding and collecting rubbish from beaches in the mornings and enjoying guided tours and other educational activities for the rest of the day, and some make several repeat visits.

. Revenue collected by the government from tourism operators entering protected areas should be fed back into conservation management, not "lost" amongst general revenue. The concept of user-pays is good, but those paying (and other interested stakeholders) should have clarity on where the money goes.

. Some suggested recreational hunting as a way of controlling feral animals, including in protected areas, but others felt it better to employ professional hunters as needed, not promote hunting as a sport, and it was pointed out that although some certainly do useful work, not all recreational hunters are responsible or well-trained.

. Indigenous people are permitted to hunt animals that are off-limits to others. Should they be permitted to take additional animals for tourist consumption, or would it be better to 'ranch' animals such as goannas for this purpose rather than hunt them in the wild?

Encouraging wildlife tourism outside of protected areas

Facilities and activities on private or leasehold lands that are already set up for tourism (e.g. farm stays) can be extended to include more wildlife experiences. It had also been suggested in previous workshops that paying landowners or leasehold owners to allow wildlife viewing on land not currently used for tourism could provide a user-pays system that takes some of the pressure off protected areas while giving incentives for preserving wildlife habitat outside of the parks.

Major points made in the various discussions included:

. The expense of public liability premiums here in Australia is a major stumbling block for landowners who would otherwise welcome tour operators paying to bring guests in for wildlife-related experiences on their properties. This appears to be less of a problem in many other countries. It was suggested that we review New Zealand, South American and African models.

. Partnerships and linkages could be developed with neighboring landowners for off-park conservation and sustainable tourism. This could include the development of buffer zones involving willing participants surrounding parks, and involve mutual benefits (land-owners benefitting from the proximity of the park bringing custom and increasing the biodiversity values of their own property, and the park benefitting from the tourism pressure being

spread to areas outside of the park, the additional education of visitors, and also some financial donations from adjacent commercial activities, as it was pointed out that when facilities are located outside of National Parks the Park doesn't get so much revenue from them to use within the parks as they do from private enterprise paying to operate within the Park). Green internships, green jobs, and other initiatives can assist with such partnerships, and for conservation monitoring, habitat restoration etc. within parks.

. Some good wildlife-viewing areas are situated on Indigenous lands with very limited access for visitors, but it is possible to obtain permits, and there is great potential for tours by Indigenous guides, or on neighboring private lands which would be very suitable if public liability costs were not so prohibitive. There is also scope for owners of small businesses to provide support to Indigenous people, e.g. training in communications skills *via* technology etc. for those who are trying to set up their own indigenous tour business.

Research needed for sustainable wildlife tourism and biodiversity conservation, and how tourism operations can assist:

. Further research is needed on baseline fauna and habitat situations in each localitywhere new activities or substantial new facilities are to be introduced.

. More general research is still needed on the effects of tourism on wildlife including species that are not targeted for wildlife but may be disturbed while seeking the iconic species, and also whether effects on individuals (e.g. disturbance from favored feeding grounds) translates into population declines. What are the potential impacts, both in general and at particular sites, including unintentional side effects that could result from new activities? (e.g. provision of water brought in common species displacing rare ones at GluePot Reserve in South Australia)

. What are the most effective ways of communicating messages to different ages and cultures (including emotional impact and conservation messages, not just simple information about the animals)?

. How aware are the local residents of their own local species, interesting sites and conservation? How aware are tourists of species other than the major iconic ones? It is easy to assume that because you and your usual associates are well aware that most others are also, but this is not always the case.

. Tour operators and local governments are probably most likely to support research that can bring financial gain to tour operations, or indirectly help in some way with local businesses. For example, what kinds of wildlife experience could encourage travelers to stay an extra night, make repeat visits?

. How do disease organisms spread between humans, domestic animals and wildlife? How do we best get accurate messages out to the public without the media distorting and sensationalizing such issues?

- Better communication is needed between researchers and managers, so that researchers know what managers need and in turn, managers can better understand the scientific process or valid monitoring methods.

- Wildlife tour operators and staff of eco-lodges and wildlife parks are often in an excellent position to assist researchers, either by giving access to their sites or by recording observations. Some data is relatively easy for tour operators to record: e.g. vegetation recovery after fires or cyclones, fruit species eaten by particular bird species, sightings of feral animals, or which month's migratory species (marine or terrestrial) appear in their areas. Not all research is for publication: some for instance is for such purposes as monitoring habitat restoration efforts for future conservation management.

- WTA has started a research network, which was initially set up for communication between tour operators who are conducting research to make them aware of others who are doing similar projects. However, it has now expanded into communication between tour operations and academics (for mutual benefit) and also tourists who wish to participate as volunteer research assistants at various levels (Green and Wood 2015).

- Appropriate methodology is essential for research and monitoring if results are to be meaningful and useful. Research must be robust, repeatable and rigorous, and project leaders must identify those parts of research that tourists can do, to ensure this is adhered to. WTA includes members with a background in scientific research and could develop guidelines on their website or even a crash course in scientific method and how to design a research project.

- Tour operations will often need to promote attractive wildlife to entice volunteers. If the research that really needs doing doesn't sound attractive, it can be "married" to something that does – e.g. if studying *Phytphthera* on *Banksia*, combine this with information on honey possums and colorful nectarivorous birds that depend on the *Banksia*, and include some spotlighting and bird watching, or at least videos of the animals, in between the experience of observing fungi on plants.

- Operations such as Conservation Volunteers Australia and Earthwatch are already very involved in employing volunteer tourists in research and conservation activities.

- Tourists come from many backgrounds, including professional biological backgrounds, and so different individuals are able to assist at different levels. Some keen naturalists (e.g. experienced birders) may be excellent at identifying species, while others will first need some training.

- Recognition may be important to some volunteers, to use on their cv's, either through a certificate of participation or, if making a substantial effort, acknowledgement in published papers and reports.

Conclusion

The round-table discussions proved a very effective way of allowing exchange of ideas and information by experienced people from different backgrounds. The results of these particular discussions raised many issues that WTA and other organizations would do well to work on or lobby others to do so (and some of this is already occurring), including: the recognition of the uniqueness and value of our wildlife and the promotion of a greater diversity of species for tourism; research into impacts both in general and at particular sites; research into the factors that could encourage tourists to stay longer in regional areas; problems of introducing wildlife tourism on private lands and the employment of local guides; and ways in which tourism can contribute to conservation and research. There seems much potential to expand tourism by the wider use of sustainable wildlife-viewing, thus contributing to local economies while not adding significantly to negative impacts on wildlife and habitats, and in some cases actively enhancing conservation efforts.

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Luxury and Sustainability in Tourism Accommodation – an exploration of how to reconcile apparently incompatible objectives using a case study approach.

Derek Robbins & Justyna Gaczorek

Faculty of Management, Bournemouth University, United Kingdom,
drobbins@bournemouth.ac.uk
Faculty of Management, Bournemouth University, United Kingdom
justynagaczorek@gmail.com

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Abstract

This paper examines the relationship between luxury and sustainability in tourism using a case study of the Soneva Group, which has two luxurious eco resorts in Maldives and Thailand. The aim of this paper is to determine whether luxury and sustainability can be compatible in tourism accommodation.

The secondary research establishes definitions of luxury and sustainability as well as a review on the sustainability performance of the luxury tourism accommodation sector. It suggests that there is a clear positive correlation between the degree of luxury and the consumption of water and electricity and with increased CO_2 emissions. The primary research evaluates consumer opinion on the Soneva product exploring perceptions of both luxury and sustainable practice based on analysis of 292 reviews of Soneva resorts posted by visitors on review websites.

Consumers have a simplistic notion of sustainability and seek a sanitized experience in eco-resorts. Soneva fulfills the demand for luxury and a 'Robinson Crusoe experience' and uses sustainability as a part of its marketing strategy, which revolves around its flagship SLOW LIFE philosophy. However conflicts between luxury and sustainability remain. Soneva finds it easier to focus on carbon offsetting, CRS strategies and recycling, whilst the key challenges of high carbon emissions and local sourcing remain. The practices at the resorts go beyond marketing gimmicks and the company achieves better sustainability performance in terms of energy consumption than most luxury resorts, and demonstrates examples of good practice and evidence of real intent. However, it remains an example of 'works in progress.

Introduction

Sustainability and Luxury

Tourism has increasingly become concerned with its environmental impact. The idea that certain kinds of tourism are inevitably better than others in terms of sustainability has taken hold and one response has been the trend towards ecotourism, now the fastest growing sector of the industry (UNWTO, 2012).

In contrast, luxury tourism is associated with high consumption of resources and a presumption

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that it must be unsustainable. There is a significant literature supporting a positive correlation between the degree of luxury and use of resources, most notably water (Deng & Burnett 2002), electricity (Lawson 1995: Gössling 2001: Gossling 2010: Trung & Kumar 2005) and CO_2 emissions (Gössling 2010). The relationship between luxury and sustainability in tourism has not been given significant attention by academic researchers (Low, 2010) whilst some luxury tourism providers claim to pursue sustainability as a core value. This study seeks to add to the literature exploring this relationship.

The aim of this paper is to explore whether well-managed luxury tourism and hospitality can contribute to more sustainable development. It will aim to explore the expectations, perception and motives of consumers, in terms of both luxury and sustainability, whilst analyzing the philosophy, motivations and performance of the accommodation providers, using a case study approach.

Luxury and Sustainability

Luxury: Traditionally luxury is defined as consumption of extraordinary comfort and elegance at a high price (Oxford 2010, p. 1056). Others define it as something beyond necessity, which the majority of society is largely unable to obtain, or at least only as a very rare treat (Table 1). The concept is subjective, varying for different consumers but incorporates an element of exclusivity (Dubois et al., 2001)

Table 1. Definitions of Luxury

Angshuman and Varshney (2013) define luxury as something, which is opposite to a necessity and serves indulgence in self-pleasure.
According to Oxford Dictionary of English luxury has three meanings- a state of comfort or elegance at great expense; something, which is inessential but desirable and difficult to obtain; rarely obtained pleasure (Oxford 2010, p. 1056).
Heine (2011) develops the concept of luxury as a state characterized by: quality, aesthetic benefits, rarity, exclusivity, extraordinariness and symbolism (prestige) at high expense.

On the one hand, luxury can contribute to fulfillment of an individual's higher needs, suggesting it is a positive force whereas opponents argue the pursuit of luxury (vanity and consumerism) is a weakening force in society, excessive consumption evoking negative moral connotations.

Sustainability: WCED (1987), commonly referred to as the Brundtland Report, established the now seminal definition of sustainable development as: 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'. Developing this concept in a tourism context, Bramwell and Lane (1993) argue that sustainable tourism development is a positive approach, which aims to reduce the tensions and conflicts between the economic, socio-cultural and environmental spheres of tourism.   The UNWTO (2005) argue that in addition to these three realms, the needs of industry, the hosts, the visitors and the environment must all be taken into account.

 Weaver and Lawton (1999) argue there is no consistent view on the forms of tourism, which promote sustainable tourism. For example, the debate on mass versus alternative tourism

concludes that is neither inevitably 'bad' nor 'good' in a sustainability context. This view stems from Jafari's (2001) knowledge-based platform that any mode of tourism gives possibilities of positive as well as negative impacts. What is required is a holistic, individual approach for each destination, which may benefit from a certain form of tourism. This would suggest that luxury tourism gives possibilities for sustainable development if integrated in a plan for a destination.

Sustainability Performance of the Luxury Tourism Accommodation sector

Luxury or up market tourists use more water and electricity per capita than mass tourists or residents (Lawson 1995). Table 2 compares energy consumption in different star rating accommodation whilst Table 3 confirms that higher-standard lodging facilities use more water. Bohdanowicz and Martinac (2007) add that the highest water volumes are found in hotels with multiple swimming pools and spas. In addition, luxury resorts that offer golf courses will use 2.3 million m^3 of water daily (Mastny, 2001). Table 3 indicates a guest of a high-standard hotel uses 400-500 liters of water per day. In comparison, an average Briton uses 150 liters of water (Waterwise, 2012) and Asian village inhabitant- 50 liters and in Sub-Saharan Africa, water usage is 12-24 liters (Responsible Travel Report, 2013).

Table 2. Electricity Consumption in Tourism Accommodation.

Hotel type, location	Energy consumption per guest night (MJ)	Source
1/2 * hotels, Zanzibar/Tanzania	205	Gössling (2001)
4* hotels, Zanzibar/Tanzania	1050	Gössling (2001)
1/2 * hotels, Sicily	32 (+50 thermal)	Beccali et al. (2009)
3* hotels, Sicily	50 (+50 thermal)	Beccali et al. (2009)
4/5* hotels, Sicily	112 (+50 thermal)	Beccali et al. (2009)
2* hotels, Vietnam	364	Trung and Kumar (2005)
3* hotels, Vietnam	515	Trung and Kumar (2005)
4* hotels, Vietnam	508	Trung and Kumar (2005)
5* hotel, Seychelles	1787	Gössling (2010)
5* hotel, Oman	3717	Gössling(2010)

Table 3. Water Consumption in Tourism Accommodation.

Hotel type, location	Water consumption per guest night (liters)	Source
1* hotel, Benidorm	174	Rico-Amoros et al.(2009)
2* hotel, Benidorm	194	Rico-Amoros et al.(2009)
3* hotel, Benidorm	287	Rico-Amoros et al.(2009)
4* hotel, Benidorm	361	Rico-Amoros et al. (2009)
3* hotel, Morocco	300	Eurostat (2009)
4* hotel, Morocco	400	Eurostat (2009)
5* hotel, Morocco	500	Eurostat (2009)
Luxury 5* hotel, Morocco	600	Eurostat (2009)
Average hotels, Egypt	400	Lamei et al. (2009)
5* hotels, Egypt	1410–2190 (per room)	Lamei et al. (2009)
3* hotels, Malta	199	Cremona and Saliba (2012)
4* hotels, Malta	292	Cremona and Saliba (2012)
5* hotels, Malta	462	Cremona and Saliba (2012)

## Contribution of Various Tourism Sub-sectors to CO_2 Emissions
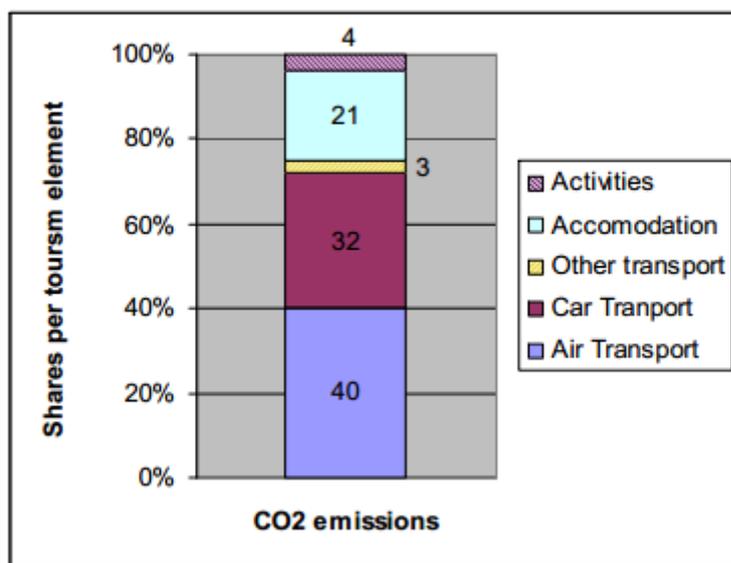
Figure 1: Contribution of Various Tourism Sub-sectors to CO_2 Emissions (UNWTO, 2007)

The share of tourism's CO_2 emissions attributed to accommodation is relatively small and dwarfed by transport emissions. Following the Davos convention, UNWTO (2007) calculated the accommodation share at 21% (Fig. 1.) and Gössling (2002) estimates that average energy use per guest night in an average hotel is 20.6 kg CO_2. However, Buck and Conrady (2012) argue that due to diverse climates and hotel standards a universal CO_2 emission benchmark is of dubious value as emissions can vary significantly and are much increased in tropical climates. Nevertheless, Gössling's (2010) calculation of 125 kg CO_2 per guest night in a five star hotel in Seychelles suggests a positive correlation between luxury and CO_2 emissions.

