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GASTRONOMY TOURISM: THE CASE OF CRETE THROUGH THE EYES OF DOMESTIC VISITORS

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Abstract: Many tourism scholars have recognised food as a research topic, and not only because of its nutritional importance (Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Hall & Sharples, 2003; Cohen & Avieli, 2004). This can be credited to the fact that cooking and culinary consumption has gained a more prominent place, as far as tourism experience and leisure consumption is concerned (Mykletun & Gyimothy, 2009). Food consumption is one of the most enjoyable activities that tourists undertake during their holiday (Ryan, 1997) and a travel motivational factor. Gastronomy is a cultural, economic and social part of a country. The identity of Greek gastronomy is rich, with deep roots and well known culinary traditions, which can be traced back to ancient times. Cretan gastronomy is considered a very interesting area, the most typical example of the famous Mediterranean diet, enhancing good health and longevity. Despite the gastronomic identity of the island of Crete, it has not yet evolved into a gastronomic centre or a pole of attraction for special interest tourists. The aim of this paper is to identify whether gastronomy constitutes a motivation for domestic tourists to visit Crete as a gastronomic destination. Moreover, it explores domestic tourists' views regarding the ways local gastronomy could successfully be promoted, as well as their perceptions of Cretan gastronomy based on their current visit and experiences to the Island of Crete.

Keywords: Gastronomy Tourism, Domestic Visitors, Motives, Perceptions, Island of Crete

Introduction

Several attempts have been made to define gastronomy tourism. Hall and Sharples (2003) define it as a travel experience to a region with a distinct gastronomy for recreational purposes, including visits to primary or secondary food producers, gastronomic events, rural markets and cooking demonstrations in order to taste quality local products. Smith and Xiao (2008: 289) characterise gastronomy tourism as every travel experience through which one learns, appreciates and enjoys well-known products of local gastronomy. Other authors suggest that gastronomy tourism refers to travellers seeking to explore new foods and flavours, using food as a means to get to know different cultures and ways of life (Long, 2004). Different terms that have been used in existing literature, suggest that gastronomy tourism is present during the organisation of the trip, with food representing, primarily or secondarily, a main element of vacation. Gastronomy tourism includes various gastronomic experiences, such as having food in a local canteen or a gourmet restaurant, cooking lessons, visiting wineries and food festivals (Hall & Mitchell, 2001; Wolf, 2002; Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004; Kalpidis, 2014).

Food could constitute a primary motive for a trip, adding value to the destination's image (Boniface, 2003; Quan & Wang, 2004; Long, 2004; Jimenez-Beltran, 2016) as it is considered a

fun activity for tourists, creating familiarity and bonds with the host environment, rather than tourists being simple observers (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Existing research regarding gastronomic tourist's attitudes, views and behaviour is rather limited (Hall & Mitchell, 2003), although satisfaction and dissatisfaction issues are very important. This knowledge could be the key to the improvement of tourism destination's competitiveness (Gillespie, 2001; Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

Literature Review

Gastronomy has not always been so important on the tourism agenda. In the past, food was often viewed mostly as a necessity rather than as an attraction, emphasising the perceived need to serve large numbers of guests as efficiently and cheaply as possible. However, in the past 20 years, the positioning of food and gastronomy in the tourism industry has changed substantially, as destinations have increasingly recognised their potential as a major attraction for visitors and as a means of differentiation in an increasingly crowded global marketplace (Richards, 2015). Destination product portfolios consist of a variety of tangible and intangible goods and services. Food, including beverages, can form one of the most important elements of these portfolios (Okumus et al. 2007), acting as either a primary or secondary trip motivator (Quan and Wang, 2004) that adds value to the destination (Boniface, 2003; Boyone et al. 2003; Long, 2004).

While gastronomy tourism is a relatively new field of academic enquiry, a growing body of literature suggests that experiencing authentic food may be the main or an important reason for travelling to a destination (Bessiere, 1998; Boniface, 2003; Long, 2004; Quan and Wang, 2004) and an important source of visitor satisfaction (Ryan, 1997; Bessiere, 1998). Generally, the link between gastronomy and tourism offers benefits to all parties involved. Local cuisine adds authenticity to the tourist experience and contributes to the quality update of the destination, increasing the number of visitors and their length of stay. It can also contribute to the promotion of sustainable tourism (Jones & Jenkins 2002; Hall & Mitchell 2006; Haven-Tang & Jones 2006).

Researchers have focused primarily on the role of local food as a fascinating attraction for additional consumption by tourists (Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Gyimothy and Mykletun, 2009). Hu and Ritchie (1993) found that food was the fourth most important attribute in the way tourists perceive the attractiveness of a destination, after climate, accommodation and scenery. Remmington and Yuksel (1998) reported that food was the fourth most important contributor to the satisfaction of visitors and the most important reason tourists return to Turkey. In addition, Yuksel (2001) found that both the first time and repeat visitor commonly regard quality of food as one of the main reasons to go back to Turkey. Enright and Newton (2005) reported that food was the second most important attractor for Hong Kong, fourth for Bangkok and fifth for Singapore. Furthermore, according to the World Tourism Organization, 44% of travellers include food in their high-end selection criteria while choosing a destination. Other surveys show that visitors spend about 40% of their budget on food and drink and are willing to revisit a destination if they have had pleasant gastronomic experiences (Yuksel 2001; Boyne et al. 2003; Amer 2006; ΣΕΤΕ 2009; ekriti 2014). Moreover, according to UNWTO, even if gastronomy or wine is not the dominant motive for selecting a destination, a significant increase is recorded when evaluating the role of food as secondary or additional and supplementary incentives in determining tourist choices. Previous surveys indicate that eating in restaurants constitutes the second most popular activity for visitors to the US and the first leisure activity of Americans when they visit other countries

(UNWTO, 2012:6-7). For many tourists, consuming local delicacies and participating in local foodways are essential parts of the tourist experience (Chang, et al., 2010).

In other words, local cuisines 'represent a core manifestation of a destination's intangible heritage, and through its consumption tourists can gain a truly authentic cultural experience' (Okumus et al. 2007:253). A local traditional cuisine can therefore become a 'sensory window' (Telfer and Hashimoto, 2003) into a destination's context, culture and history. Promotional activities that focus on this aspect can attract visitors and give them a glimpse into the heritage of the people of that particular area (Mykletun and Gyimothy, 2010).

Globalization and Gastronomy Tourism

Robertson (1992:8) defines globalization as 'the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole'. Waters (2001:5) describes globalization as 'a social process in which the constraints of geography on economic, political, social and cultural arrangements recede, in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding, and in which people act accordingly'. Globalization has influenced many aspects of human activity, including food production and consumption (Lang, 1999; Wilhelmina, et al., 2010).

In the past food was linked to specific areas and seasonal periods, but it can now be purchased anytime from anywhere (Hall & Mitchell, 2001). Gillespie (2001) suggests that this fact has led to the globalization of cuisines and food and consequently to the decline of local cuisines. In contrast, Vargas Llosa (2001) contends that globalization will not eliminate local cultures, on the contrary, the increasingly interconnected and interdependent world will create incentives for new generations to learn and assimilate to other cultures.

Globalization is considered responsible for changes in eating habits and traditions. There is also an increasing emphasis on healthy eating and a growing demand for organic foods. At the same time there is the phenomenon of restaurant chains spreading around the world ('fast food'), which is creating a globalized taste. With the availability of food products throughout the year there is a growing disconnection of food from the place of production, (Kalpidis, 2014). However, when exoticism, diversity and quality are replaced by uniformity, the needs of the visitor are not met, since diversity and 'sense of place' are achieved when interest focuses on the particular natural and cultural characteristics of a given region (Haven-Tang & Jones 2006).