Waste production and treatment in hospitality varies significantly across different hotel brands and countries. According to Enz (2010), the average unsorted waste from Radisson hotels was 3.1 kg per guest night, while hotels in Germany produced 1.5 kg and Scandic Hotels, a benchmark for good practice- 0.5 kg. To give a comparison an American produces 2 kg of total waste per day (Halfman, 2009) while a Briton 1.16 kg (DEFRA, 2013). Ioannides and Holcomb (2003) note luxury resorts usually have their own waste management facilities to reduce the risk of pollution. Recycling does not compromise comfort of the guests. Therefore, it can be successfully practiced by luxurious brands more easily than the reduction of resource use or CO_2 emissions.

UNEP (2013) identifies aesthetic pollution as a key area of negative tourism impact where tourism development is often focused on profitability and therefore developments fail to integrate with their surroundings, taking into account the natural environment or indigenous architecture Holden (2000).

The economic impact of tourism in a sustainability context should not be overlooked. It is the highest export earner in 60 countries and 1 of the top 5 export earners in 150 countries (UNCTAD, 2010). The economic impacts of tourism revolve around two related indicators - leakages and multipliers. The combination of foreign ownership (Ioannidis, 2001) and luxury hospitality threatens greater economic leakage by luxury accommodation providers due to a

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heavy reliance on imported luxury goods (Maurer 1992) and employment of high skilled foreign staff (Hemmati and Koehler 2000). Alternatively, Supradist, (2004) points out that larger hotels that are more luxurious offer better training and career opportunities and are labor intensive resulting in the employment of larger numbers of local people, which accelerates multiplier effect and brings economic benefits to the entire community. Critics however, claim that luxury tourism becomes another form of dependence or neocolonialism of underdeveloped countries by wealthy nations (Spillane, 2005).The loss of control over the business environment and the resources attributed to mass and luxury tourism is especially apparent in developing countries (Brohman, 1996).

Krippendorf (1987) argues that what causes problems in a destination is not tourism itself, but the number of tourists. 'Low volume, high margin' strategies seem particularly appropriate in environmentally sensitive or fragile environments where carrying capacity is limited. Arguably luxury accommodation can help to market a destination for a lower number of people (high host to guest ratio followed by less disturbance of the locals and the environment), bringing benefits (e.g. foreign exchange, glamorous image) proportionally higher than costs (e.g. overuse of resources, adverse social impact). The advocates of the development of up-market hospitality facilities claim that luxury tourism means a win-win scenario, where adverse environmental impacts related to mass tourism are lessened without loss of economic benefits (Cyprus Tourism Organization, 1999 and Godfrey, 1996).

Sustainability and Marketing of Luxury Tourism Accommodation

Green products sellas postmodern travelers prioritize 'sustainable, green, ecological, soft, natural' products (Font 2001). Rising environmental concerns make sustainability a source of competitive advantage in the tourism industry, especially in the segments targeted at high spenders. Sharpley (2001) argues that in the postmodern society consumption is a means of classification as traditional status markers such as income and social class have become less significant. Due to this phenomenon, tourism consumption is seen as an expression of self-identity and taste (Sharpley, 2001) and the industry has responded with new niche products, which have an aura of luxury, exclusivity and sustainability.

One approach to distinguish 'green products is through the use of Eco-labels, accreditation schemes established by government agencies, non-government organizations or companies, which aim at sustainability certification (Ielenicz & Simoni, 2012). UNEP (2002) urges the creation and use eco-labels as an informational tool supporting sustainable consumption patterns (UNEP, 2002; Sitarz, 1994) however less than 1% of tourism businesses are covered by any accreditation schemes (Ecotrans, 2003). Middleton and Hawkings (1998) and Björk (2004) claim that tourism businesses can use eco labels like logos or trademarks and gain differentiation in the market, whereasReiser and Simmons (2005) and Cristiana (2008) argue that eco labels have very little impact on tourist behavior and they are not recognized by the tourism consumers. The large number of ecolabels, between sixty (McRandle, 2006) or one hundred (Fairweather et al.,2005), demonstrates a lack of control by third parties (Piper and Yeo, 2011) and inconsistency in thresholds between different accreditations, which cause confusion and lack of trust (Miller, 2003).

An alternative for companies, which try to market their sustainability commitments are cause-related initiatives and offset programs. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) claim that customers are particularly susceptible to CSR initiatives, while Dadusch (2010) points out that such actions need more transparency as they can be used for 'greenwashing'. Loud initiatives outside resort can be used to draw attention, as they are more spectacular than reduction of negative environmental impacts on site. Downie (2007) argues that consumers are misled by claims that offset programs can make a company carbon neutral and Haya (2010) goes even further asking a question whether carbon offsetting is the way to reduce emissions, as companies focus less on limiting their own CO_2 production.

CaseStudy - Soneva Group

The Soneva Group comprises two small five-star resorts of relatively small size (35 and 65 villas) offering low-density villas surrounded by lush indigenous vegetation. The company philosophy is set out in SLOW LIFE (Sustainable-Local-Organic-Wellness-Learning-Inspiring-Fun-Experiences) which they describe as their 'moral compass' setting out the principles on which the company operates and seeks to inspire others. Their specific objectives are to:

- provider of unforgettable experiences without compromising sustainability (Live and Learn Environmental Education, 2008)
- to absorb more CO2 than the company releases

According to Wong (2006, p.3.) the company vision of luxury differs from the traditional being described as 'intelligent luxury', 'responsible luxury', 'rustic luxury' or 'barefoot luxury'. The concept is based on provision of luxury as rare pleasure obtained by a few, which is 'no shoes, no news'- relax in pristine, remote locations, where you can feel everything with your bare feet, enjoy organic food, privacy and enriching experiences. Soneva seeks to fulfill the promise of luxury (Draper et al 2008; Lifestyle and Travel, 2007) with a belief there is no contradiction between luxury and sustainability (Oines 2013)

Environmental impacts of Soneva

Draper et al. (2008) claim that Soneva Kiri successfully combines luxury accommodation with minimal impact on the environment. WWF et al. (2010) positively evaluate the performance of Soneva Fushi and report that energy consumption in the resort was 390 MJ per guest night in 2005 and in five years it decreased to 285 MJ in 2009confirming that Soneva performs better than other luxurious resorts (see Table 1). The issue of water consumption, which can be a problem in island locations, has been solved by production of their own fresh water through a combination of collecting rain water, deep wells and desalination (Oines 2014).

WWF et al. (2010) highlights that in 2009 Soneva Fushi used diesel fuel to produce 85% of its energy. There are no independent sources on the amount of CO_2 produced by Soneva, however according to Oines (2014), the resorts produced 37 kg of CO_2 per resident night in 2013-14 of which 25 kg is direct energy consumption. This marginally exceeds standard emission for an average hotel but is significantly lower that the norm for luxury hotels (Gössling, 2002: Gössling, 2010), although the figures were calculated per resident, which included staff living on the island who are likely to produce less CO_2 than the guests. Furthermore, the company missed targets to

decarbonize by 2010 (Lifestyle and Travel 2007) and by2012 (WWF et. al 2010). The current declared target of 2020 (Sloan, et al. 2009) seems unrealistic.CO_2 emissions from direct energy use are not reducing, in fact they have increased by 9% on 2008 – 09, due in part to an increase in arrivals (Oines, 2014).

An interesting approach taken by the company is their definition of decarbonizing as 'taking measures to absorb more carbon dioxide than we release' (Onines 2014: p4). They identify that 83% of their emissions are in the supply chain totally outside their control including 71% of total emissions attributed to guest air travel. The company claims a responsibility to account for and mitigate these emissions and therefore a major element of their contribution is to administer a carbon levy on guest bills (2% of room revenue) and invest the revenue raised in 4 Carbon mitigation projects, of which the largest is a forest restoration project. Whilst taking responsibility for the holistic carbon footprint for the two resorts seems eminently responsible, the approach does raise a number of key issues initially discussed in sections 2.3 and 2.4. In the first instant it does reiterate the importance of transport as the dominant contributor to tourism's carbon emissions and this becomes even more pronounced for remote locations. The second key question raised is whether offsetting in this way generates more publicity than on-site initiatives, misleads consumers and reduces the organization's emphasis on its own performance to reduce direct carbon emissions. Certainly, the cost of mitigation is being passed from the service provider directly to the consumer and furthermore the service provider is consistently failing to meet its direct energy mitigation targets. Ironically, the emissions per resident night excluding air travel are static since 2008 – 09, and this is only achieved as indirect emissions in the supply chain have reduced to compensate for the rising emissions from direct energy at the resorts.

WWF et al. (2010) highlight the efforts of Soneva Fushi to reuse its waste, however in 2009 the amount of landfill waste per guest night was 4.7 liters (some 2.35 kg according to the UK Environment Agency (2012)) - well above the benchmark of 0.5 kg. In the sustainability report there are no exact figures on current waste production however it does report 79% of the waste is recycled, significantly up on the 27% reported in 2008-09, again perhaps confirming the assertion in section 2.3 that recycling is successfully practiced by luxury brands more easily than the reduction of CO_2 emissions.

Draper et al. (2008) highlight that Soneva resorts use natural materials and the resort facilities are well blended with the surroundings and spread less densely than in other resorts. WWF et al. (2010) add that Soneva protects trees and indigenous plant species.

The resorts provide training and employment opportunities to local people (350 employees in Soneva Fushi (Live and Learn Environmental Education, 2008)) who have a priority to apply for a job (Wong, 2006). However, the company website reveals that foreigners occupy higher positions (even such as chefs). Due to the island location majority of the goods are imported (75% in Soneva Fushi), however the company makes efforts to cooperate with the local communities to source from them products such as fruits and homemade preserves (WWF et al., 2010). Furthermore the resorts produce around 15 tons of the fruit and vegetables in the resorts organic gardens, which represents around 20 – 30% of the total consumed (interview with Soneva representative) which it is claimed saves a further 47 tons of carbon emissions as a

consequence of the reduced levels of import (Oines 2014).

Overall, the report highlights the marketing value of sustainability to provide competitive advantage, to differentiate Soneva from other boutique luxurious resorts. The company is not eco-labeled however, it cooperates with registered charities and foundations to develop CSR initiatives and produce external reports such as the ones by WWF et al. (2010) and Live and Learn Environmental Education (2008).

Methodology

The aim of this paper is to explore whether well-managed luxury tourism and hospitality can contribute to sustainable development. The philosophy and performance of the accommodation provider was based on a critical analysis of Soneva's sustainability audits, see Case Study Soneva Group. This was supplemented by a semi-structured interview with a Soneva representative where clarification or additional comment was sought.

To explore the expectations, perception and motives of consumers, qualitative data was required from Soneva's customers. The researchers undertook a netnography approach (Kozinets, 2002: Kozinets 2010) to access large amounts of knowledge-rich information undertaking an analysis of 292 reviews of Soneva resorts posted by the visitors on review websites.

Netnography is defined as a research methodology which gathers from ethnographic study techniques to analyze the reflexive narratives published on the internet by individuals (Kozinets, 2002), therefore sometimes it is named digital ethnography (Murthy, 2008)
or virtual ethnography (Watson, et al., 2008). The aim of netnographic research is to gain insight into the communities and cultures, which arise through use of the modern ICT (Kozinets, 2010).

Groups, which can be targeted as research samples are the users of websites, which give opportunities to post, comment, and upload files or to follow the User Generated Content (UGC) left by others. The research on users of social media involves several steps, which are similar to the process of traditional ethnographic study (Table 4.) and involves analysis of user-generated content. One of the most popular UGC categories in tourism are online reviews, which mainly focus on accommodation and attractions. According to Moscardo and Benckendorff (2010), user generated content is a source of qualitative data similar to word of mouth and it has a potential to be more powerful than traditional word-based sources (Moscardo and Benckendorff, 2010) as the unprecedented amounts of knowledge-rich information open new opportunities for qualitative analysis.

The netnographic research conducted for the needs of this dissertation was a form of non-participant observation based on reviews analysis. Non- intrusive observation aims avoidance of unwanted influence of the researcher (outsider) to the community (Elliott and Jankel-Elliot, 2003).

Table 4. Simplified Flow of a Netnographic Research Project. Amended from Kozinets (2010). The statements in italics show how the steps are followed in this study.

Step 1.
Definition of research questions, social sites or topics to investigate
- Identify key question - to explore the relationships between luxury and sustainability in the tourism accommodation offered by Soneva from a consumer's perspective.

Step. 2.
Community identification and selection
- People who visited Soneva Fushi and/or Soneva Kiri and posted reviews of the resorts on the following websites: TripAdvisor, Booking.com, Holidaywatchdog, Agoda, Expedia,TravelPod, Yahoo!Travel and Google Reviews.

Step 3.
Community participant-observation and data collection (ensure ethical procedures)
- Non- intrusive collection of reviews identified as relevant for the study.

Step 4.
Data analysis and iterative interpretation of findings.
- Analysis of the reviews though coding and interpretation of themes.

Step 5.
Write, present and report research findings and/or theoretical and/or policy implications
- Results and discussion chapter.

A search engine (Google) was used to identify websites containing reviews of Soneva Resorts. The key words used were 'Soneva Fushi review' and 'Soneva Kiri review'. 'Soneva review' is not typed in to avoid results for Soneva Gili, which is not currently part of the Soneva Group. The results come up on TripAdvisor, Booking.com, Holidaywatchdog, Agoda,Expedia,TravelPod, Yahoo!Travel and Google Plus Reviews.

Reviews were rejected on the following grounds:
- Reviews, which are based exclusively on numeric rating and do not contain any comment.
- Reviews, where comments do not provide significant qualitative information or views in addition to the numeric rating. The examples include: 'very good hotel, I recommend', 'excellent service', 'very good value for money'
- Reviews, which were impossible to translate using the author's language skills or online translators. In case of some certain languages (for instance Japanese) or particular messages (for example using slang), online translators are not able to produce reasonable translation.

Table 5. Number of Reviews of Soneva Resorts Found on the Internet

Source (website)	Soneva Fushi Number of Reviews	Soneva Kiri Number of Reviews	Soneva Numberof Reviews
TripAdvisor	227	207	434
Booking.com	6	2	8
Holidaywatchdog	13	0	13
Agoda	10	16	26
Expedia	3	0	3
TravelPod	10	0	10
Yahoo!Travel	8	0	8
Google Plus Reviews	13	2	15
Total	**290**	**227**	**517**

As on 2nd March 2013
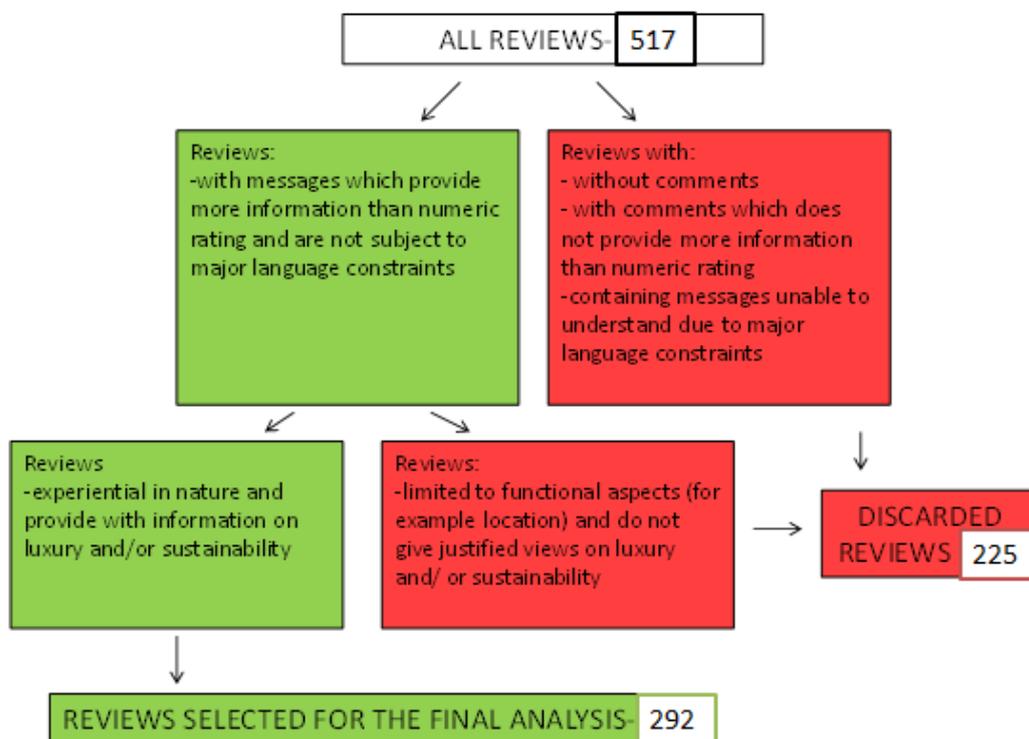
Fig. 2. The Process of Reviews Selection

The second step was to discard the reviews, which do not provide any information on the main subjects of this study- luxury and sustainability. Some of the rejected reviews may contain positive information on customer satisfaction or quality (often associated with luxury). Nevertheless, statements such as 'we had a great time' and 'stunning location' or 'friendly staff' do not indicate luxury and could be applied equally to other accommodation sectors.

Results and Discussion

The 292 reviews identified as relevant for the study were analyzed and coded to identify key themes.

Most of the reviews were posted on Trip Advisor (Table 5), by leisure travelers. The largest groups were couples (48%) and families (28%). The Soneva interviewee confirmed that the profile of customers was changing from a dominance of couples to an increasing number of families. Over 75% of the reviews were in English despite various nationalities of the guests, who often did not state their country. Soneva typically attracts the guests came from the UK and Germany (interview), which was reflected in the reviews. French was also frequently used in the reviews.

Content analysis with using of Leximancer showed high frequency use of certain words and apart from obvious subjects of reviews ('resort', 'food', 'room') many people wrote about 'time' and 'experience', which shows importance of intangible elements of a holiday. 'Luxury' as well as 'nature' were also among the most popular words.

Qualitative analysis of the reviews identified six main themes. The three most apparent themes were 'Barefoot Experience' 'Classic Luxury' (food, service and villas), and 'Eco-friendliness' and they often appeared together in one review. Other emerging themes were: 'Blissful Experience' (related to 'Classic Luxury' as well as to 'Barefoot Experience') and 'Not for Everyone' related to 'Disappointment'.

Barefoot Experience at Soneva.

Soneva satisfied most of the consumers with the concept of luxury labelled as 'intelligent' or 'barefoot'.

'We have the notion of luxury, which is different to the traditional view. For us luxury is what people lack.(…) This is what we give them- a special experience, which you cannot have living city life- at our resorts they literally take of their shoes to feel everything on their feet and they can enjoy fresh air and local food.' (Soneva representative).

He went on to argue that luxury was the dominant attraction:

> 'I would say the exclusivity and the luxury as we define it appeals to guests most. I would say there are few guests who come here primarily for sustainability however they want our concept of barefoot, intelligent luxury.'(Soneva representative).

The consumers confirmed this perspective. More than a half of the analyzed reviews (52%) mentioned barefoot luxury experience, almost 40% included apparent references to classic luxury (as defined by Heine: 2011)) and over a quarter (26%) described Soneva as eco-friendly and/or gave particular examples of sustainability observed. The results reflected the importance of the barefoot luxury concept, which in case of repeat customers was the dominant motivational factor.

> 'When you think of luxury it might be the surroundings, or the materials or the service. With Soneva Fushi the luxury comes with how the island makes you feel; complete happiness and an overwhelming sense of privilege to have encountered such an experience.'

'It's a difficult thing to explain experience which is best of everything whilst still being so incredibly peaceful and unpretentious.'

'So rustic, relaxing, refreshing, breath of 5 star fresh air'

'No bling bling here, just back to nature. Everyone is bare feet (…) the bird calls (…) the snorkeling. Like a Discovery Channel, you can touch! (…) I switched off my Wi-Fi and disconnected from the world and the Blackberry! This was the best time of my life'

'A better kind of luxury'

'No golden taps here, it's 'intelligent luxury' as they call it.'

The successful marketing of barefoot luxury concept confirms the popularity of a green tourism product amongst a wealthy yet more environmentally conscious market.

Classic Luxury at Soneva

Consumers, who agreed that the level of luxury was very high and that Soneva fulfilled the promise to deliver it in their own way, support the company philosophy that there was no conflict between luxury and sustainability.

'I had been told by my husband that the resort was rustic and I did have some reservations (kept to myself!) about this. However I needn't have worries- the resort was extremely luxurious but in a very natural way and I loved it.'

The traditional luxury was reflected in high quality and variety of food, service as well as spacious villas with private beach and exceptional customer service.

'Crusoe would have been certainly obese, had he lived here!'

'They provided us a 'picnic', which was more like a feast for a king'

'The food is of near Michelin star quality and the diversity and quality of beverages have to be tasted to be believed.'

'These beautiful rooms are very spacious all fitted with excellent amenities: ipods, hidden flat screens, espresso machines, game tables, multiple sofas, jacuzzis sized bath, private pools and gardens (…)'

'The service is seamless and the highest calibre'

Blissful Experience at Soneva

Most of the respondents felt that the philosophy of Soneva enhanced luxury rather than compromised it and that the blend of factors related to CSR and classic luxury resulted in blissful

holiday experience. This was reflected in the reviews- as many as nearly 30% of the reviews included words such as 'bliss', 'paradise', 'heaven', 'dream', 'pampered' and 'indulgence' or synonyms in relation to Soneva.

> 'The term 'paradise' is often overused but it's hard to imagine finding a more perfect setting with such wonderful food and friendly helpful staff anywhere on the planet'

> 'The Soneva family has been able to transform such a beautiful island into a paradise.'

> 'Humbled you will kneel
> Troubled souls are healed
> And leaving you'll believe
> You've been SonevaFushi filled'

Soneva as a Place Not for Everyone and a Disappointing Experience

It is beyond any doubt that the vast majority of the customers were satisfied with their experience with Soneva as 90 – 95% reviews stating very high levels of customer satisfaction. Nevertheless more than a quarter of the reviews included at least one negative comment. Most of them referred to high prices and incremental charges, which affected perceived value for money. One of the guests summed it up bluntly:

> 'To me it's a RyanAir / Low Cost Airline approach to incremental revenue, yet Soneva [is] actually selling, charging and delivering a Rolls Royce premium product (…) ultimately that detracts from the 'experience' which is what Soneva say they are all about.'

There was expectation gap for a minority of guests who did not agree that Soneva provided sufficient degree of luxury through the experience offered. While there were no comparisons of Soneva to other resorts in terms of sustainability, several reviews gave examples of the resorts, which offered greater degree of luxury. Some of the critics identified themselves as 'loyal customers of Aman resorts.

> 'We had previously been to (in order) Lohi Fushi, Laguna Beach, Vilamendhoo, White Sands and the Hilon, with the Hilton still being well ahead of the rest (…) Soneva is unbelievably rustic, at first you think it's charming and it is very 'natural' but when you pay for a 5 star resort, you still expect luxury, which we felt was lacking. (…) Where we felt Soneva let us down was in just how rustic it was. I didn't expect the pictures I had seen of it to be literal with it being 5 star. I thought that the pictures were dated, but this is what it actually looks like.'

> 'If any of the above would have happened at say Aman resort (and those things would never happen in an Aman resort in the first place) then the management would have immediately approached us'

Many customers highlighted that Soneva would not appeal to those looking for a lavish kind of

luxury.

'If you like bling and marble, flashy gadgets and dressing to impress, this is not the place for you.'

A third issue identified by consumers was that luxury was affected by the presence of wildlife identifying genuine luxury-sustainability conflicts. The statements by the customers demonstrated that they thought they wanted eco-friendly product however, the real expectation was sanitization of their experience (Urry, 2002) to remove any natural inconveniences.

> 'the lush vegetation attracts tons of mosquitoes'

> 'The island has a terrible infestation of Tussock moth caterpillars (…) this means that the hairy spines on the pupae were floating invisibly through the air, which are highly irritant to skin. Nearly everybody was suffering from a horribly itchy rash (…) they need to tackle it by removing the Indian almond trees on which the caterpillars feed (…) This is really sad since the eco-friendly ethos of Soneva Fushi is a part of its boundless charm, but if they re-plant with other trees, I'm sure all would be back to perfection as normal!'

> 'As we were riding with our Friday, there was piercing noise which sounded exactly like a fire alarm. I inquired as to what I was hearing and she replied, cicadas.'

> 'I really did not like the dogs on the main beach- I know they are a part of the island, but they were constantly near the guests looking for food and wanting to play (…) we found a little SNAKE in our bedroom. (…) I was ready for rats, insects, bats, geckos and many other animals, because we travelled extensively in South East Asia and South Africa and we know that we are visiting their environment and not vice versa, but not for snakes.'

Eco-friendliness at Soneva

A significant group of customers mentioned observation of sustainable practices; however, the study revealed a gap between the WCED (1987) definition and the notion of sustainability by ordinary tourists. First of all very few people used the term 'sustainability', most used terms 'eco-', 'environmental', 'green' and 'nature'. Customers understood sustainability primarily as care about the natural environment. What appealed to the guests most was appearance of the villas, which were blended with the natural environment and lush vegetation. Other remarks included two main points- recycling and growing own produce.

> 'I was particularly impressed with the organic farm, as well as the resort's commitment to create a culture of environmental responsibility by adopting 'green' initiatives such as Eco Centro 'Waste to Wealth' and eliminating the use of plastic bags'

> 'Roman showed us around the island and his passion for what the island offers, the ethos of recycling and green approach was nothing short of brilliant.'

'What we loved most about the resort was that it was naturally beautiful with 70% of
the island covered by rainforest'

None of the customers mentioned eco-labels in any of the reviews. The attitude of Soneva
confirms the findings of Reiser and Simmons (2005) and Cristiana (2008) that eco-labels are
ineffective.

'You have to pay for a license and you can do the same things for sustainability,
without eco labels. We stopped using eco-labels. Other than that, there are so many of
them that it is hard for the consumers to recognize them and they don't know what
they mean. Sometimes it is better to let the customers see themselves what the
company is doing for sustainability (…)(Soneva representative).

We have high rate of repeat visits (50%) - the people come repeatedly ten, fifteen times,
sometimes on yearly basis as they can see that our business is sustainable. They don't come
because we have a green label, they come because they like the product and can see that
everything we do is linked to our core philosophy of a SLOW LIFE product. They do feel and see
that we use sustainability practices... People know what is sustainable what is not and they can
see what you do.'(Soneva representative).

However, analysis of the reviews reflected the limited information the customers based their
opinions on when left solely to their own observation, focusing on the physical appearance of the
resorts, recycling and organic gardens.

Very few customers noted the social realm of sustainability. There were comments were that the
staff were happy and that Soneva was involved in cooperation with charities whilst the
occupation of all managerial positions at Soneva by foreigners, as in a typical luxury resort
(Hemmati and Koehler, 2000), did not illicit any comment in the reviews posted.

'The beauty is enriched by the warmth of staff (…) It was evident that they are well
looked after by their employers and happy to be on the island just like everyone else.'

The Soneva representative argued that 'barefoot luxury' helped to bridge the gap between the
guests and the hosts in terms of wealth difference and cultural distance, but this is at a superficial
level rather than opening realistic career path opportunities to the host population.

'People become more equal as we tell them to take their shoes off, wear casual
clothes. You can't see that much the wealth of the guests and although they are more
wealthy it's all about sharing experiences together.'(Soneva representative).

Generally, customers evaluated Soneva as sustainable. There were only two comments, which
openly suggested 'greenwashing'.

'a mix of various ideologies, charities and marketing gimmicks such as SLOWLIFE and
Mr./Mrs. Robinson system pissed the **** of me. At the time of our visit they were
working with at least five different charities, which I think is a bit too much cause
related marketing for one resort.'

'we went to explore SF island with bicycles and found two dumps – one right in the middle of the island, with plenty of plastic bags (obviously standing there for a long time, see photo), and the second one is so called "Eco Centro" - utilization center, which rather looks like an unorganized dump, there one man made a small bonfire of some garbage. "Eco Garden" is very small place with few beds (basil, salads, sweet papers, tomatoes and eggplant). (…)'

On the one hand it was clear that sustainability commitments at Soneva are important although it clearly benefits financially from following the green marketing trend highlighted by Jamrozy (2007) charging a premium price.

Whilst one guest pointed out that sustainability appeared expensive there is also potential to decrease operating costs, especially through energy savings.

'The resort is looking as if it might be expensive to maintain. Although only open for a few years the mainly timber construction (with New Zealand stamp visible) is under constant attack from the sun and rain. The 'ecologically sustainable designs and materials' do not come cheap I suspect.'