Promotion

Destination promotion is becoming increasingly competitive worldwide. Providing innovative and well-coordinated tourism products and experiences is considered to be exceedingly important for tourism destinations, since this will enable them to attract international demand and to differentiate their tourism products and services. Global competition and industry concentration increases the challenges for destinations such as Crete. The literature suggests that innovative promotional techniques and the use of new technologies will be the only way to manage the sustainable development and promotion of alternative tourism in destinations such as Crete (Soteriades and Avgeli, 2007; Soteriades and Wickens, 2012).

The local culture of gastronomy and wine can have a primary role in the tourism development and promotion of destinations, as more people are traveling today for reasons of gastronomy (Bessiere, 1998; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Long, 2004). Consequently gastronomy, in its wider sense, has gained an elevated profile as a pull factor in destination promotion (Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Boniface, 2003; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Cohen and Avieli, 2004). Images of food can be used effectively in destination promotion although Boyone et. al. (2003) suggest that adopting a promotional philosophy approach to developing gastronomic tourism is challenging since there is insufficient understanding of the food-buying behavior of tourists. Although the significance of gastronomy is growing not all destinations, including Crete, have taken advantage of the potential and opportunities it offers and have not used it effectively in their promotional activities (Okumus et al. 2007).

Social media plays a role in driving the interest and enthusiasm for new food experiences. Hence food tourism is massively popular among millennials, who share their food experiences on social media sites such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and YouTube. It is possible for marketeers to acquire additional promotion through organising events, such as market feasts or beer festivals, and encouraging millennials to share the experiences on social media (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009).

Furthermore, a recent study by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) involving the UNWTO Affiliate Members working in different sectors, shows that food events are the most popular tourism product, followed by cooking class and workshops, as well as food fairs highlighting local products. Similar studies also reveal that organizing events is the most used marketing and promotion tool, followed by brochures and advertising (UNWTO, 2017).

Despite the gastronomic and cultural wealth of Crete, as well as the quality of local products, not much has been done for the promotion and establishment of Crete as a gastronomic destination. Local authorities have organised some festivals such as (neakriti, 2017) a Cretan diet food festival in Rethymno, the festival of Shepherd and Cheese in Zoniana and the Amari Green Festival.

The Gastronomic Tourist

According to Boniface (2003), food tourists are 'well-educated, discerning sorts of people'. Boyne et. al. (2003), suggest that there are four types of cuisine tourists. The Type I tourists are those for whom gastronomy is crucial to their holidays and look for gastronomic elements, particularly local food. For Type II tourists, gastronomy is also important but not as much as for Type I tourists. They do appreciate gastronomic elements when presented to them. For Type III tourists, gastronomy is not an important part of their holiday even though they may attend such an event. Type IV tourists are not interested in including gastronomic elements in their holiday.

The American Culinary Traveler Report (2013) provides some interesting findings regrading gastronomy tourists: They are most interested in local and authentic foods and culinary experiences that are different from those they can get at home. They combine culinary experiences with participation in cultural, heritage and nature-based activities. Increasing reliance on reviews and friends' recommendations makes getting the word out through social media and other user content sources critical for the promotion of destinations. Festivals motivate culinary travelers, so destination marketing organizations should consider hosting beer, wine or culinary festivals

featuring local fare, products and unique food activities, such as chef demonstrations and samplings. 'Foodies' want to be educated when travelling. Baruah (2016) discovered that eighty-three percent of participants enjoy learning about the local culture and cuisine of the destinations they visited, and the same percentage said they would spend more money on food and drinks while travelling.

Gastronomic tourists in Greece and Crete specifically present the following characteristics (SETE, 2009; Travelnews, 2015). They are:

- Predominantly aged between 30 and 50 (the second largest group falling in the 51-64 age band)
- Professionals with a higher than average income relative to the average visitor
- Interested in the local culture and traditions of the destination
- Experienced, with many of them being adventurous travelers
- Spend a significant percentage of their budget on gastronomic activities

The main countries of origin are USA, France, Italy, Germany, Spain, Holland and the UK (SETE, 2009). It is worth noting that countries in this list are also the main markets for the Greek tourism industry.

Gastronomy Tourism in Crete

The island of Crete had attracted the attention of the scientific community as early as 1948, when researchers from the Rockefeller Foundation of the United States were summoned by the Greek Government in an attempt to improve, in the post-war era, the 'bad' living conditions of the Cretan population. Within this framework, a detailed assessment of the Cretan diet was performed, and –to the surprise of the researchers– it proved to be nutritionally sufficient, with only a few exceptions which were limited to areas with a very low income and very limited food production by the families themselves (Hatzis et. al. 2015). The Cretan diet was inscribed in 2012 by Unesco as Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (greekgastronomyguide.gr). The Cretan diet is recognised by the international scientific community as the most characteristic and high-quality version of the so-called Mediterranean pattern of eating, including olive oil, wine, honey, aromatic herbs, wild greens and cheese (destinationcrete.gr). The Cretan diet is not just a variety of dishes laid on the table. It comprises a whole philosophy of life and represents the lifestyle of the Cretan people. Visitors to the modern restaurants in the cities or the small tavernas and cafes in the country report having the wonderful experience of participating in the life of the local people (Region of Crete, 2013). The spread of Cretan gastronomy is driven by the large agricultural production of the island with conventional and organic crops, the existence of various emblematic products such as oil and wine, the big variety of local recipes, tavernas that preserve tradition and the general attitudes of Cretans who preserve their traditions (SETE, 2009).

The development and promotion of gastronomy tourism in Crete, and more specifically the Cretan cuisine, is very important for the sustainable development of the Island. The food and beverage 'industry', involving as it does restaurants, hotels, tourism agencies, airlines, shops, tourism activities, such as cultural routes and tours, cooking lessons, food and wine tasting, participation in agricultural activities, specialised conferences and seminars and thematic museums (Moira, Mylonopoulos & Kontoudaki, 2015) has a central role to play in the economic prosperity of Crete.

There are, of course, differences between the Greek and the Cretan cuisine, with the latter representing one of the types of Greek cuisine. The Cretan cuisine offers a lighter option with a healthy abundance of fish, grain and fruits. It focuses more on the power of aromatic herbs and spices to define its dishes, as well as the high monounsaturated fat content of the Cretan diet (Psilaki & Psilakis, 2001). As mentioned in the literature review, there is research regarding the views of international visitors for gastronomy tourism in various countries, but there is limited research concerning gastronomy tourism in Greece, and more specifically in Crete. There is research concerning the views of hotels for gastronomy tourism in Greece (Trihas, Kyriakaki & Zagkotsi, 2015), and on the consumption of local products by international tourists in Crete (Proust, Angelakis & Drakos, 2009). It is worth noting that although Greek tourists are travelling less due to the economic crisis (Hanianews, 2017), Crete is still among the most popular destinations for domestic tourists, but research in this area is sparse. Hence, this paper focuses on the motivations of domestic tourists who visit Crete and in particular their views and opinions of Cretan gastronomy.