The Soneva representative concluded with the opinion that sustainability and luxury are not compatible in typical luxurious tourism accommodation, and can only coexist if sustainability is integrated in the business model of an organization.

'One of the challenges is that not many companies view luxury in the way we view it. They see material possession as the source of luxury- if that's the way you cannot be good for the environment. The companies should revaluate how they view luxury.' (Soneva Representative)

Conclusions

It is possible to achieve a greater degree of compatibility between luxury and sustainability in tourism accommodation if sustainability is one of the core elements of the business model. Soneva uses sustainability as a part of their marketing strategy, which revolves around its flagship SLOW LIFE philosophy. It offers the kind of luxury and sustainability demanded by the consumers and achieves very high levels of consumer satisfaction.

However, the research identified that consumers, when left to their own observations, displayed a simplistic notion of sustainability. Whilst they value the efforts of Soneva to keep original lush vegetation, provide villas made of natural materials, which blend well with the surroundings, recycle their waste and produce their own fruit and vegetables, all highly visible policies, these mask less sustainable practices. Furthermore, the consumers sought a sanitized experience identifying several issues that the resort needed to address such as the number of insects and cicadas that are attracted by the vegetation.

Conflicts between luxury and sustainability remain. Soneva undertakes some practices, which may indicate some degree of 'greenwashing', most notably in their claims for de-carbonization at

a time when CO_2 emissions from their direct energy consumption continues to rise. Like many they find it easier to focus on carbon offsetting, CRS strategies and recycling whilst the key challenges of high carbon emissions and local sourcing, both of products and also recruiting or training of skilled staff for more senior or managerial roles, remain. Nevertheless, the practices at the resorts go beyond marketing gimmicks, the company achieves better sustainability performance in terms of energy consumption than an average luxurious resort, and it has made significant strides regarding water resources. There are examples of good practice and evidence of real intent, but it remains an example of 'work in progress'.

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A novel review approach on adventure tourism scholarship

Mingming Cheng, Deborah Edwards & Simon Darcy

*University of Technology Sydney, Australia,*mingming.cheng@uts.edu.au
University of Technology Sydney, Australia,Deborah.Edwards-1@uts.edu.au
University of Technology Sydney, Australia,simon.darcy@uts.edu.au

Key words: adventure tourism, literature review, bibliometric methods, co-citation analysis, quantitative systematic literature review

Introduction

As a niche market, adventure tourism has been developing rapidly in many regions and territories, evidenced by increasing number of participants and intensive growth of adventure tourism products (Adventure Travel Trade Association, 2013; Tourism New Zealand, 2013). It has become an important component of the tourism industry in many Western countries (e.g. New Zealand) and is gaining some prominence in domestic tourism in select emerging countries (e.g. China and Brazil). This particular growth of adventure tourism sector in past two decades is closely related to the increase of all types of nature-based tourism. Adventure tourism has been strongly likened to outdoor and adventure recreation (Buckley, 2006; Pomfret & Bramwell, 2014; Sung, Morrison, & O'Leary, 1996). Buckley (2006), for example, sees little distinction between the terms adventure tourism, nature tourism, outdoor and adventure recreation in some cases. However, research in adventure tourism has been slight, especially when compared with the large number of other dominant special interest tourism studies (Buckley, 2010). As such, an updated review article on adventure tourism in the tourism context seems essential.

The aim of this paper is to advance extant reviews on adventure tourism through a more, systematic, objective and integrated review of this literature. The distinctive contribution of this study is our novel and comprehensive empirical approach in analyzing the structure and content of the adventure tourism field. Our approach identifies the theoretical foundations and key themes that underpin the core of the adventure tourism field by combining bibliometric methods of network based direction-citation and co-citation analysis, content analysis and a quantitative systemic review.

Methods

In this study, adventure tourism related publications were identified through EBSCOHost, Science Direct, and Google Scholar, three of the largest and most popular online databases and search engines (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Only articles published in refereed academic journals were reviewed, as these papers have already been evaluated to be of a suitable standard for publication (Jang & Park, 2011) and the assessment of references from this article strengthens the reliability of the results obtained by using bibliometric analysis (Ramos-Rodríguez & Ruíz-Navarro, 2004). As a result, 114 articles were identified.

Co-citation analysis enables a clear picture of the theoretical foundation and structure of a

particular field. Content analysis allows the researcher to uncover conceptual insights in details by moving the level of analysis from authors and their citations to the actual text used by the authors. This facilitates the systematic discovery of key themes and concepts within the adventure tourism field. Quantitative systemic review approach helps map the literature in a quantitative manner to highlight the boundaries around generalizations derived from the literature. The use of these complementary approaches allows for a more structured, vigorous and holistic overview of this rapidly growing field, as it helps reduce the bias that are often related to traditional literature reviews and expert interviews.

Discussion

Our study reveals three broad research areas within adventure tourism research: (1) the adventure tourism experience, (2) destination planning and development, and (3) adventure tourism operators. Thus far, the literature is predominately concerned with adventure tourism experience, while destination planning, development, and adventure tourism operators have received relatively little attention despite being regarded as equally important in recent years. More specifically, academic literature on adventure tourism experience has a strong focus on Western tourists, while an emerging Asian tourist segment is notably under-represented. Adventure tourism has an intellectual tradition from a variety of disciplines, such as sports, psychology and recreation.

Despite the gradually changing focus, the scholarship in adventure tourism field is not as diverse, updated or as in-depth as many other tourism niche markets. This highlights the early stages of adventure tourism investigation and the physical difficulty of the researchers to personally experience (Pomfret & Bramwell, 2014) or of the environment to research that challenged the ecological validity (Jones, Hollenhorst, & Perna, 2003). Yet, our co-citation analysis indicates that while there is not any particular reference dominating the whole network, it does show the importance of several authors' works that bridge a number of research domains, such as Weber (2001) and Beedie and Hudson (2003). There appears a need for better integration of other related disciplinary theories with adventure tourism research.

Conclusion

Thus, our findings present a clearer and richer understanding of different school of thoughts and key concepts that comprise adventure tourism, and establish a more theoretically and unified grounded framework for the field. Future research directions include further investigations from an emic approach to different adventure tourism segments, particularly Asian tourists and the link between adventure tourism and new trends (e.g. social media). Advancing cross-disciplinary approaches to conceptualize adventure tourism will aid in addressing the challenges posed to understanding this complex phenomena. This systematic, objective and integrated review of this literature has facilitated a rigorous approach by which to integrate and extend research on adventure tourism and associated literature review research methods.

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The role of souvenir vendors in the cultural sustainability of a World Heritage Site:The case of Chichen Itza, Mexico

Ady Milman

University of Central Florida, Orlando, Ady.Milman@ucf.edu

Key words: cultural sustainability, heritage, souvenir vendors, host community, World Heritage Site

Abstract

The research investigated the role of souvenir vendors in sustaining the social-cultural authenticity of Chichen Itza's host community, a Mexican UNESCO World Heritage Site (WHS) (UNESCO, 2015[a]). The case study evaluated the Maya-descent vendors' practice of merchandising as an activity-based strategy (Saarinen, 2006) to conserve their heritage and sustain their culture.

Research on World Heritage Sites (WHS) is extensive. Some scholars argued that community participation is crucial for successful heritage tourism and community development (Su & Wall, 2014). The level of participation by local communities in theprocess of sustainable tourism may vary according to the nature and context of the specific heritage site. The majority of the studies addressed broad tourism impacts on WHS such as economic, socio-cultural, physical, or attitudinal changes (Aas et al., 2005; Jimura, 2011; Okech, 2010; Scheyvens, 2003; Su & Wall, 2012, 2014). However, the literature lacks specific examples of the tactics adopted by various stakeholders that affected tourism development and sustainability at a WHS.

Methodology

One strategy to sustain tourism at a specific destination or an attraction is selling souvenirs at the destination. To investigate the role of Chichen Itza's souvenir vendors in the context of the tourist experience, the study applied a combination of participant observation and visual research methods. The unobtrusive observations were conducted during the researcher's visit to Chichen Itza. The observations span over eight hours, coupled with informal conversations with twenty tourists and ten vendors. The goal of the fieldwork was to observe and record: (1) the souvenir vendors' verbal and non-verbal interaction with the tourists (2) the interaction among the souvenir vendors and (3) informal conversations with tourists about their overall experience with the souvenir vendors. Hashimoto &Telfer (2007) adopted similar approach.

The visual sampling was accomplished by taking about 100 photographs of Chichen Itza's souvenir vendors. While the photographs taken did not adopt a particular visual research method (Tinkler, 2013), the primary goal of the photography was to develop a visual document of the vendors, the type of souvenirs they displayed, the vendors' selling outlets in relation to the historic monuments, and the vendors' communication process with the visitors. The photographs were taken throughout the archaeological site, where the vendors' stalls were displayed. The sampling approach was purposive (Noth, 1990), inductive and non-random, and was designed to identify a maximum variety of images (Patton, 1990).

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Findings

The participant observations and the photographic documentation yielded a few interpretations. First, the vendors were located on all walkways of the historical monuments and consequently, tourists were reluctantly exposed to the vendors' stalls when strolling from one historical monument to another (Figure 1). This phenomenon is distinctive, as many tourist attractions offer souvenir outlets at the attraction's exit.

The type of merchandise varied from one stall to another and included stone carvings, woodcarvings, wood sculptures of black jaguars, mini El Castillo pyramids, musical instruments that make a sound like a jaguar's growl. Flutes, plates with the Maya calendar, masks, silver jewelry, painted leather squares, cloth items, blankets, hammocks, pottery, and other non-related souvenirs associated with Mexico's tourist attractions or just ordinary generic items (Peters, 2011). The manufacturing origin and some of the souvenirs'authenticity may have not necessarily reflected the Mayan culture or the vendors' cultural sustainability effort.As in other tourist attractions, the souvenir vendors were primarily interested in economic benefits rather than conserving the cultural heritage (Trinh et al., 2014; Swanson &Horridge, 2004).

Second, the vendors represented an array of demographics in terms of age, gender, family structure, and origin. Third, the vendors demonstrated different degrees of assertiveness when trying to sell their souvenirs to the visitors. Some vendors sat by their stalls and did not have any verbal or non-verbal communication with the visitors, while others were aggressively approaching tourists verbally and physically.

Fourth, the souvenirs could be classified to several categories according to their level of authenticity. The majority of the souvenirs were linked to the Mayan culture, however; some vendors admitted that not all souvenirs were locally produced. While several vendors actually seemed to produce the souvenirs on site, the handicraft's authenticity may be questionable, as some vendors may have pretended to be carving a particular mask (Figure 2). Furthermore, the souvenirs were not always related to Chichen Itza's theme or the Mayan Culture. For example, some souvenirs featured penguins that were not indigenous to the Yucatan Peninsula (Figure 3). The continual blowing of jaguar whistles each time a group of visitors walked by the stallsseemed to annoy the visitors to the WHS.

Figure 1: Chichen Itza's footpath linking the archaeological sites with vendors' stalls

Figure 2:Chichen Itza's vendor carving a mask

Figure 3:Chichen Itza's vendor display with penguins

Discussion and conclusions

While numerous contributions were made on the role of souvenirs in the overall guest experience, this study took a different approach by studying the important role of the vendors, rather than the actual merchandise sold. The findings confirmed that the excessive retail activity at Chichen Itza has negatively affected the majority of the visitors' experience, as the souvenir vendors provided almost an equal non-negotiable stage for the overall visitor experience at Chichen Itza. Thevisitors' experience infringement affected not only theirexploration of the historical and archaeological assets of site, but also the spiritual aspect of many visitors.

The major issue of concern is whether the presence of Chichen Itza's souvenir vendors, who claim to be Maya descendants, is indeed a genuine attempt to maintain the socio-cultural authenticity of the host community, to conserve its cultural heritage and traditional values, and to contribute to inter-cultural understanding (WTO, 2015). Interest in sustainability can be linked to two related economic and social processes that characterize the relationship between souvenir vendors' desire to generate income and the overall sustainability goals of federal and local government organizations (Redclift, 2001).

The conversion of culture and heritage into purely economic values and political power may affect the long-term sustainability of the site. The study recommends adopting new reforms that will benefit all entities involved in the site's operation, including negotiating culture, identities and 'being Maya' within the contemporary Mexican society, socio-economic benefits to the stakeholders, securing the government's control of the site, stabilizing employment and income-earning opportunities, and social services for the host communities.

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Can we eat it? Exploring the cultural challenges in marine ecotourism in Africa

Judy Mann, Roy Ballantyne& Jan Packer

South African Association for Marine Biological Research, South Africa,
jmann@saambr.org.za
School of Business (Tourism), University of Queensland, Australia,
r.ballantyne@uq.edu.au
School of Business (Tourism), University of Queensland, Australia, j.packer@uq.edu.au

Key words: South Africa, visitors, cross-culture, NGO,wildlife-based tourism, aquarium

Introduction

Can we eat it? How did you stop the waves? Is there water in there? Where is the switch to turn it off? Will it eat me? These are just some of the many questions asked by visitors to uShaka Sea World in Durban, South Africa. While South Africa has a coastline of over 3000km, the country is not a maritime nation. Most South African citizens are unaware of marine life, the ocean and the important role of the ocean in daily life. In fact, there is no word for aquarium in nine of the 11 official languages of the country. This raises some interesting challenges when communicating about the marine environment atthis large aquarium complex on the east coast of Africa.

Opened in 2004, uShaka Sea World provides visitors with a window into the Western Indian Ocean and is home to a large and diverse collection of marine life, representative of local seas. The South African Association owns the aquarium complex for Marine Biological Research (SAAMBR), a non-government (NGO), not-for-profit (NPO) organizationthat was founded in the early 1950's in response to a need for conservation of local marine resources.

The association achieves its mission through the operation of three divisions:
- The Oceanographic Research Instituteundertakes applied marine research along much of the eastern coast of Africa.
- The Sea World Education Centrereaches learners, teachers, managers and users of marine resources from all sectors of the community with its extensive range marine environmental education programs.
- uShaka Sea Worldinspires over 700 000 visitors per year to care for our oceans through innovative and immersive experiences.

How can South Africans be expected to care for ecosystems, animals and plants that they have never heard of, let alone seen? uShaka Sea World is the only accessible place for most Africans to experience marine life. This provides an excellent opportunity to introduce an entirely new wildlife-based tourism environment, but also an immense challenge, as to most South Africans, wildlife-based tourism is focused entirely on terrestrial mammals, birds and plants.

Shaka Sea World primary role is to:

- introduce visitors to marine animals, ecosystems and the ocean;
- inspire care through building an emotional connection between animals and visitors;
- help visitors to connect their daily lives with the ocean through building an understanding of the role that oceans play in everyday life; and
- to empower visitors to make wise decisions about how to reduce their impact on the environment.

This model of Introduction, Inspiration, Connection and Empowerment is termed the IICE model of visitor engagement.

To date, most of the research undertaken with visitors to aquariums and zoos has been conducted in Western countries (Davey, 2006; Dierking, Burtnyk, Büchner, & Falk, 2002; Schram, 2011) with research in developing countries remaining notably absent. Understanding multicultural audiences is gradually becoming a more important research imperative in Western countries, as visitors to educational leisure settings, including aquariums and zoos, become more diverse. The concept of 'cultural sensitivity' is now being included in visitor research (American Association of Museums, 2008), while building an understanding of how different cultures respond to surveys(Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001; Dolnicar & Grün, 2007), as well as how they experience educational leisure settings is increasingly important(Hughes, Ballantyne, & Packer, 2014; Packer, Ballantyne, & Hughes, 2014). As visitors to educational leisure settings become progressively more diverse, understanding them becomes more difficult, requiring sensitivity, respect and an open mind. Research, which helps to understand the influence of cultural diversity on learning in educational leisure settings will contribute to the field of visitor research internationally. South Africa is an ideal setting for research on cultural diversity, as the country is home to a wide range of cultures.

Methods

In order to build a better understanding of visitors to uShaka Sea World the organization recently embarked upon a visitor research program. Because of the multicultural nature of visitors, a focus on how different cultures experience the aquarium was included. A comprehensive survey of over 700 South African visitors to uShaka Sea World, representative of African, Indian and White population groups, was undertaken. Trained research assistants approached visitors as they entered the complex between July and December 2013. The survey used a range of pre-existing scales that measured demographic, psychographic and environmental orientation variables on entering and investigated how these influenced the visitors' experience and learning.

Results

This presentation will focus on some of the unique challenges associated with providing a meaningful experience to visitors from multiple cultures during a visit to an aquarium. The paper will explore some of the interesting opportunities provided by a multicultural visitor base. The paper will present the profiles of visitors to uShaka Sea World, will provide data on the impact of a visit to the facility on visitors' environmental learning and will explore the contribution of demographic, cultural and psychographic characteristics in predicting environmental learning outcomes.

The research found significant differences between the cultural groups with respect to certain demographic variables, environmental orientation and behavior variables, as well as environmental learning outcomes. The results presented will contribute to the development of experiences, which enhance environmental learning in facilities whose visitors are representative ofdifferent cultures. More specifically, the findings will contribute to our understanding of the characteristics of the South African visitor to nature based educational leisure settings, and thus will help other such facilities, including wildlife-based tourism enterprises, to reach their visitors more effectively. Ultimately, providing visitors with powerful environmental learning experiences will contribute to building the capacity of South Africans to address current environmental challenges.

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Lifelong learning for guiding and interpretation

Julia N. Albrecht & Trisha Dwyer

University of Otago, New Zealand,*julia.albrecht@otago.ac.nz*
Department of Conservation, New Zealand,*tdwyer@doc.govt.nz*

Key words: lifelong learning, guiding, interpretation, cultural tourism, visitor management

Introduction

Scholarship on guiding and interpretation positions formal training as a central factor in guide instruction. Guide training operates in the area that mediates between personal characteristics, attitudes and knowledge of the guides and what may be desirable qualities from the visitors' perspectives. Notably, this dichotomy is not necessarily reflected in the formal guide training provided by industry associations, tertiary education institutions and tour operating companies. Generally, the focus in training for guiding and interpretation is on knowledge of the tour content, communication skills, delivery of presentations, customer service skills, group management, and health and safety. Competency in particular skills such as climbing or kayaking may be required for adventure tourism guides. Certificates thus earned may be a requirement for future employment as a guide. The underlying assumption of these training approaches is that they are conducive to guide learning. Little is known about how guides actually acquire knowledge and develop their skills in guiding and interpretation over time. This paper departs from the assumption that training has a vital impact on guide development and instead posits lifelong learning as the most significant formative influence on guides. Studies on guiding have to date overlooked the importance of informal learning and its potentially influential role in professional development. This paper, based on primary empirical research on guides' perspectives on the interpretation of indigenous cultural heritage, argues that lifelong learning is more formative than formal guide training is and related education. Life experience and prior learning of both indigenous and non-indigenous guides inform and influence their performance. In addition to the empirical findings, the discussion in this paper is based on a review of the relevant literatures on guiding, interpretation, and learning in the context of tourism.

Literature

Despite the importance of guides to tourist experiences, there is little knowledge on how the guides obtain their knowledge and their skills. This is exacerbated by the fact that many guides have multiple roles, for example as drivers or tour leaders. These roles are particularly difficult to train for yet they determine much of the visitors' daily activity. All such roles share the significance of service as a performance attribute but the required skills differ strongly. For example, a tour leader who escorts a tourist group and oversees organizational aspects of a tour needs leadership and problem solving skills. A guide who interprets sites or attractions for a tour group must have the relevant knowledge as well as communication skills (Bowie & Chang, 2005; Weiler & Black, 2015).

Due to the importance of guiding for visitor satisfaction there has long been awareness of the need to adequately train guides (Cherem, 1977; Pond, 1993). It appears though that this awareness does not necessarily lead to an appreciation and understanding of what comprehensive training may address and achieve. Indeed, some sources suggest that the formal outcome of training (such as for example a license) is considered more important than genuine guide learning or tour content: "There is an urgent need to control the quality of freelance tour guides, by speeding up the process of certification, registration, or licensing" (Wong, 2001, p. 65). Some destinations do not train their guides at all (Ap& Wong, 2001). In most destinations today, professional guides acquire their knowledge through some form of formal instruction, followed by on the job training. Cohen (1985, p. 21) further emphasizes the importance of "informal socialization [sic] into the occupation and contact with more experienced colleagues".

Method

Embedded in social constructivist thinking, this paper offers an original account of guides' perspectives on lifelong learning for guiding and interpretation. In-depth interviews with indigenous and non-indigenous guides at two cultural tourism attractions in New Zealand form the empirical basis of this paper. The field sites TePuia, a cultural tourism attraction in Rotorua, New Zealand, and Te Papa, New Zealand's National Museum, are arguably the country's most established (Māori) cultural tourism attractions. Both organizations prioritize education over consumption of culture, thus allowing for comparisons of guide learning. All interviewees at both sites were offered the use of pseudonyms in reporting their statements. With the exception of one research participant who wished to remain anonymous, all interviewees preferred using their real names. The gender balance of research participants is representative of the gender balance of guides working in the attractions. There are 21 interviewees overall, seven female and 14 male; 14 Māori and 7 non- Māori. Both researchers separately using an inductive coding technique (Thomas, 2006) analyzed interviews. Both researchers identified the similar thematic strands within the interviewees' responses, and these were elaborated on in the preparation of this paper. Limitations include the fact that any insights resulting from this research are limited to cultural tourism. Whilst the insights might also be seen as limited to one culture only it is worth noting that one research site (Te Papa) uses guides from many places.

Findings, contribution and conclusion

This paper contributes to our understanding and appreciation of informal learning by tour guides. Emerging issues that the Think Tank presentation will discuss include learning at various stages in life, guiding as legacy and/ or lifestyle, self-directed learning experiences, cosmopolitanism in guides, credibility of guides, and changed meanings of content and the relationships between guides and those that are guided.

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A vacation from capitalism; what happens when the 'mass tourist' goes native?

Amy Savener

Indiana University, United States, savener@indiana.edu

Key words: sustainable tourism, intercultural communication, mass tourism, host communities, cognitive learning

Introduction

Philosophical and theoretical debates in tourism must be situated not just within economic and cultural contexts, but also political and social ones (Ataljevic, Pritchard & Morgan, 2007). Tourism is more than an 'industry,' Freya Higgins-Desbiolles argues, but a means for people to learn, to connect with others, for estranged cultures to learn about each other and even, to validate and encourage world peace (Higgens-Desbiolles, 2006).

While the tourist has been studied, motivations defined and thoroughly examined in the last few decades, the study of cultural interaction within Tourism Studies has been insufficiently narrow, analyzing tourism completely within the economic system in which it thrives. In tourism theory, scholarship often discusses "The Tourist" (MacCannell, 1989) and "The Tourist Gaze" (Urry, 1990), these works fail to acknowledge or recognize that the focus is on a particular tourist in a particular type of travel – Western tourists, traveling for pleasure, with disposable income to lavish on the experience of travel.

Question

You can take the mass tourist out of civilization, but can you take "mass tourism" out of them?

First premise: the "mass tourist"

This thesis depends on the formulation of an international mass tourist, one that hails from the west -- North America, Western Europe or Australia. (There are, of course, nonwestern individuals as well, many of whom come from Israel and increasingly westernized countries in the east and Middle East.) The idea is that this tourist lives in advanced capitalism, usually in somewhat urban settings. They are well-traveled and are accustomed to international hotels, airlines and being treated with branded and managed hospitality. There is a set of expectations and behaviors that constitute the ways the tourism industry treats this tourist. Because this tourist has enough disposable income to travel, they are either from a somewhat privileged background or *even if they are not*, they are treated as entitled paying customers.

Ironically, this treatment only exacerbates a sense of entitlement and honor associated with the travel experience. This phenomenon affects the way the tourist comports himself, the way she speaks, the elements in his realm of consciousness that he pays attention to. In fact, it is precisely because the tourism industry strives to oblige the tourists' whims and fancies that this tourist becomes somewhat alienated from her actual self. She is the quintessential Grand Tourist

(Towner, 1985), delighting in indulgence and awaiting her cushions to be fluffed and to get a better view out the glazed panes that protect her from wild animals on safari at Kruger and scary beggars in the back streets of Jaipur.

Although this is somewhat of a caricature, everyone can recognize the lampooned ideological construction of the embarrassing international tourist, wearing cameras and souvenirs. International tourists embody capitalism, using disposable income to pay for their travels. In Marxist terms, they sell their labor to indulge in leisure. Leisure is highly commodified today, something that Marx did not project – but is a clear trajectory from his work (Marx, 1993).

Second premise: the mass tourists leaves the bubble

When these mass tourists have their fill of created spectacle and visiting the places their friends have already visited, they begin to venture beyond the usual sites and places of mass tourism. They begin to seek remote destinations or extreme travel experiences such as participating in their favorite hobby from home in a dramatically different environment – running marathons through Ireland, skiing in the French Alps, testing their climbing veracity by climbing Kilimanjaro.

Third premise: when mass tourists find themselves in remote locations, their humanity is revealed

Many tourists, once they realize that they are basically walking through an intimate village setting not staged for authenticity, are stripped of guile, cultural and social capital. Their reaction is often to relax, begin laughing openly and gleefully, finding ways to connect with the Guna via hand gestures, laughter and simple games with Guna children.

Explanation of methods

This research is based on deductive ethnographic fieldwork where tourists and locals from dramatically different socioeconomic cultures convene is in a somewhat remote region in the Caribbean Sea northeast of the Panamanian isthmus – in Guna Yala. The archipelago is inhabited by the Guna indigenous people, who still live in subsistence, dress traditionally and resist modernity and outsiders. The author has spent a total of 17 weeks during five visits over the last nine years, collecting qualitative data including interviews and participant observation.

Findings

This paper will document the myriad ways that the Guna protect cultural solidarity and promote unity, while remaining wary of globalizing influences. They are shrewd, careful people – and they have a long history of mediated resistance. Their government does not allow foreign investment and has not invested in infrastructure – no roads, no signage, no formal hospitality. They also staunchly refuse to allow changes that would bring more traffic, keeping landing strips short and narrow so as to not accommodate larger aircraft.

Conclusions

When facing outsiders, the Guna are not marginalized (like many of their indigenous brethren globally). Therefore, this location serves as a control, a laboratory-like place where the actions and reactions of tourists weaned on international hospitality treatment can be examined. These tourists are suddenly stripped of the treatment they have come to expect.

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Environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature among sport event spectators as a growing tourist market

Elizabeth Ann Kruger

University of Pretoria, South Africa, elizabeth.kruger@up.ac.za

Key words: sport event tourists, environmental beliefs, feelings toward nature, environmentally responsible behaviour

Introduction

Tourists are often depicted as irresponsible consumers, with mass tourism being linked to extensive consumerism in society (Sharpley, 2012; Singh, 2012)and tourists as consumers are part of the "culture-ideology of consumerism" (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2010:119). Tourism is said to be a good example of consumerism because it is an 'induced want' and an optional item to consume, usually for pleasure-seeking purposes. The rate, at which tourism consumerism is growing, can be ascribed to tourism marketers telling people that they need it and that they have a 'right' to travel and tourism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2010).Despite the critical view of tourists as hedonistic consumers, countermeasures are also increasingly guiding tourists toward self-regulated, responsible consumption (UNWTO, N.d.). It is stated that very few tourists intentionally abuse the destinations they are visiting and that many visitors are seeking to make environmentally and socially responsible choices (Hall, 2009). At the same time little evidence has been found that tourists are fundamentally transforming to the principles of responsible tourism consumption (Ballantyne, Packer & Falk, 2011; Sharpley, 2012; Wu, Huang, Liu & Law, 2013), with existing studies revealing unawareness of individual impacts (Pearce, 2011).

As the power of the consumer can be regarded as a major force for progress towards greater sustainability of the tourism industry (Frey & George, 2010; Miller, 2003; Sharpley, Sharpley & Telfer, 2002), it is imperative to understand the associated beliefs among individuals. Environmentally responsible behavior is strongly influenced by individual differences in people and people tend to display consistent behavior (either positive or negative) toward the environment when at home or away in a destination setting (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009; Mehmetoglu, 2010b; Miao & Wei, 2013). Within tourism literature a vast amount of studies exist that explore topics within the fields of ecotourism(see Chiu, Lee & Chen,2014; Juric, Cornwell & Mather, 2002; Lee & Moscardo, 2005; Wearing, Cynn, Ponting & McDonald, 2002; Wurzinger & Johansson, 2006); sustainable tourism(see Budeanu, 2007; Dolnicar, 2010; Hedlund, 2011; Lee, Jan & Yang, 2013; Weeden, 2011); and nature-based tourism (see Andereck, 2009; Ballantyne, Packer & Hughes, 2009; Curtis, Ham & Weiler, 2010; Lee,2011; Luo & Deng, 2008; Mehmetoglu, 2010a; Perkins & Brown, 2012; Puhakka, 2011). Some studies also focus on specific sectors such as events (see Choi, 2011; Krugell & Saayman, 2012;Lee, Barber &Tyrrell, 2013; Mair & Laing, 2013) and accommodation (see Kim, Palakurthi & Hancer, 2012; Kim, Chang, Lee & Huh, 2011;

Mensah, 2012).

In a review of sustainable tourism research, Lu and Nepal (2009:10) found nature-based, culture/heritage, urban, eco and alternative tourism to be the most researched types of tourism covered by a major sustainable tourism journal. However, very little to no research has been conducted to explore this topic within one of the fastest growing niche sectors of tourism, namely event sports tourism (Byeon, Carr & Hall, 2009; Getz, 2008; Hums, 2010; Weed, 2009). The question arises whether sports tourism could in fact be regarded as a sustainable form of tourism, not only in terms of the broader concept of sustainability, but also especially in terms of the natural environment. Event sports tourism, as a sub-sector of sports tourism, is defined as "Tourism where the prime purpose of the trip is to take part in sports events, either as a participant or as a spectator." (Weed &Bull, 2004:131). Given the growth of this sector (Weed, 2009) as well as the associated impacts of sports events on the environment (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009; Thibault, 2009) it is imperative to explore the environmental orientations of consumers within this specific niche tourism market.