Methodology

According to Brunt (1997), in the tourism industry there is a focus on statistical analysis and numerical presentation, which means that industry managers can use this information to make decisions within a knowledgeable framework. For example, quantitative research is predominantly useful in the areas of forecasting and predicting demand in the hospitality sector and in the study of tourists' behaviour (Dunn, 1994), which is the case in this study. According to Wickens (2002), the social survey is one of the main methods of data collection, which embodies the features of quantitative research. Taking into consideration the objectives and nature of this specific research, it was decided that quantitative methods were appropriate, as the aim was to investigate the opinions and perceptions of domestic visitors to the city of Heraklion.

A survey using structured questionnaires was undertaken. Questions were developed working deductively from general to specific. It should be noted that the review of the literature played a significant role in research planning, questionnaire development and at the design stages, as it became an input to the planning, design and analysis of the questionnaires. The questionnaire employed closed questions because they facilitate speedy completion and make quantification and coding easier. They also provide the opportunity to ask more questions in relation to the time and money available (Brunt, 1997). Questionnaires were distributed to domestic tourists residing in four hotels in the City of Heraklion. These hotels were selected mainly for their size and visitation rates, in order to acquire a representative sample. The participants in the research process were selected on the basis of convenience and purposive sampling. A total of 260 questionnaires were distributed during a period of three weeks in September 2017, of which 150 were returned completed. 30 questionnaires were not included in the results because in each case only 2-3 questions had been answered. Due mainly to time constraints it was decided to proceed with the analysis of results using the 150 completed questionnaires. After the collection of data, results were analysed with the Excel Statistical Package. The results of the analysis are summarised in the tables below. Given that the sample size of the survey was small, it was considered more appropriate to express results in terms of percentages.

The Survey: Results

Crete seems to be a destination that tourists visit more than once. For a very high percentage (83.8%) of the sample this was not their first visit, while for only 16.2% of respondents this was their first visit. Table 1 shows the main motivations for visitation: sun and sea (26.2%) and local culture and traditions (20.6%). Crete is considered an ideal destination for family vacation for the 20.2% of the sample and 15.5% chose the island for its climate and natural environment. Gastronomy tourism does not seem to be popular among Greek tourists, as gastronomy was a motive for only 9.2% of the respondents. Museums and archaeological sites are a motive for 7.3%.

Table 1: Main Motives for Visitation

Sun & sea	26.2%
Culture & local traditions	20.6%
Ideal for family vacation	20.2%
Climate & natural environment	15.5%
Gastronomy	9.2%
Museums & archaeological sites	7.3%
Other	1.0%

It was important to ascertain whether the term 'gastronomic tourism' was familiar to Greek tourists. Results were rather positive, as 70.5% of the respondents reported that they are familiar with the term, whereas 29.5% said that they had never heard this term before. According to the literature, globalisation is considered responsible for changes in eating habits and traditions. However, as Table 2 shows, for our respondents the main effects of globalisation on gastronomic tourism include: changes in eating habits (25.4%), spread of international cuisines restaurants (16.8%), spread of fast food chains (15.8%), reduced consumption of local traditional cuisine (13.5%), emphasis on healthy diet (11.9%), increased demand for organic products (10%) and promotion of dietary patterns emphasising on meat (6.6%).

Table 2: Ways that Globalization Affects Gastronomy Tourism

Changes in eating habits	25.4%
Spread of international cuisines restaurants	16.8%
Spread of fast food chains	15.8%
Reduced consumption of local traditional cuisine	13.5%

Emphasis of healthy diet	11.9%
Increased demand of organic products	10.0%
Promotion of dietary patterns emphasising on meat	6.6%

Competition in international markets creates the necessity to promote the Cretan gastronomy tourism. According to our respondents (see Table 3) there are seven main factors that can contribute to the promotion of local gastronomy. The use of the internet is considered the most important means of promotion (27.6%), followed by traditional media (22.8%) and the organisation of gastronomic events abroad (22.5%). The development of thematic parks or a thematic museum, the organisation of gastronomy festivals and the use of advertising materials and brochures were considered less important and received lower percentages.

Table 3: Means of Promoting Gastronomic Tourism

Promotion through internet	27.6%
Promotion through media	22.8%
Organisation of gastronomic events abroad	22.5%
Development of thematic park	7.8%
Organisation of gastronomy festivals	7.8%
Development of thematic museum	6.2%
Advertising material and brochures	5.3%

Regarding the gastronomy initiatives that take place in Greece and Crete (see Table 4), the largest number of respondents (23%) are mostly aware of wine tourism initiatives and more specifically the 'Wine Roads of Northern Greece'. The 'Greek Breakfast' initiative that has been introduced by many hotels all over Greece over the last few years is known by 19.4% of the respondents, followed by the 'Cretan Diet Food Festival' in Rethymno with 13% and the 'Festival of Shepherd and Cheese' in Zoniana, Rethymno. Table 4 also shows that a number of other initiatives are less well known by our respondents, e.g., the Nikolaos Tselemendes Festival in Sifnos (9.7%), the Thessaloniki Food Festival (5.4%), the Sani Gourmet Festival in Halkidiki (4.6%).

Table 4: Gastronomy Initiatives Awareness

Wine roads of Northern Greece	23%
Greek breakfast	19.4%
Cretan diet food festival – Rethymno, Crete	13%
The festival of Shepherd and cheese - Zoniana, Rethymno, Crete	11.2%
Nikolaos Tselemendes festival – Sifnos	9.7%
Thessaloniki food festival	5.4%
Sani Gourmet Festival – Halkidiki	4.6%
Amari Green Festival – Rethymno, Crete	3.6%
Mount Athos Gourmet	3.3%
Gastronomy festival – Lefkada	1.9%
Bread festival of Kastamonitsa – Heraklion, Crete	1.4%
Wine festival in Dafnes – Heraklion, Crete	1.3%
Eco Zakynthos	0.9%
None	0.8%
Other	0.5%

The majority of our respondents (95.8%) were aware of the advantages of the Cretan Diet, with only 4.2% answering negatively. In order to investigate which traditional local plates of the Cretan cuisine are well known, we asked our respondents to write down the first one that came to their mind, from the plates they have tasted up to that point. As presented in Table 5, the most well-known dish among domestic visitors were snails, lamb cooked in various traditional ways, pilaf, Dakos and Dolmadakia. All respondents (100%) answered positively that they had tasted traditional Cretan cuisine during their visit to the island.

Table 5: Which is the First Local Traditional Dish that Comes to Your Mind

Snails (traditionally cooked with salt, olive oil, vinegar and rosemary)	22%
Antikristo (lamb traditionally cooked face-to-face)	18%
Marriage pilaf	14.7%
Dakos (type of bread with tomato, olive oil and feta cheese)	13.8%
Dolmadakia	6.3%
Lamb in the oven (traditionally cooked with potatoes)	5.2%
Snails with groats	4.2%
Lamb with chicory	3.6%
Artichokes with broad beans	3.1%
Small pies with mizithra (traditional cheese) and honey	3.0%
Kalitsounia (traditional sweets for Easter)	2.6%
Apaki (pork meat)	2.3%
Pie from Sfakia	1.2%

Regarding the types of places where respondents tasted traditional Cretan cuisine, more than half, (52.1%) visited a traditional taverna, 26.2% a friend's house, 16.4% a restaurant, 4.2% a hotel and only 1.1% visited a gastronomy festival. The majority of the respondents, (87.6%) reported having bought traditional food and beverage before their departure from Crete. Table 6 shows the traditional beverage and food bought by domestic tourists before their departure from Crete.