Within the sports industry there is recognition among practitioners (event owners, organizers, suppliers and the public sector) of the importance of environmental sustainability, resulting in an increasing range of initiatives being undertaken to act in an environmentally responsible manner (Ahmed, Moodley & Sookrajh, 2008; Collins *et al.*, 2009; Huggins, 2003; Mallen, Stevens & Adams, 2011; Rydin, Seymour & Lorimer, 2011). There has also been notable advances in research in the field (Dowling, Robinson& Washington, 2013; Trendafilova, Babiak & Heinze, 2013), despite the economic and social dimensions of the sport sector receiving more attention (Rydin et al., 2011). Similar to consumer-focused studies in tourism, it is argued that event managers (including sports events) require more knowledge on consumer needs and motivations (Harris, Jago, Allen &Huyskens, 2001). Yet, there appears to be very little work on environmentally responsible behavior of sport event spectators as sports tourists (Ngyen, Iacono & Stratmann, 2011).

It has been proven that sports consumers (spectators) do not think that there is a strong relationship between the environment and sport (Ngyen et al., 2011), or that the environment is a responsibility of sport. It appears that a great opportunity is being lost to further the environmental cause as sports have been recognized as a platform through which causes and philanthropic endeavors can be contextualized (Greyser, 2011), having an inspirational effect on spectators (Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012). Testing the environmental beliefs of sport event spectators is therefore important to increase understanding of the factors that drive their environmental behavior. It is not guaranteed that sport event spectators, as tourists are in fact environmentally responsible individuals to start with (after Dolnicar & Grün, 2009). The question can be asked whether different types of outdoor sport events attract distinct groups of individuals and whether there are indeed distinctly different market segments within the outdoor sports event market that can be targeted as spectators who could make a substantial contribution to the overall environmental sustainability of these events. It is stated that the type of individuals that attend an event, as well as their level of awareness of the environment, will contribute to the environmental impact of the event (Ahmed *et al.*, 2008). The aim of this study is to test the environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature among sport event spectators as two factors that could influence their display of environmentally responsible behavior.

Literature overview

Factors influencing responsible environmental behavior

Environmentally responsible behavior is a multi-dimensional construct with a wide range of influencing factors, including environmental awareness, attitude, concern, commitment, environmental beliefs, ethics, feelings, knowledge, global values, ecological world views, place attachment, personality and social context (from Bonnes & Bonaiuto, 2002; Giuliani & Scopelliti, 2009; Günther, 2009; Winkel, Seagert & Evans, 2009). It is important to state that the different factors are difficult to delineate as "most are broadly and vaguely defined, interrelated, and often do not have clear boundaries". For example, environmental knowledge can be regarded as a subcategory of environmental awareness, while emotional involvement is said to be the factor shaping environmental awareness and attitude (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002:248).

Numerous authors have developed and tested models using varied factors in different combinations and study contexts. 'Attitude' is identified in several of these models as a key predictor of an individual's propensity to display environmentally responsible behavior (seeAjzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Bamberg & Möser, 2007; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Hungerford & Volk, 1990; Klöckner & Blöbaum; 2011; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Milfont, Duckitt & Wagner, 2010;Montaño&Kasprzyk; 2008). It is stated to determine the direction of intended behavior (Kraus, 1995). Attitudes are multidimensional, comprising a number of interrelated constructs. Some researchers state that attitude is comprised of three components, namely affective (feelings), cognitive (knowledge or beliefs) and conative (intentions or behavior) (Ong & Musa, 2012). The aim of this paper is to focus on the affective (feelings) and cognitive (beliefs) components; as will be discussed in the ensuing sections.

Environmental beliefs

It has been proven that sports consumers (spectators) do not think that there is a strong relationship between the environment and sport, or that the environment is a responsibility of sport (Ngyen et al., 2011). It is therefore argued that testing the environmental beliefs of sport event spectators is important to increase understanding of the factors that drive their environmental behavior. Such an understanding can inform event organizers on the dimensions of beliefs that should be addressed in environmental communication to change behavior (Roberts & Bacon, 1997). It is argued that testing the influence of general (environmental) beliefs is important as these beliefs underlie behavioral attitudes (De Groot & Steg, 2007), which in turn have a direct influence on environmental behavior Bamberg (2003:23) similarly stated that environmental concern is an "important indirect determinant of specific environmental behaviors which operates via its impact on the generation of situation-specific cognition".

In order to identify such beliefs about the natural environment a variety of existing scales can be used, including the Ecology Scale, the Environmental Concern Scale, and the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) (discussed in Milfont & Duckitt, 2010). The original NEP scale's 12-items consists of three facets including the reality of limits to growth, the fragility of nature's balance, and anti-anthropocentrism (human domination over nature)(Dunlap et al., 2000). Both the original and revised 15-item scales have been able to distinguish between environmentalists and non-

environmentalists in different cultures; correlate with other measures of general environmental attitude; and have been shown to predict environmentally responsible behavior (Dunlap & Van Liere, 2008). The NEP scale, which measures general beliefs about the relationship between humans and the natural environment (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010) has stood the test of time and is the most commonly used measure to investigate environmental issues (Ong & Musa, 2012). Various researchers have criticized the fact that the scale does not measure specific environmental concerns (e.g. global warming, noise pollution) or behaviors (e.g. recycling, carbon tax payments) (Mobley, Vagias & DeWard, 2010). Still, it is regarded as a standard measure of general environmental concern and has been widely used to test environmental attitudes (Ong & Musa, 2012; Puhakka, 2011).

The NEP has been applied in tourism and sport-related studies. For example to define tourist segments based on their environmental concern (Mehmetoglu, 2010) to test the relationship between environmental attitude and perceived quality, value and satisfaction of visitors to a festival (Choi, 2011) and to test the influence of environmental values and beliefs on support for environmentally responsible tourism (Perkins & Brown, 2012). As well as to assess the how strongly, environmental attitudes are associated with moral obligation between different tourist segments (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008) and to examine the relationship between general environmental concern, activity specific attitudes and ERB among SCUBA divers (Ong & Musa, 2012), and to test the influence of environmental concerns on the ERB of visitors to a ski resort (Nathaniel, 2011).

The interchangeable use of the words beliefs, concern and attitude may cause some confusion and it is therefore important to state that this paper will use the NEP to measure environmental beliefs as the underlying cognitive information driving behavioral attitude. The scale was similarly used and linked the term environmental beliefs by Perkins and Brown (2012).Environmental beliefs are defined as beliefs about the impacts of human activities on environmental quality and the subsequent threats that these activities pose to the welfare of humans and other species (from Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig& Jones, 2000).

Feelings toward nature

Where the NEP focuses on the cognitive beliefs, researchers have argued the case of also understanding the emotional reaction to environmental sustainability (Perrin & Benassi, 2009). Researchers have argued that environmental ethics are based on the premise of individual and collective psychology including affections and on fostering a sense of emotional connectedness with the natural world (Perkins, 2010). Two scales that have been developed to test such emotions are the Connectedness to Nature Scale (Mayer & Frantz, 2004) and the Love and Care for Nature scale (Perkins, 2010). It has been proven that beliefs about these emotions act as statistically significant predictors of ecological behavior, values and ecological identity (Perrin & Benassi, 2009). Within sport studies, a form of sports consumption that has been associated with environmentally conscious participants and nature-friendly practices is that of 'lifestyle sports; also referred to as "free sports", "alternative sports" and "fringe sports" (Brymer & Gray, 2010; Salome *et al.*, 2013). It includes activities such as rock climbing, rafting, snowboarding, kayaking, surfing, and other sport where mismanaged mistakes or accidents can lead to death (Brymer & Gray, 2010; Salome *et al.*, 2013). A number of sport studies have examined the attitudes of

lifestyle sport participants toward the environment. Possibly because these activities are undertaken outdoors and are directly affected by environmental issues (Burtyn & Masucci, 2009; Salome *et al.*, 2013). In these sports, nature is viewed as either something that needs to be conquered, or something that needs to be understood and joined forces with (Brymer & Gray, 2010). Studies exploring the environmentalist approach of participants focus on corporeal experiences and embodiment in nature (such as Butryn & Masucci, 2009; Brymer, Downey &Gray, 2009; Ray, 2009). It was found that extreme and outdoor sports (participation) can lead to feelings of connection to nature and a desire to care for the natural world (Brymer et al., 2009; Brymer&Gray, 2010). In a similar fashion, tourism studies have found that experiences in nature have an influence on environmental attitude and behavioral intention (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Lee & Moscardo, 2005; Puhakka, 2011).Coupled with the fact that sport has an emotional 'inspirational' effect on spectators (Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012), it appears necessary to test the emotional perspective of environmental awareness in this context.

Methodology

To test environmental beliefs, the shortened 6-item NEP scale was used as it provides a balanced measure of each of the three facets of the original NEP scale (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). Despite presenting different facets, measurement of the scale most often delivers a single score measuring one construct (taken from Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). Whether the scale is used to measure multiple dimensions or as a single scale, it can still provide relevant measures of ecological worldviews (beliefs) (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig & Jones, 2000). Respondents were asked to rate on a 4-point Likert scale whether they strongly disagree (1) or strongly agree (4) with the following statements: (i) the balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset by human activities. (ii) Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs. (iii) We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support. (iv) Plants and animals exist primarily for human use. (v) The earth is like a spaceship with only limited room and resources, and (vi) When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences.

To test feelings toward nature, three items from the Love and Care for Nature scale (Perkins, 2010), two items on environmental awareness (Ballantyne et al., 2009) and one item on inspirational effect (Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012) were used. Respondents had to indicate on a 3-point Likert scale the extent to which the following statements described them (1 = not at all; 2 = to some extent; 3 = describes me perfectly): (i) Closeness to nature is important for my wellbeing. (ii) I feel a deep love for nature. (iii) When I am close to nature, I feel a real sense of oneness with nature. (iv) I have thought about whether me attending this event harms the environment. (v) This event has reminded me about the enjoyment of being in nature, and (vi) I am interested in learning more about the environment surrounding this event.

A survey was conducted among spectators at a series of cycling events (both road and mountain bike) in four different regions of South Africa. A self-completion questionnaire was distributed among spectators along the route and individuals were selected in a non-random fashion through convenience sampling. In order to address the quality issues associated with this technique, a form of heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling was used to include different (heterogeneous) individuals (spectators) into the sample (after Saunders, Lewis &Thornhill,

2007). The suitability of this sample size is based on statistical probability. This study the focused on attaining a large enough sample to allow inferential statistics for hypothesis testing (Keyton, 2011). This large sample size is regarded as a countermeasure for the lack of representation inherent to convenience sampling (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

Demographics included age, gender, level of education and home language, while trip behavior included place of origin and travel companions. Although ethnic background has proven to influence attitudes toward environmental awareness (Jones & Rainey, 2006; Kalof, Dietz, Guagnano & Stern, 2000; Sheppard, 1995; Whittaker, Segura & Bowler, 2005), it was decided not to ask respondents their ethnic grouping purely because of the negative associations with such classifications in the South African context. The researcher rather opted to ask for respondents' home language as an indication of cultural background; as done by other researchers in the South African context (Saayman & Saayman, 2012; Streicher, 2009; Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008).

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were used to test reliability of the scales, with a coefficient of > .70 regarded as acceptable. Though lower levels of score reliability can be tolerated (Kline, 2011).Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to test the interaction between 'environmental beliefs' and 'feelings toward nature'. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was used to determine whether the mean scores of the factors was adequate ($p > 0.05$) for further statistical comparisons between the spectator groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Variability of the beliefs and feelings of spectators across different groupings was tested at the hand of one-way ANOVA (or the non-parametric alternative Welch test).

Findings

Profile of the respondents

The final sample (766 spectators) included 255 males and 510 females. Road races represented 448 and mountain bike races 318 spectators. Table 1 indicates the spectators sampled at the various events.

Table 1: Spectators per race

Event	Frequency	%
Momentum 94.7 (road), Gauteng	184	24
Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay (road), Western Cape	142	18.5
Momentum 94.7 (mountain bike), Gauteng	130	17
Absa Cape Epic (mountain bike), Western Cape	84	11
Volkswagen Herald (road), Eastern Cape	74	9.7
Volkswagen Herald (mountain bike), Eastern Cape	49	6.4
Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay (mountain bike), Western Cape	41	5.4
Value Logistics Fast One (road), Gauteng	30	3.9
MTNOFM (road), Free State	18	2.3
MTNOFM (mountain bike), Free State	14	1.8
Total	**766**	**100**

Table 2 displays the demographic characteristics and trip behavior of the sample. Majority of respondents were between the ages of 25 and 34, originated from the surrounding neighborhood, were educated to an NQF5 level (diploma / national certificate) and either Afrikaans or English as home language. Friends accompanied the majority of spectators.

Table 2: Demographics

Category	Frequency	Valid %
AGE		
18 - 24	181	26
25 - 34	200	28.7
35 - 44	168	24.1
45 - 54	139	20
Above 55	8	1.1
Total	**696**	**100**
PLACE OF ORIGIN		
Own neighborhood	313	41
Neighboring town/city	312	40.8
Other province	117	15.3
Other country	22	2.9
Total	**764**	**100**
LEVEL OF EDUCATION		
Primary school	12	1.6
Grade 12	219	28.8
Diploma/National certificate	223	29.1
Degree	180	23.5
Post graduate degree	127	16.6
Total	**761**	**100**
HOME LANGUAGE		
Afrikaans	318	41.8
Afrikaans & English	44	5.8
English	318	41.8
African languages	62	8.1
Other	19	2.5
Total	**761**	**100**
TRAVEL COMPANIONS		
Alone	25	3.3
Friends	397	52.2
Family	160	21
Sports club	8	1.1
Cyclist support team	29	3.8
Friends & family	104	13.7
Unique combinations	26	3.4
Work colleagues	6	.8
Educational group	6	.8
Total	**761**	**100**

Reliability of the scales

Environmental beliefs (NEP) reported an unsatisfactory alpha coefficient of .333. Upon investigation of the item-total correlations, items 1, 2 and 4 had the lowest corrected item-total correlations and were removed. A second round of analysis conducted delivered a Cronbach's Alpha of .621, which did not strictly adhere to the minimum acceptable criteria of 0.70. However, the coefficient was approaching 0.70 and all of the corrected item-total correlations were $\geq$.25 (Kline, 2011). Feelings toward nature reported a satisfactory alpha coefficient of .803 achieving the cut-off of value of .70. All of the corrected item-total correlations were $\geq$.25 and the deletion of none of the individual items would make a significant improvement to the overall alpha coefficient.

Correlation between environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature

To determine whether a relationship exists between the two variables, Pearson's correlation was performed. From Table 3 it can be seen that a significant positive moderate relationship (r =.209)exists (p<.000) (Pallant, 2010).This indicates that a relationship exists between the cognitive and affective aspects that underlie subsequent behavioral attitude.

Table 3: Pearson correlation coefficient

.		Feelings toward nature
Environmental beliefs	Pearson correlation	0.209
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000*

*p < 0.01(2-tailed)

Variability across spectator groupings

To determine whether different groups of spectators have different environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature, one-way ANOVA was used. Table 4 indicates only the statistically significant differences, for both of the variables.

Table 4: Variability across spectator groupings

ENVIRONMENTAL BELIEFS					
Grouping variable		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**
Gender	Male	255	3.065	.6106	4.275*
	Female	510	3.159	.5785	
Home language	Afrikaans	318	3.148	.5655	5.726*
	Afrikaans & English	44	3.197	.6280	
	English	318	3.174	.5865	
	African languages	62	2.823	.6235	
	Other	19	2.895	.6291	
Age	18 – 24	181	2.993	.5698	9.932*
	25 – 34	200	2.985	.6155	
	35 – 44	168	3.246	.5642	
	45 – 54	139	3.283	.5011	
	55 and older	8	3.167	.6424	

Table 4: Variability across spectator groupings cont…

FEELINGS TOWARD NATURE					
Home language	Afrikaans	318	2.436	.4234	
	Afrikaans & English	44	2.598	.3654	
	English	318	2.321	.4652	6.827*
	African languages	62	2.505	.4093	
	Other	19	2.404	.4206	
Travel company	Alone	25	2.393	.4880	
	Friends	397	2.392	.4303	
	Family	160	2.351	.4596	
	Sports club	8	2.625	.2921	
	Cyclist support team	29	2.598	.4167	2.703*
	Friends & family	104	2.463	.4225	
	Unique combinations	26	2.551	.3881	
	Work colleagues	6	2.167	.6912	
	Educational group	6	1.861	.6184	
Age	18 – 24	181	2.294	.4738	
	25 – 34	200	2.343	.4724	
	35 – 44	168	2.471	.3956	6.715*
	45 – 54	139	2.510	.3971	
	55 and older	8	2.479	.5151	

* Significant at $p \leq 0.05$

Table 4 indicates that environmental beliefs differ between spectators based on gender, home language and age; while feelings toward nature differ based on home language, travel company and age. No statistically significant results were found for either of the variables based on event type or level of education. Tukey's post hoc indicated statistically significant differences within the groups. In terms of home language, the differences were between all the groupings respectively accept for 'Afrikaans' with 'Afrikaans & English'. In terms of travel company, the differences were between 'Educational group' with 'Sports club', 'Cyclist support team' and 'Friends & family'. In terms of age groups, the differences were between '18 – 24' as well as '25 – 34' with '35 – 44' and '45 – 54' and vice versa.

Conclusions

The findings indicate some differences among sports event spectator groupings that could drive different levels of environmental responsibility. Importantly, the difference between spectators that stayed over in the area versus those that did not, proved not to be statistically significant. This could indicate that being a tourist (according to the formal definitions) does not influence environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature, but that these attitudes are part of the individual regardless of their circumstances. At the same time, evidence that feelings toward nature differ based on travel company confirms the suggestion that group dynamics such as social norms could play a role in an individual's level of awareness within a specific setting. Klöckner and Blöbaum (2011:576) explain that personal and social norms act as references along with attitudes to generate behavioral intentions in a decision-making situation. The research confirms previous indications that demographic variables (age, gender, home language) act as predictors of environmental behavior (Dolnicar, 2010; Krugell & Saayman, 2012;Ramkissoon, Smith & Weiler, 2013); with environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature increasing with age

and with females having higher levels of environmental concern (beliefs). The study corroborates with the findings of Krugell and Saayman (2012) that level of education does not seem have an influence. The differences between home language across both variables indicate the importance of this variable and links to theory that environmental attitudes are linked the ethnicity (Johnson, Bowker& Cordell, 2004).The findings suggest that there are no distinct differences between mountain bike and road race spectators, which is interesting considering the difference in the surroundings of these events. This however corroborates the earlier suggestion that environmental beliefs and feelings toward nature are not influenced by circumstances. Overall, the study provides no evidence that sport event spectators have unique characteristics in terms of environmental beliefs or feelings toward nature. Managers of such events have to focus on similar approaches toward environmental management as in other event types, thereby creating a need for research into the broad spectrum of factors underlying environmentally responsible behavior. Given the evidence, sport event spectators' beliefs and feelings tend to resemble that of tourists in the general travel experience as opposed to tourists categorized as nature-based or eco tourists (despite having included spectators at mountain bike events that take place in natural settings). Thus, management strategies cannot be built around the assumption that these individuals attend because of a love for nature, but are motivated by other factors, most probably the event itself and support of athletes. Future research should aim to identify those factors of environmental attitude that do show significant differences in order to develop strategies toward encouragement of the desired behavior.

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The role of interpretation in mindfulness/mindlessness in cultural encounters: reflexive thoughts of a South African tour guide

Haretsebe Manwa, Dudu Boemah& Emile Coetzee

*North West University, South Africa,*23815310@nwu.ac.za
*North West University, South Africa*dudu.boemah@nwu.ac.za
North West University, South Africa 24117889@nwu.ac.za

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Introduction

Cultural tourism is recently receiving increasing attention from southern African countries (The South African National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy, 2012; Van Veuren, 2001).Cultural tourism is promoted as a local development strategy for rural impoverished areas. In South Africa, development of heritage and cultural tourism aims to unlock the economic potential of heritage and cultural resources through responsible and sustainable tourism development, andraise awareness of the ability of heritage and cultural tourism to contribute towards social cohesion. This paper focuses on cultural tourism development.

People generally have preconceived ideas about foreign cultures, which may manifest as prejudice and fear. Cultural interaction between hosts and guests can result in cultural understanding, which then fosters peace, and global understanding among people from different parts of the world (Pearce, 1995; Besculides & McCommick, 2002; Suntikul, Bauer & Song, 2010; Nyaupane, Teve& Paris, 2008; Simpson, 2008; Borowiecki & Castighone, 2014). Once there is interaction with and understanding of other cultures, a feeling of appreciation and understanding of self, one's country and other cultures ensues (Yu & Lee, 2014: 235; Cohen, 1979; Pearce, 1995, 2010; Woosnam, Norman & Ying, 2009; McKercher& Chow, 2010; Coulson et al., 2014). More importantly, travel to "exotic" places that have not been affected by modernity provides novelty and existential authenticity, by being true to oneself among strange cultures and people (Boorstin, 1969; McCannell, 1973; Cohen, 1979; Wang, 1999; Uriel, 2005). The question of interest to destination managers and policy makers is how to ensure tourists visiting cultural resources move from hedonic pleasure seeking to learning or mindfulness. The aim of this paper is to use reflexivity to contextualize the experiences of a South African tour guide on how interpretation at cultural encounters resulted in mindfulness and mindlessness. Mindfulness and mindlessness are explained next, followed by a brief discussion of interpretation. The experience of interaction with tourists is elaborated on, followed by conclusions.

The concept of mindfulness

Langer (2000), and Langer and Moldoveanu (2000A, 2000B) differentiate between mindfulness and mindlessness. "Mindfulness is a state of mind that results from drawing novel distinctions, examining information from new perspectives, and being sensitive to context...when we are mindful we recognize that there is not a single optimal perspective, but many possible perspectives on the same situation" (Langer, 1993:44 cited in Moscardo, 1996: 381).

Cohen's (1979) typology of tourism proposes the existential mode in tourism experiences involving cultural encounters. The tourist becomes emotionally detached from his or her own environment and tries to remain, as much as possible, in the real world, which is elsewhere. Original or primitive cultures, where people live closer to their roots, become an important destination for this type of tourist; nature refers to a world as it was or as it is meant to be and the traveler has a desire to be absorbed within the other world, elsewhere or in another time. There is deep reflection and learning about the people around oneself, their culture and their way of life. Langer and Moldoveanu (2000:2) further propose possible consequences of mindfulness:

- a greater sensitivity to one's environment,
- more openness to new information,
- the creation of new categories for structuring perceptions,
- an enhanced awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving,
- a heightened state of involvement and wakefulness, or being in the present.

Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) propose that if an individual is not mindful they are mindless. Moscardo (1996:380, citing Langer et al, 1989:140) defines mindless behavior as "behavior that is over-determined by the past…when mindless, one relies on categories and distinctions derived in the past. Mindlessness is single-minded reliance on information without an active awareness of alternative perspectives or alternative uses to which the information could be put. When mindless, the individual relies on structures that have been appropriated from another source". Being in a state of mindlessness means one is passive and does not bring and learn new information. In cultural encounters, mindlessness would arise when a visitor holds prejudices about the people and culture, and does not bother to understand them after or during an encounter with residents (Ng, Lee & Soutar, 2007).

Mindfulness has been extended to disciplines such as health sciences, organizational management, physical science, environmental education and education (Frauman& Norman, 2004). Tourism studies have also recently taken an interest in mindfulness, particularly in studies on sustainability (Barber & Deale, 2014; Walker & Moscardo, 2014; Moscardo, 2009; Moscardo & Ballantyne, 2008). Moscardo (1999) proposes that interpretation leads to greater learning, satisfaction and appropriate behavior in recreational settings. She therefore asserts that interpretation tries to produce mindful visitors; visitors who are active, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world (Moscardo, 1999 6: 382). Other studies undertaken in natural environment settings have confirmed Moscardo's assertion that interpretation, which fosters self-control, involvement, interaction, novelty and relevance to one's interests, is likely to result in mindful experiences (Frauman & Norman, 2004; Weiler& Smith, 2009). Mindful hotel guests are characterized by their ability to seek out specific hotel properties known to implement sustainability practices, and their sustainable use of such facilities (Barber & Deale, 2014:109). How interpretation contributes to mindfulness is addressed in the next section.

Interpretation is critical to mindfulness (Moscardo (2014); Moscardo & Ballantyne, 2008; Kim et al., 2011). Given the increasing numbers of visitors to natural, cultural or historically based destinations, a mindful visitor may prove to be a vital ingredient for sustainable destinations and

surrounding community success (Frauman & Norman, 2004: 388). Many studies have examined the role of interpretation in mindful behavior in natural areas and heritage sites (Ballantyne, Packer & Sutherland, 2011; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Tubb, 2003; Reisinger, & Steiner, 2006; Ballantyne, Packer & Hughes, 2009; Frauman & Norman, 2004). However, mindfulness in cultural encounters remains largely under-researched. This study aims to further knowledge of mindfulness in tourism, particularly within cultural encounters.

It is essential to emphasize that "tour guide" in this paper refers to "one who conducts a tour" or one with "a broad-based knowledge of a particular area whose primary duty is to inform" (Pond, 1993:17). A tour guide accompanies an individual tourist or a group of visitors on tours, looking after them in places such as museums, factories, galleries and national parks (Collins, 2000).

Isolating a single job description for tour guides is challenging, as guides find themselves performing, various functions in every kind of a place one could visit (Pond, 1993). Consequently, tour guides bear a number of other titles such as tour leader, tour manager, tour escort, local guide, interpreter and so on (Hu, 2007). However, in differentiating between a tour guide and a tour manager, Pond (1993) states that many regard the tour guide as primarily an educator, in contrast with the tour manager, whose role has more administrative and social aspects. To clarify this difference, a typical practical scenario is that when a local professional guide is leading a sightseeing excursion, the tour manager makes it clear that the guide is the one in charge. The tour manager introduces the tour guide and does not interfere during the commentary (Lubbe, 2000).

Guiding is an important sector of the tourism system and tour guides play a special role in the tourism industry as key front-line players (Ap & Wong, 2001; Hu, 2007; Weaver, 2006). Their position and role in the industry make them indispensable, as they work for supply-side stakeholders (such as attractions, travel operators/agents, governments, public organizations, private corporations, or for themselves independently) within all sectors of the tourism industry, and are at the same time linked to the demand side (tourists) (Hu, 2007). Whether they are employed by tour operators, resorts, lodges, attractions, theme parks, museums, protected area management agencies, zoos, visitor centers or are self-employed, other stakeholders often view tour guides as an important part of, and sometimes as the key player in, the tourism product and experience (Weiler& Black, 2015). Hence, Weaver (2006) describes tour guiding as a facilitating tourism sector. It is, however, important to note that it is only recently that scholars and researchers have focused on the subject of tour guides and tour guiding, despite its significance (Weiler& Black, 2015).

Whilst many models have been developed to illustrate the role of a tour guide (Cohen, 1985, Weiler & Black, 2015) the relevant model for this paper is that of Weiler and Davis (1993). This is demonstrated in Figure 1 and denotes the role of a tour guide as an environmental interpreter. Being an environmental interpreter involves increasing tourists' appreciation and understanding of the environment (Haig & McIntyre, 2002; Weiler & Ham, 2000). The concept "environment" in this paper includes the natural environment as well as social and cultural aspects (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1997).

Figure 1: Guide's role: environmental interpreter

	Outer-directed(Resource from outside the tour group)	Inner-directed(Resource from inside the tour group)
Tour Management(focus on group)	'organizer'	'entertainer'
Experience Management(focus on individual)	'group leader'	'teacher'
Resource Management(focus on environment)	'motivator'	'environmental interpreter'

Source: Weiler and Davis (1993: 97).

Black, Ham and Weiler (2001:149) defines an Eco tour guide as a tourist guide "who communicates and interprets the significance of the environment, promotes minimal impact practices, ensures the sustainability of the natural and cultural environment, and motivates those tourists to consider their own lives in relation to larger ecological or cultural concerns". Eco tour guides are therefore expected to play the final role in the Weiler–Davis model, that is, of environmental interpreters. They are expected to communicate and interpret the significance of the environment, promote minimal impact practices, ensure the sustainability of the natural and cultural environment, and motivate tourists to consider their own lives in relation to larger ecological or cultural concerns (Black, Ham & Weiler, 2001 Knudson, Cable & Beck, 1995). Hence, according to Weiler and Black (2015), the interpretive aspects of guiding have drawn attention to the importance of the application of best practice principles in interpretation and intercultural communication. Weiler and Black (2015) further mention that the guide's role in fostering sustainability has also come under scrutiny. It is, therefore, our contention that tour guides, through interpretation, can foster mindfulness where visitors learn from their environment through a deeper understanding of their context.

The functions of tour guides who aim at promoting sustainability are summarized by Hu (2007:27) and are shown in Figure 2. Hu (2007) mentions that interpretive guiding does not necessarily mean that tour guides should ignore their other responsibilities, but that they should incorporate and emphasize the principles of sustainable development and interpretation in the business of leading tour groups and managing tourists' experience.

Figure 2: Functions of tour guides in promoting sustainability

Functions	Roles particularly relevant	Responsibility and objectives
Experience management (Focus on tourists)	Pathfinder Group leader Interpreter (educator) Animator	To help tourists have enjoyable and rewarding experiences, to ignite interest and new understanding about destinations, to foster positive host-guest encounters.
Resource management (Focus on destination places)	Interpreter (educator, gatekeeper, motivator)	To encapsulate the essence of destination places, to foster appreciation and caring attitudes towards destination resources, to modify inappropriate tourist behaviors and manage tourist impacts on-site and to encourage long-term responsible behaviors.
Local economic promotion (Focus on local communities)	Facilitator	To promote local economic development by stimulating consumption and production of local products and services.