Table 6: Traditional Food &Beverage Bought Before Departure

Raki	23.6%
Cheese	19.6%
Paksimadi	14.5%
Honey	12.3%
Olive oil	12.0%
Wine	6.3%
Olives	4.8%
Spices & herbs	3.8%
Raisins	3.1%

Domestic visitors presented various perceptions regarding traditional Cretan cuisine, as presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Perceptions of Traditional Cretan Cuisine

Large variety of local recipes	42.3%
Quality of local cuisine	42.0%
Medium quality local cuisine with high prices	6.7%
Use of non-quality raw material	5.3%
Rude employees	1.7%
Distorted image of local cuisine	1.5%
Bad quality of local cuisine	0.5%

As to whether the Cretan cuisine is a motive for the respondents to revisit Crete, 33.6% answered that it is a very important motive, 48.6% answered that it is important enough, 15.8% answered that it is not very important, and for 2% of the sample it was not at all a motive. The study shows that food is not a primary or major motivation for visitors when deciding to visit Crete, but it is among their motives for visitation.

Respondents' Demographics

Women comprised 54.7% of the total sample and men 45.3%. The highest percentage of the respondents (43.6%) were 30-40 years old, 34.3% were 41-50 and 22.1% were 51+. As far as education was concerned, more than half of the sample (50.8%) had a University degree, 30.8% a high school education, 14.3% a Masters or PhD degree and 4.1% had primary school education.

Regarding income, 9.3% was below 500 euros, 19.3% earned 501-900, 30.8% earned 901-1300, 11.5% earned 1301-1500, 10.8% earned 1501-2000, 7.2% earned 2001 – 2500, 4.3% earned 2501-3000 and 6.8% earned above 3000 euros.

Conclusion

The aim of this research was to investigate domestic visitors' perceptions regarding issues of gastronomy tourism in Crete. Research showed that the highest percentage of domestic tourists are repeat visitors and their main motivation is the sun and the sea. The study shows that gastronomy is not a primary motivation for visiting Crete, although it is a term that most respondents are familiar with, as they were aware of the benefits of the Cretan diet. All respondents had tasted the traditional Cretan cuisine during their visit and bought traditional products before their departure. Although a significant number of respondents believe that globalisation has changed eating habits, they also recognised that the island offers a quality traditional cuisine with a large variety of local recipes. Hence, this could be a significant driver motivating repeat visits to the island. As our results indicate, Gastronomy is not yet a main motive for visiting Crete. The major recommendation of this study is that a significant marketing strategy promoting Gastronomy Tourism based on the use of modern channels of communication such as social media should be developed. For this approach to be viable, innovation is required in terms of e.g., the organisation of gastronomic events and festivals.

Crete has the potential to attract gastronomic tourists, domestic and international, due to its cultural and historical heritage, as well as the climate and natural environment, on a twelve-month basis. However, this study indicates that there are certain weaknesses, such as quality problems, lack of effective promotion of its rich resources, and lack of a central related tourism policy. Issues of promotional activities concentrated on gastronomy tourism should seriously be considered by both the public and private sectors. We therefore propose to undertake a similar study into the perceptions of international tourists regarding gastronomy tourism in Crete in order to ascertain their perceptions of Cretan cuisine as a motive for visitation.

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IMPACT OF TOURISM ON INDIGENOUS BOTE COMMUNITY OF CHITWAN NATIONAL PARK

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Abstract: Tourism acts as an economic incentive that improves the livelihood of an indigenous community residing enclosed in protected areas, helps to mitigate existing park people conflict and paves a path towards sustainable biodiversity conservation. However, it is essential to monitor and evaluate the benefit of tourism to different aspects of such indigenous communities. This paper explores the socio–cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism on the indigenous Bote community residing within the buffer zone area of Chitwan National Park. The study used mixed method for an in-depth tourism impact analysis on the Bote community. This study indicates that there is no socio-cultural impact on the indigenous Bote community. However, a weak positive impact on the economic and environmental aspects of the indigenous Bote community was found. This community is incapable of reaping a significant amount of potential tourism benefits despite their area having a strong destination image within Nepal's tourism industry.

Keywords: Tourism impact, Indigenous Bote community, Chitwan National Park

Introduction

The tourism industry has an exceptional impact on global economics and has evolved into one of the largest and highest growth industry in the world. The chronological revenue growth of international tourism is US$ 2 billion in 1950, to US$ 104 billion in 1980, and US$ 1,220 billion in 2016. The direct contribution of travel and tourism to Gross Domestic Product in 2016 was US$ 2,306 billion and is forecasted to rise by 4.0% per annum from 2017 to 2027 (World Tourism Organisation, 2017). The tourism industry has a tendency to create both positive and negative impacts on host communities and visitors (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd, & Wanhill, 2000). Thus, the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological diversity (2004); Leung, et. al. (2015); Eagles, et. al. (2002); Weaver and Lawton (2002) emphasise the need to evaluate the positive or negative impacts of tourism on local communities for sustainable tourism development, and the formulation of action plans and policy accordingly.

The formulation of the National Park and Wildlife Conservation Act 1973, which led to the establishment of the Chitwan National Park, imposed a measure that would prove austere for the livelihood of an indigenous community (Nepal & Weber, 1993). Jana (2008) portrays a persistent conflict between the Park authority and the people in areas near Chitwan National Park. Significant literature emphasises tourism as an antidote to mitigate park people conflict by assisting the livelihood of local communities and reducing their excessive dependence on natural resources (Beaumont, 2001; Gerald, 2000; Kiss, 2004; Stone, 2013; Ross & Wall, 1999). However, the tourism industry in Nepal is controlled by tour operators from the capital city – Kathmandu. They retain most of the revenue generated from industry (WWF, 2013) and thus the

economic benefit of tourism to indigenous communities residing nearby Chitwan National Park is negligible (Department of National Park and Wildlife Conservation, 2015). Wells (1993), Department of National Park and Wildlife Conservation (2015), identify the lack of a comprehensive framework and institutional mechanisms to monitor the impact of tourism in Chitwan National Park. Furthermore, Acharya (2010) identifies the lack of adequate research regarding the livelihoods of Majhi and Bote. To address this issue, the objective of this study is to examine the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism on the Bote community of Chitwan National Park.

Literature Review

Indigenous Bote of Chitwan National Park

The Botes are an indigenous people abundantly settled within a river premise of the Rapti River adjacent to Chitwan National Park in the southern lowland of Nepal. Such phenomena of settlement within premises of rivers have made them highly dependent upon a river in terms of cultural and livelihood activities (Sharma, Poudyal, & Heeramani, 1985). Initially, the establishment of Chitwan National Park in 1973 held a stereotypical perspective on indigenous Bote people regarding them as a source of biodiversity degradation within a region. Hence, the Royal Nepalese army (later renamed the Nepalese army under the Ministry of Defence) in 1975 were deployed in the region to enforce the National Park and Wildlife Conservation Act 1973, which incorporated the oppressive notion of 'Command and Follow, Fine and Fences' approach (Baral, 2013; Wright, Aryal, Poudel, & Wagle, 2017). Moreover, the park entirely neglected traditional systems of governance, management practices on resource management and ancient ecological knowledge of the indigenous Bote (Nepal & Weber, 1993). This alienated them from their customary rights, traditional livelihood and access to resources.

Such regressive measures on resources, dependent poor and minority groups created a serious livelihood crisis amongst the landless Bote population (Paudel, Adhikari, & Paudel, 2007). At present, Botes usually seek an alternative livelihood following non-traditional ways of living, such as wage labour and employment in various sectors (Subba, 1989; Acharya, 2010). The National Foundation for Development of Indigenous Nationalities (NFDIN), affiliated to the Ministry of Local Development, Government of Nepal, has classified the indigenous Bote people as a highly marginalized group.

Tourism in Chitwan National Park

The pristine natural ecosystem of Chitwan National Park is a major attractive destination of Nepal's tourism industry. The protected area, consisting of significant endangered species, is a landmark destination for nature tourism, wildlife tourism, bird watching activities, etc. So far, the National Park has been able to generate NPR 1,93,70,84,286 revenue from the tourism industry since its establishment (Chitwan National Park, 2016).

Tourist arrival numbers are growing steadily, particularly in the Sauraha region as it is the main entrance to the park. Being a focal location of the tourism industry in CNP, Sauraha accommodates more than 70% of tourists visiting the park (Department of National Park and Wildlife

Conservation, 2015). However, Pandit (2012) claims that non-native people own 86% percent of the hotels in Sauraha. Thus, the economic benefit of tourism to local indigenous people is limited in form to low paying employment such as nature guide, boat man, kitchen helper, gardener, etc. (Paudel, 2016). The tourism benefits to indigenous people in other regions are non-existent. To address this issue, Chitwan National Park has recently created a Conservation and Eco-tourism Promotion Fund to provide soft loans to user committee members who are interested in being involved in the ecotourism business (Department of National Park and Wildlife Conservation, 2015). Nevertheless, there is an inadequacy of proper strategic tourism plans and policies to ensure equal distribution of tourism benefits among the indigenous population.

Sustainable Tourism in the Protected Area

Beaumont (2001) and Stone (2013) highlight tourism as a sustainable livelihood option for local communities in and around protected areas which reduces poverty levels and over dependency on natural resources. In addition, Salafsky and Wollenberg (2000) emphasise the necessity of a strong direct linkage between socio-cultural, economic and ecological aspects for the sustainable development of a region. However, Kiss (2004) and Novelli and Scarth (2007) demonstrate the mixed results of such attempts, due to limitations of financial investments, proximity of tourism benefits, fluctuating support from development agencies, attitudes of the local communities, and the lack of direct involvement of local people. Nevertheless, Eagles (2002) asserts that for sustainable tourism to thrive in protected areas requires long-term commitment from multiple stakeholders and the recognition of stakeholders' perceptions of tourism benefits.

Sustainable tourism development in protected areas can be executed through guidelines formulated in the European Charter for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas (Europarc Federation, 2010), Global Sustainable Tourism Council Destination criteria, Guidelines on Biodiversity and Tourism Development (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2004), Tourism and visitor management in protected area (Leung, Spenceley, Hvenegaard, & Buckley, 2015) and, Sustainable tourism in protected area (Eagles, McCool, & Haynes, 2002). More importantly, the Larrakia and Quebec declarations embrace the principles of the United National Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples to empower development of indigenous tourism in sustainable manner.

Socio-cultural, Economic and Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Socio–cultural Impacts of Tourism

Wall and Mathieson (2006) identifies the social impacts of tourism which contribute to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family structure, relationships, collective lifestyles, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organizations. Moreover, Butler and Pearce (1998), Inskeep (1991), Wall and Mathieson (2006) identify the positive social impacts of tourism as an increment of awareness among host community towards the preservation of cultural heritage sites, unique arts and crafts and improvement in intercultural understanding. In addition, Nyaupane and Poudel (2011) suggests tourism enhances self-esteem and capacity building amongst host communities. However, tourism can have negative characteristics which bring serious threats to host communities, e.g., commercialisation of sacred practices, a xenophobic attitude of host communities towards tourists, the emergence of local

elites, crime, prostitution, and displacement of local residents, (Wall & Mathieson, 2006; Eagles, McCool, & Haynes, 2002).

Economic Impacts of Tourism

Similar to socio-cultural impacts, tourism possesses both positive and negative characteristics in relation to its economic impacts on society. The key objective of tourism development is to ensure that the positive economic impacts are maximised, and the tourism industry is sustainable. Among the positive impacts: tourism contributes to improvements in foreign earnings for host nation (Le Quesne & Calversy, 1998), acts as catalyst for regional and national development through the multiplying effect (Pillay & Rogerson, 2013), increases the income of host population (Mochechela, 2010) by providing employment to local communities (Van Harsel, 1994), and works as an alternative to exploitative use of environmental resources (Beaumont, 2001; Ross & Wall, 1999).

In similar manner, the negative economic impacts of tourism are identified as: economic leakage resulting in no improvement in reducing poverty amongst communities (Blake, Arbache, Sinclair, & Teles, 2008; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd, & Wanhill, 2000; Sandbrook, 2010), unpredictable source of income which is highly influenced by external factors (Boo, 1993) resulting in the risk of high reliance on a single industry for livelihood (Page, 2005; Page & Connell, 2006). In addition, tourism gentrification can lead to price inflation within host communities (Gotham, 2005) resulting in the migration of local populations because of the lack of local employment caused by unregulated tourism in host communities (Mochechela, 2010).

Environmental Impact of Tourism

Tourism has the potential to create beneficial effects on the environment by contributing to environmental protection and conservation. A balance between economic, social and natural capital leads to a healthy ecosystem, a vibrant regional economy, social equity and empowerment (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004). Furthermore, Stone (2013), Nyaupane and Poudel (2011) emphasises tourism as a sustainable livelihood option for local communities and has the potential to uplift or drop biodiversity conservation efforts. Sunlu (2003); Rabbany, et. al. (2013) and Eagles and McCool (2002) identify the direct environmental impacts of tourism such as: water, air, and land quality, noise pollution, sewage wastage, littering, habitat alteration, trampling on vegetation and aesthetic pollution.

Methodology

Research design: The study is conducted through a mixed research approach.
Population: The target population was the Bote community of Chitwan National Park.
Sample: A sample of 150 local Bote community resident was considered for the sampling. Out of 150 sample, 127 respondents gave their consent to participate in the survey.
Sampling technique: Convenience sampling was used to obtain quantitative data. Purposive sampling was used for collecting qualitative data.

Instrumentation: For the quantitative data a questionnaire with 21 opinion statement was formulated to measure residents' attitudes towards tourism impacts. The questionnaire was translated into Nepali for comprehension by community members. A validity test was performed with consultation with experts and a pilot test for internal consistency in questionnaire, and reliability test was employed by Cronbach's alpha (0.652) for reliability concerns.

For the qualitative data structured interviews with key informants were conducted indigenous (i.e., community, park authority and representative from tourism industry).

Results

Respondents Profile: Of the 127 respondents, 52% were female and 48% male. The majority of the respondents were below 25 years old (44.9%), followed by the 25-35 age group (37%). The education level of the majority of respondents were below school level (86.61%), followed by college level (11.81%). The marital status shows that 62.99% of respondents as unmarried and 36.22% as married.

Bote Community Perceptions of the Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism

The results presented in Table 1, the overall mean value of 4.0 demonstrates a slight agreement of respondents towards the positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism on Bote community. Other perceived positive impacts include appreciation of local culture and sacred sites by tourists, which have mean values of 5.15 and 5.11 respectively. To the contrary, there is disagreement about the participation of the indigenous Bote community in the decision-making process while formulating tourism policy. This statement has the lowest mean value of 2.07. The perception is similar for access to tourism education programmes and information about tourism plans and policy, with mean values of 2.35 and 2.43 respectively.