Source: Hu (2007:32)

The tour guide, for instance, uses interpretation as a means to "provoke, reveal, and relate" information and experiences, to challenge visitors' knowledge, values, attitudes and behaviors, to

assist tourists in connecting with the place visited, and understand and appreciate its significance in both local and global contexts. The intended outcome is for the tourist to have a better understanding of the impact of their own attitudes and behaviors, and a commitment to act responsibly toward the natural and cultural environment, both while travelling and at home (Markwell & Weiler, 1998; Pereira, 2001).

Most mainstream tour guides have a sound knowledge of the destination, site and/or attraction, and most can provide volumes of data. In addition, some guides are able to give considerable detail about the historical, sociocultural, political and economic contexts of the destination. However, it is the use of interpretation. That is, the art of engaging and involving the visitor in the delivery of this information that makes the tour meaningful and therefore memorable to visitors (Markwell & Weiler, 1998). A tour guide's use of interpretation is what distinguishes an effective tour guide from one who merely divulges information – it can therefore be viewed as a key role for tour guides.

Interpretation is regarded as an important strategy in reaching the goals of sustainable tourism development (Moscardo, 1999; Tubb, 2003). While the concept of sustainability is a complex and contested one, there is consensus that, for tourism, it involves at least three dimensions: the minimization or elimination of negative impacts; the provision of positive contributions to the destination and host community; and the provision of a quality experience for the participating tourists (Walker & Moscardo, 2006). Therefore, effective interpretation can contribute to the sustainability of tourism in many ways (Moscardo, 2000). Moscardo notes, however, that in interpretive settings where there is too much novelty, conflict or information overload there is likely to be mindlessness as people will find ways of trivializing information in order to be able to relate to it.

Methods

This is a qualitative study using reflexivity as an interpretive and critical mode of enquiry. Tourism research, as Moscardo (2014), Tribe (2005) and Hall (2004) note, is still battling to develop theories and adopt or extend theories from other disciplines. This calls for more innovative ways of generating theory, including the involvement of practitioners in interpretation who will use site-specific action research (Moscardo, 2014). This paper is based on the self-reflection of a practicing and accredited tourist guide, using his experiences to improve interpretation in cultural encounters.

Self-reflexivity allows the researcher to acknowledge their own biases and values; the environments in which we live as well as the interactions we have with tourists all have a bearing on our research findings. It acknowledges that researchers do not conduct neutral, value-free research. Researchers are guided by ideologies, and legitimacies, which govern and guide tourism research output (Ateljevic et al., 2005; Hall, 2004). One of the merits of reflexivity is the ability to expose complexities, gaps and negotiations between the researcher and the researched (Rose, 1997 cited in Ateljevic et al., 2005).

The researcher documented, over a period of three years as a tour guide, his observations of reactions expressed verbally by tourists, as well as discussions he held with the tourists. In

addition, discussions were held with the other two authors of this paper, reflecting on his role as an interpreter of cultural encounters. The next section describes the tour and tour participants.

The tour and participants

The researcher is an accredited cultural tourist guide and historian who conducted guided tours for tourists from the USA on packaged tours to southern Africa in 2011, 2012 and 2014. Each tourist party was composed of around 90 to 110 people. The group was homogenous in that they all spoke English as their first language. They belonged to the same religious group, which influenced their requirements in terms of food, beverages and clothing. They also required a venue to conduct their prayers in the evening. In terms of demographics, they ranged from retirees to couples with children and students on a gap year. The participants ranged in age from their early twenties to over seventy years old. They included families as well as single travelers. The group also included a tourist who had been on the tour before, to build confidence among the other US travelers. This person is referred to as the tour educator.

Characteristics of the tour guide

The company that conducted the tours uses freelance cultural tourist guides. They must be knowledgeable about South Africa, its political landscape, socioeconomic structures and cultures of the places visited. The tour guide of this study is a lecturer and historian, informed about the history of South Africa, and a qualified tour guide. According to *Culture Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA),* which is responsible for certification of tour guides in South Africa, a tour guide must attain National Qualification Framework (NQF) level 4. The tour guide of this study had satisfied the CATHSSETA NQF Level 4 requirements (https://adventurequalifications.wordpress.com/useful-information/how-to-be-a-legal-tour-guide-in-south-africa/).

Other desirable characteristics of a tour guide for these trips included excellent negotiation skills. Negotiation skills were used mainly when negotiating prices for souvenirs. Tour guides may also give advice on fair prices for souvenirs. Tour guides must be extroverts so they can easily mix and entertain guests; this might include making jokes and having knowledge of wider topics of interest to tourists such as game drives, photography and so on. They must also be able to interact with other tourism stakeholders. Tour guides act as escorts and protectors of tourists. Tourists may be vulnerable to touts and beggars and it is the duty of the tour guide to ensure they are not harassed. Lastly, physical and mental stamina is required. Tour guides may double up as porters, moving tourists' bags from the bus to various stops. To withstand the pressure of entertaining tourists, guides need to be mentally alert.

The tour

The tour in question lasts 10 days. During the tour, guides are given a color code denoting the bus they are allocated to lead. They rotate between three buses. According to South African regulations, tour guides must display their certification badge at all times as proof of their legitimacy.

Day 1-3: Arrival and tour of Cape Town

Four iconic places are visited in Cape Town, Cape Peninsular Nature Reserve, Boulders Beach, Robben Island, Seal Island and Simon's Town. Cape Peninsular offers a wilderness experience and Cape Point, and Boulders Beach is famous for African penguins. Robben Island symbolizes built heritage and is also a UNESCO World Heritage site. Robben Island is important in representing the democratization process of South Africa, and is a major symbol of people's resistance to the apartheid system, as Nelson Mandela, the first president of South Africa, was incarcerated for 18 years on the island. The final destination on day 1-3 is Seal Island and Simon's Town. The attractions here are ship tours and boat rides.

During the first leg, tourists may not be able to gain from interpretation due to jet lag. This is a period of learning by both tourists and tour guides. Learning occurs at a personal level as tourists go through the process of acclimatizing to the South African weather, learning the guides' names and adjusting to local accents. The tour guides make an effort to make the tourists feel at ease. During our discussions with tourists, in the evening after the Cape Town tour, tourists expressed sentiments such as the following:

> "Cape Town is not the African town that I expected to see. I thought I was going on an African safari where there are 'Big 5' wild animals roaming freely in the jungle and did not expect to see a highly westernized metropolitan city".

Visits to Robben Island generated a different reaction from tourists. For example, tourists on the 2014 tour made the following comments at the end of the tour:

> "I did not feel comfortable entering a prison cell. I came here to have fun. The place has an uncomfortable history. I really did not enjoy the tour. I do not enjoy listening to how people suffered during the apartheid era".

The tourists showed some excitement in summiting Table Mountain using the cable car and walking the natural trails on the mountain.

Day 4-7 KwaZulu-Natal and Lesotho

The second leg of the trip involves a visit to the city of Durban where the tourists visit the 'muthi'market (traditional medicines), to Lesotho, a neighboring African country, and to Shakaland outside Eshowe in Zululand. They then experience a safari in the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This second leg of the trip involves cultural encounters. During discussions with the tourists, they expressed disbelief, shock, uneasiness, and ambiguity in their reactions to the muthi market visit. The tourists displayed tension and anxiety, most of who stated they wanted to return to the hotel, as they were not enjoying themselves.

A visit to the Kingdom of Lesotho involves a cultural encounter, as the tourists visit the local people in the normal environment of their actual village. Tourists observe how the people deal with the daily challenges of survival at the Basotho homesteads. Local guides, most of whom have little spoken English, guide this part of the trip. There is very little opportunity for

interaction between tourists and the local people, including the local guide, in sharing their experiences and context. However, it appeared that the tourists were mindful about poverty and struggle for survival of the villagers as these were sentiments expressed in the evening. Tourists mentioned that the visit to the Lesotho villages helped them to realize how lucky and privileged they were to be living in the United States and enjoying quality of life.

On day 6, there is cultural encounter a ta recreated Zulu village at Shakaland. This site was created for the filming, in the 1980s, of the TV series 'Shaka Zulu', which was written by William Faure with Henry Cele in the lead role of King Shakaka Senzangakhona. The site consists of the original royal house and several small conical huts in which guests from other groups may stay. Once guests are announced a village crier takes them, and a local guide who is fluent in English to explain different aspects of traditional Zulu culture, enacted by trained and paid actors.

Although this is a staged act, the tourists seemed to enjoy the façade. They were mindful of the TV series and their previous perceptions of Zulu culture. The visit culminates in the purchasing of Zulu artifacts. Tourism is an intangible product (Cooper et al, 2009) and the only items tourists can carry home with them are the souvenirs of the places visited (Swanson and Timothy, 2012). Souvenirs are a way of capturing the memory of places visited, its subtle qualities and what made it so special. As Swanson and Timothy (2012) state, a souvenir is like carrying the destination home to show case the place visited. The day ends with sunset cruises at St. Lucia Estuary, which is part ofSimangaliso Wetland Park.

On day 7 tourists are taken on their first safari in the Hluhluwe–iMfolozi Park in KwaZulu-Natal. This is the leg of the trip that the tour group seemed to enjoy most. They were mindful of their environment and the main reason they undertook the trip was to experience the African safari.

Day 8-10: Kingdom of Swaziland, Kruger National Park and return to the USA

Day 8 is spent driving through the Kingdom of Swaziland. Tourists are given a brief introduction to the culture of the Kingdom and its people. Another aim of the trip to Swaziland is to show the impact of British colonialism on developments in the Kingdom. The tourists do not have much interaction with the local people except as passive listeners to lectures given at a local candle factory. Tourists are also taken to the local African market to purchase souvenirs.

A two-day safari is organized on day 9 and 10 at Kruger National Park. This is the climax of the trip and thoroughly enjoyed by the tourists. All evening talks centered on the safari trips, the wildlife and wilderness, photography and various animals seen.

The last day, day 10, sees tourists being transported to OR Tambo International Airport where they spend a night at an airport hotel. The night at the hotel gives both the guides and the guest's time to reflect on their experiences during the ten-day tour. It is during such discussions that the tour guides become aware of their impact on the tourists' experiences. It is on these evenings that clients show their appreciation, and the tour leader pays a gratuity or gratitude. Tourists exchanged contact information with the guides, and some of the tourists have kept in contact with the tour guide long after the trip.

Conclusions

Interpretation is a journey where we learn not only about tourists and about how they feel and react to a new environment but also our role as tour guides in stimulating mindfulness/mindlessness. This was reflected with the tourists from the USA discussed in this paper. One clear conclusion from this reflexive study is that tourists' characteristics, including their motivations, expectations and previous experiences, influence their mindfulness or mindlessness (Moscardo, 2014:466). It was evident from conversations with the tourists that they came to Africa to go on safari, and see the wilderness and wildlife. They reflected elements of what McKercher and Du Cros (2002) refer to as casual cultural tourists. These tourists accidentally find themselves in a cultural encounter. The US tourists in this study did not visit southern Africa to experience the culture and heritage of the places visited (Debeş, 2011).

The social role of the tour guide was reduced in the neighboring countries of Lesotho and Swaziland, and the local guides took over. In these particular cases, especially in Lesotho, the local tour guide's English language skills were limited. Instead of interpretation facilitating social exchange, there was little interaction between the tourists and local communities. Unlike Cape Town, which, as the tourists observed, is too westernized to qualify as an African province, Lesotho is a typical African country, where people live in grass-roofed huts and practice traditional ways of life. The US tourists perceived this type of lifestyle as a reflection of abject poverty and a daily struggle for survival. Language was a major barrier for meaningful cultural exchange and understanding. In hindsight, more could be done to enhance mindfulness in these social encounters, with greater cultural exchange between the tourists and local communities. There may be residents of the Kingdom of Lesotho more fluent in English, who could facilitate local guides to foster cultural exchange.

The visit to Robben Island provided another example of interpretation leading to mindfulness resulting in opposite behavior where people felt the history of the place was too dramatic for them to enjoy the tour. It reminded tourists of the inhuman treatment of black people by the apartheid system. Like all dark tourism, interpretation at the Robben Island museum was unpleasant but it fulfilled its mission of educating the visitors to the site where former prison inmates delivered interpretation Cohen (2011: 205) citing questions. Wight and Lennon (2007) "points out that ''addressing the ethical and spiritual dichotomies'' is critical in creating meaningful interpretation at dark tourism sites, especially those with controversial political implications".

For other cultural encounters, for example in neighboring countries (Lesotho and Swaziland) management and site interpreters should be innovative in providing interpretation that somehow engages tourists (Moscardo, 1996). For example, letting participants learn how to cook some of the traditional food in Lesotho for example could be a way of engaging tourists as active participants. Tourists could also be engaged to explore their level of understanding of places visited (Kim, Aurey & Szivas, 2011; Ballantyne, Paker & Falk, 2011). Moscardo (2011) suggests ways of engaging tourists that include, among other things, multisensory components (sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch), novelty, surprise, and total immersion in the setting and experience (Agapito, Mendes& Valle, 2013). These would break the monotony of a lecture-type presentation common during such interpretation, and would facilitate a more enjoyable, and

learning experience of this important heritage site.

This is a reflexive account of one tour guide. It cannot therefore be generalized to be the experiences of all tour guides who offer cultural tourism interpretation in South Africa. More studies involving tourism practitioners would enhance knowledge of mindfulness in an interpretative setting of cultural tourism in the southern African region. Such studies could also compare the impact of gender and race on mindfulness/mindlessness.

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Inclusive tourism business models: a comparative analysis of local community benefits from tourism businesses in southern Africa

Andrew Rylance

Consultant, South Africa

Mitchell and Ashley state that the "bulk of pro-poor tourism literature has not aimed at measuring impact… [and] is indeed recognized as a weakness in the pro-poor tourism literature by its proponents" (2010:5). The research paper aims to quantify the impact of businesses implementing pro-poor strategies to determine the value to local communities as well as the tourism business. The research paper quantifies the direct impact of the business on communities, determines the value proposition for the businesses as well as compares the partnership structures between the operators and communities. The paper provides practical examples of how differing pro-poor strategies may or may not generate a tangible impact for both parties. It demonstrates that business ventures can be profitable for both the private sector and the community; however, such success requires substantial input from the private operator, as well as a long-term approach to the business. Rylance, A and Spenceley, A (2014) wrote three case studies on inclusive tourism businesses in southern Africa, funded by GIZ and Endeva. However, the results of the case studies have not been compared and contrasted to identify common themes, opportunities and challenges. It will also develop and contribute to approaches in the pro-poor tourism literature developed by Ashley, Mitchell, Goodwin, Spenceley et al. The results provide insights for:

(i) Practitioners working between local communities and the tourism industry in southern Africa;

(ii) Tourism businesses interested in establishing joint partnerships with local communities in rural environments; and,

(iii) National governments aiming to implement pro-poor tourism strategies.

APPENDICES

Conference Program List of Participants