Table 1: Bote Community Perceptions of the Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism

Sl. No	Opinion Statement	Mean	SD
1	Tourism practice appreciates our local culture	5.15	0.900
2	Tourism practice appreciates our sacred sites	5.11	1.028
3	Tourism has generated positive awareness towards preservation of local culture among community	4.44	1.572
4	Tourism has generated positive awareness towards preservation of sacred sites among community	4.43	1.540
5	I have access to information about tourism plans & policy	2.43	1.793
6	I have access to tourism education programmes	2.35	1.711
7	I have access to conservation education programmes	4.41	1.743
8	I participate in decision making process while formulating tourism policy	2.07	1.564
9	Tourism has not contributed in the increasing rate of crime in our area	5.65	0.540
Socio-cultural impacts		**4.00**	**0.743**

Bote Community Perceptions of the Economic Impacts of Tourism

The results indicate that the lowest mean value of 2.28 in Table 2 indicates that the Bote people disagree with statement on tourism activities supporting their local business. Furthermore, the mean value of 2.33 indicates that tourism business has not practiced corporate social responsibility activities within the region. In the context of employment, the mean value of 3.03 indicates that the Bote people slightly disagree with the statement on significant numbers of Bote people being directly employed in the tourism industry. In conclusion, the overall mean value of 3.05 shows that the sample population slightly disagrees that tourism has brought positive economic benefits to the community.

Table 2: Bote Community Perceptions of the Economic Impacts of Tourism

Sl. No	Opinion Statement	Mean	SD
1	There is significant number of people from Bote community directly employed in tourism	3.03	1.821
2	Tourism activity in CNP supports local business operated by our community members	2.28	1.552
3	The economic benefits from tourism practices in CNP is not limited within few people	4.55	1.693
4	Proportion of profits made by tourism businesses in CNP are used to improve local development	2.33	1.653
Economic impacts		**3.05**	**1.042**

Bote Community Perceptions of the Environmental Impacts of Tourism

The results as shown in table 3 show an overall mean value of 5.21, indicating that the Bote community agrees with the statement about the positive environmental impact of tourism. The mean value of 5.37 indicates that sample population agrees that tourism has not contributed to air, land and water pollution within their locality. The Bote community agrees that tourism has not contributed to traffic congestion, overcrowding or shortage in water supply, as the mean values show (5.32 and 5.53 respectively). The lowest among the list with mean value of 4.64 is an opinion statement on tourism's contribution to strengthen the community's effort towards bio diversity conservation.

Table 3: Bote Community Perceptions of the Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Sl. No	Opinion Statement	Mean	SD
1	Tourism has not contributed in air, land and water pollution within our locality	5.37	0.998
2	There is no high traffic congestion and overcrowding due to presence of tourists	5.32	0.941
3	The increased water consumption by tourist businesses has not led to shortages in water supply for our community	5.53	0.824
4	Tourism development has strengthened community's effort towards bio diversity conservation	4.64	1.461
Environmental impacts		**5.21**	**0.564**

Bote Community Perceptions of Tourism Activity

The result as presented in table 4, the sampled population from the Bote community agrees that there is tourist movement and tourism activities occurring in their village premises. This opinion statement has the highest mean value of 5.01. Furthermore, with mean value of 4.87, the community agrees that their village has a strong tourist destination image. On the contrary, the lowest mean value of 2.27 was a major disagreement by the Bote community on the tourism policy formulated by the Chitwan National Park incorporating preservation of their socio-cultural aspects and ensuring tourism economic benefits.

Table 4: Bote Community Perceptions of Tourism Activity

Sl. No	Opinion statement	Mean	SD
1	There are tourist movement and tourism activities operated by tour companies in our village	5.01	1.414
2	Elements for tourism products such as attraction, accommodation, accessibility and amenities are available in our village	4.12	1.947
3	There is strong tourist destination image of our village	4.87	1.722
4	Tourism policy of CNP addresses in preservation of our socio – cultural, economic and environment aspects	2.27	1.726
Tourism activities		**4.07**	**1.037**

Regression Analysis

The correlation analysis (Table 5) indicates no correlation between tourism activities and socio – cultural changes as value of R is 0.148 ($p > 0.05$). However, there is weak correlation between tourism activities and, economic and environmental aspects as value of R is 0.245 ($p < 0.01$) and 0.211 ($p < 0.05$), respectively. The R-square value of 0.022, 0.060 and 0.044 denotes that only 2.2%, 6% and 4.4% of change in socio-cultural, economic and environmental variance (due to

tourism activity) has been explained. Table 5 reflects the regression model between socio–cultural and tourism model is not statistically significant as sig. p–value 0.097 > 0.05 (α). The regression model between economic, environmental and tourism activity is statistically significant as sig. p-value of both is 0.005, 0.017 < 0.05 (α). The β coefficient according to Table 5 indicates that 1-point increase on tourism activities would lead to 0.106, 0.246 and 0.115 unit increase in socio–culture, economic and environmental aspect of Bote community.

Table 5: Regression Analysis

Model	R	R sq	St. error	F	P value	Beta	t	p
Socio-cultural	0.148[a]	0.022	0.063	2.795	0.097[b]	0.106	1.672	0.097
Economic	0.245[a]	0.060	0.087	7.993	0.005[b]	0.246	2.827	0.005
Environment	0.211[a]	0.044	0.048	5.811	0.017[b]	0.115	2.411	0.017

a. **Predictors:** (Constant), Tourism activities
b. **Dependent Variable:** Socio – culture, economic and environment

Interview Findings

Bote Community Perceptions of the Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism

Respondent 'B': *'The tourist movement is controlled by hotel industry and travel agents. Since, there is minimum interaction between tourist and Bote community we are not sure about their perception on our culture, traditional lifestyle and religion.'*

Respondent 'C': *'There is lack of tourism activities that relates with indigenous people in Kasara. The purpose of visiting the place is for jungle safari. We need to have divergent tourism activity related to local community to understand visitor perception towards culture and religion of Bote community.'*
The opinion of respondents in this section indicates that there is weak socio-cultural impact of tourism among the Bote community in the Chitwan National Park. Such a notion may be due to the small amount of interaction between tourist and indigenous Bote people.

Bote Community Perceptions of the Economic Impacts of Tourism

Respondent 'A': *'There is not much involvement of Bote community in tourism sector but some of them are employed as nature guide, boat man, jungle guide etc in hotels and resorts. In Meghauli there are big resorts that prioritise local employment for business operations and tourism activities.'*

Respondent 'B': *'National park and hotel industry are the only ones that reap benefits from tourism business; the industry has not provided any benefits to our community. This is due to both tourism business and activities being controlled by few limited number of individuals and not by community organisation.'*

The perspective of respondents in this section indicates that there is no significant economic impact of tourism among the indigenous Bote people of the Chitwan National Park. The respondent claimed that few Bote people who are employed in the tourism industry are limited to low paying menial work. The Bote community shows strong resentment towards the tourism industry as it fails to provide substantial economic benefits to the community.

Bote Community Perceptions of the Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Respondent 'A': *'There are few home stays in Amaltari, Madi region which is invested by indigenous Tharu, Bote ethnic people. The involvement of such resource depended people in tourism activities has improved bio diversity conservation of CNP.'*

Respondent 'B': *'Bote are animistic in religion so our traditional rituals and culture are centred towards ecosystem around us. We worship plants and animals depending upon our ancestral lineage. Crocodile, Rhino, Bot tree plays significant role in our religious belief. The livelihood of Bote has proved to be sustainable throughout ages, so even without involvement of Bote in tourism industry, the ecosystem will still be preserved by community member. But yes, we will be less depended upon use of natural resources.'*

To summarise this section, respondents have mixed opinion regarding the environmental impacts of tourism. One of the respondents claimed that involvement of indigenous people in tourism industry has improved bio-diversity, whereas other respondent claimed that community members will preserve eco-systems even if they are not involved in the tourism industry.

Discussion

Socio-cultural Impacts

The finding of this research shows an absence of positive tourism impact on socio-cultural aspects of the Bote community. Therefore, this research is consistent with Simpson (2008) who asserts that communities that are subjected to an external pressure, government and stakeholder, undermines the potential benefits of the tourism sector. This research shows weak representation of the Bote community at the decision-making level of both the tourism sector and the National Park. Thus, the potential benefit of tourism is unavailable to the beneficiary community.

The Bote community has a cohesive perspective towards the preservation of culture, sacred sites, art and crafts, and traditional lifestyle as sources of attraction for the tourism industry. Thus, the findings show positive social empowerment of tourism as contemplated by Nyaupane and Poudel, (2011) and Wall and Mathieson, (2006). The research further agrees with Sebele, (2010) and Tosun, (2006) who posits capacity building and participation of local people as significant factor that generates positive attitudes towards tourism development. The inadequacy of both factors among the Bote community has resulted in an attitude of resentment towards the tourism industry.

Economic Impacts

This research corroborates the studies of Pandit (2012) and WWF (2013) as the tourism industry in Kasara region is controlled by non-native foreign investors who receive large portion of tourism

benefit (Bookbinder, Dinerstein, Rijal, Hank, & Arup, 1998; Wells, 1997). The economic impact analysis shows the tourism industry is not supporting businesses operated by local people and so also supports the studies of Blake et. al. (2008) and Page and Connell, (2006) who argue that the high leakage of the tourism economy fails to reduce poverty among local communities. According to the research finding, the multiplier effect of the tourism industry has not been able to resolve poverty among the Bote community as the industry is ineffective in stimulating the economy of the local area (Rusu, 2011). Furthermore, as indicated by Wells (1997), the Bote community has a strong resentment against hotel groups and foreign tour operators who benefit from the park resources of their areas but hardly contribute towards the social and economic development of the local community.

In regard to employment, the research substantiates the study of Park and Stokowksi, (2009) which emphasises non-local residents getting employment in high paying tourism jobs. Thus, this research validates the findings of Paudel, (2016), while the local indigenous Bote community is limited to menial tourism employment and is deprived of significant benefits. The lack of proper education and skill development training on tourism activities has been depriving the Bote community of higher paying jobs in the tourism industry, which supports the assertion by Wells, (1997). This research therefore acknowledges Lamsal, (2012) who recommends affirmative action in providing skill development and income generating opportunities to minority tribes for capacity building of community.

Environmental Impacts

Sunlu, (2003) describes the depletion of water resources in host destinations due to tourism. However, the finding of this research shows that the Bote community have adequate access to water resources for daily purposes. This finding indicates that the tourism industry has not contributed to air, water or land pollution.

Gorhan, (2000) maintains that tourism has the potential to contribute to local economic development and the sustainable conservation of protected areas. The research finding supports those of Baral, (2013), who found a positive correlation between tourism benefits obtained by local communities and their support for biodiversity conservation. However, the findings of this research indicate that community members, despite not being involved in the tourism industry, are still willing to preserve biodiversity of an area as it is interlinked with their culture and religious aspect. Thus, this particular finding strongly contradicts that of Nyaupane & Poudel, (2011) who state that local communities marginalised from tourism development will tend to withdraw their support for biodiversity conservation.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study shows that the tourism industry has no socio-cultural impact on the indigenous Bote community. The study further indicates that tourism has a weak positive impact on the economic and environmental aspects of the indigenous Bote community. In conclusion, this community is incapable of reaping a significant amount of potential tourism benefits despite their area having a strong destination image within Nepal's tourism industry. The limited benefit of tourism has resulted in a lack of resolution of park-people conflict and extreme poverty within the Bote

community. Poverty has become a major barrier for the community to reap the significant potential of tourism benefits, as the community lacks sufficient knowledge, skills and capacity to be involved in tourism development activities. Furthermore, lack of participation in decision making processes and tourism policy formulation in order to create strong linkages between socio-cultural, economic and environmental aspects of the Bote community has worsened the situation. The findings and conclusions of this study suggest the following recommendation for the encouragement of sustainable tourism development within this area.

Tourism Plans and Policies:

- Establish an institutional mechanism to monitor tourism impacts within an area.
- Formulate separate annual tourism management plans and strategic action plans for implementation.
- Incorporate visitor management systems in strategic tourism plans to address the issue of extreme tourist pressure in Sauraha.
- Ensure equal distribution of tourism benefits for the indigenous communities within an area.
- Incorporate international declarations on indigenous tourism such as Larrakia and Quebec declarations.
- Incorporate internationally approved principles, guidelines and ethical code of sustainable tourism for protected areas (as formulated by CBD, IUCN-WPCA, TAPAS, and GSTC, etc.) in a legal framework, policies and tourism master plans.
- Consult with indigenous community members during the formulation of tourism development plans and policies. Acknowledge the principle of Free Prior Informed Consent right.

The Role of the National Park, Private and Development Agencies:

- Establish indigenous museum and culture learning centers.
- Establish Sustainable Destination Management Organisation to manage tourism destination site.
- Assist community member to establish community-based ecotourism to enhance socio-cultural and economic status of an indigenous community.
- Promote niche tourism markets such as indigenous tourism, ethnic tourism, and tribal tourism.
- Constantly provide training on technical skills and education on tourism entrepreneurship to engage indigenous people in the tourism business.
- Coordinate with an indigenous community to set up local businesses such as souvenir shops, livestock farm and agriculture farm. Encourage the tourism and hotel industries to buy agricultural and livestock products from local businesses. This will reduce economic leakage from the area. Furthermore, diversification of economic activities is necessary to reduce dependency on the tourism industry.
- Establish mechanisms to provide indirect incentives to indigenous communities from tourism revenue, including scholarships, healthcare, infrastructure development, etc.
- Prioritise employment of women, disabled people and families suffering from wildlife casualties in the tourism industry.

- Provide economic incentives to private companies running ecotourism projects.
- Encourage tourism operators to develop environment-friendly tour activities by providing sustainable tourism certification and eco-labels.
- Establish a Conservation and Eco-tourism Promotion Fund that provides soft loans to user committee members interested in establishing an ecotourism business.
- Foster tourism research collaboration with academics and research institutes.
- Create a network of alliances between multiple tourism stakeholders such as community organisations, protected area manager, local government representatives, tourism businesses and development agencies.

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SUSTAINABILITY IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY
A STUDY OF NAGARKOT, NEPAL

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Abstract: Sustainability is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Brundtland Report, 1987). Hotels today, being one of the important components of the Hospitality Industry, have been practicing sustainability by incorporating economic, environmental and social factors as outlined by Elkington (1994), universally known as the 'triple bottom line'. To make it more realistic, hoteliers are intensifying the scope of sustainability by integrating corporate social responsibility (CSR) approach. However, a major challenge today is the people component to materialize all these practices and efforts. Attitude, resistance to change, irregular work hours, high physical and emotional work load and the perception of employees are the key factors to overcome in order to attain real green team and sustainable innovations in the Hospitality Industry. This paper offers an overview of the condition of sustainability efforts made by Hotels in Nagarkot, Nepal. Nagarkot is one of the important niche tourism destinations, having more than 50 hotels, lodges and eco-resorts, and it is about 32km north east of the capital city of Kathmandu. It is an eco-friendly tourism destination, famous among nature loving vacationers.

Keywords: Green team, Eco-resorts, Green buildings, Greenhouse gases

Sustainability and Sustainable Development

Before describing sustainability, it is indispensable to understand the history of sustainable development, sustainable tourism and how sustainability came to life in the field of development and academia. Although the term 'Sustainable' came out in 1987, through the Brundtland Report, the history of sustainability can be traced back to the 1960s. The conception of environmentalism gave birth to this thought in the 1970s (Bramwell & Lane, 1993, Hardy, Beeton & Pearson 2002, Kunwar, 2017, Liu, 2003, Kunwar, 2017) and in 1980s (IUCN1980, Liu, 2003) and finally it was recognized in the late 1980s and at the beginning of the 1990s. The Los Angeles times (1996) as cited by Dixon and Fallon (1989) also stated that the principle of 'sustainable development' derives from the discipline of economics that has been evolving for almost two centuries. The debate continues to focus on whether the Earth's limited natural resources will continue to provide life support for humanity's growing population.

It was Krippendorf's seminal book *The Holiday Makers (1984)* (Franc, 2006, Kunwar, 2017) that introduced some of the most important ideas in tourism studies. After three years, the Brundtland Commission released its final report, 'Our Common Future' which famously defines sustainable development as: 'the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (Brundtland, 1987). As cited by Kunwar

(2017), sustainable development enhanced the concept of sustainable tourism development in 1992, founded by the Rio Conference in Agenda 21. So far as sustainable tourism is concerned, it is defined as a model form of economic development that is designed to improve the quality of life of the host community, provide a high quality of experience for the visitors and both of these maintain and depend on the quality of the environment. Wayne et. al., (2006) defined sustainability as a process that helps to create a vibrant economy and a high quality of life, while respecting the need to sustain natural resources and protect the environment. It expresses the principle that future generations should live in a world that the present generation has enjoyed but not diminished.

The concept of sustainable development is founded on three pillars commonly known as social, economic and environmental. In this regards Yadav (2016) highlighted sustainable development as an agent which reinforces the key development objectives of alleviating poverty, generating employment, redistributing income, empowering people and conserving the environment and natural resources. This reveals how sustainable development is important in developing countries. In the course of studying sustainable development, it is John Elkington who first coined the term 'the triple bottom line' in 1994 to these three pillars of sustainable development. His argument was that companies should be preparing three different (and quite separate) bottom lines; the traditional measure of corporate profit called the profit and loss account, a company's people account and planet account. The triple bottom line (TBL) thus consists of three Ps: profit, people and planet. It aims to measure the financial, social and environmental performance of the corporation over a period of time. Only a company that produces a TBL is taking account of the full cost involved in doing business (*The Economist*, Nov. 2009).

The Los Angeles times (1996), as cited by Basiago (1999), stated that more than half of the world's 6.6 billion people will be living in urban areas. This raises the prospect of crowded, violent and unhealthy cities threatened by the escalation of social conflict and intolerable environmental degradation, and the collapse of basic services. Sustainability is an ideal end-state. Like democracy, it is a lofty goal whose perfect realization eludes us. For this reason, there will always be competing definitions of sustainability. We know these definitions will always include the well-being of people, nature, our economy, and our social institutions, attained by working together effectively and over the long term (Allan, 1998).

Hospitality and Hotel Industry

Kunwar's (2017b), latest reviewed article shows that the question of hospitality has been raised by many scholars of hospitality and the tourism industry (Burgess, 1982, King, 1995, Jones, 1996a, Brotherton, 2013, Brotherton, 1999, Ottenbahcher, Harrington & Parsa, 2009, Selwyn 2013). Jones (1996a, p.6-7) has suggested that, 'there is certainly no commonly shared paradigm of what we mean by hospitality…..reference to the research literature would indicate that there has been little or no discussion of what we mean by hospitality… I would propose that the idea of hospitality research exists more in form than in substance.' Also, Taylor and Edgar (1996, p.218 &215), in reflecting on the current state of development of hospitality research, have pointed out 'An essential first step is to decide what the scope of hospitality research should be (and) if academic research in hospitality is to develop satisfactorily it is our view that is must do so within a coherent framework, (Kunwar, 2017b.). Chang, et. al., (2013) defined hospitality as an act of kindness in

welcoming and looking after the basic needs of customers or strangers, mainly in relation to food, drink and accommodation. A contemporary explanation of Hospitality refers to the relationship process between a customer and a host. When we talk about the 'Hospitality Industry', we are referring to the companies or organizations which provide food and/or drink, and/or accommodation to people who are 'away from home'. However, this definition of the 'Hospitality Industry' satisfies only a few situations.

This study has been confined to the hotel's hospitality provision and management, including sustainability in hospitality. Although there are various types of hotels in the world, this study focuses only on the green hotels, eco hotels, sustainable hotels and high-performance hotels where sustainable responsible tourist behaviour is highly expected. Recently, Kunwar (2017) has identified more than 23 types of hospitality and, in particular, two very important types (Persuasive Hospitality and Imposed Hospitality) which Nepalese people used before and after the Maoist movement (1996-2006). Nepal is now returning to persuasive hospitality. This study is based on hotel hospitality in the commercial domain.

Green Hotels, Eco Hotels, Sustainable Hotels and High-Performance Hotels

In recent years, the term sustainable hotel has been interchangeably used as green hotels, eco hotels and high-performance hotels. Dieneret, et.al., (2008, p.5) tried to give a new terminology for sustainability. The writers said: "Let us eliminate the phrase 'green construction' from our lexicon. Let us talk instead of 'smart building', 'high efficiency building', 'high performance building,' or simply 'the future of building. Certainly, this is not going to happen immediately". Michael (2008, p.1) says: 'There is no standard definition for green beyond its attachment to an eco-friendly business. Given the many building industry guidelines and the proprietary systems some hotel companies self-develop, being green can range from encouraging guests to reuse towels, to waste recycling, using wind electricity, to cooking with organic foods, to reducing carbon emissions, to installing rooftop solar panels. Compliance with various benchmarks can result in applying a green label.'

Hospitality Industry and Sustainability

Ryan (1991) as cited in Kunwar (2017a) has noted that tourists are strangers and bring with them the threat of social, cultural and environmental damage. "The tourist is not, however, simply a stranger, but a temporary stranger… they are guest, but an impersonal guest" (Kunwar 2017a). The consequences of this impersonality for hotel hospitality have been characterized by Wood (1994c) cited in Brotherton (2007) in terms of the mechanisms that hotels use to control their stranger-guests. The hospitality industry has increased steadily, growing by 17% between 2004 and 2014. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics 2015, it is estimated that there are 700,000 hotels in the world employing about 15.2 million people. The global hospitality market is generating revenue worth $830 billion. Sustainability in the hospitality industry is one of the most important subsets of sustainable tourism development. Although sustainability in the hospitality industry is an important study, very few scholars of hospitality studies have given attention on this issue. However, some of eminent scholars of the hospitality industry have studied international leading hotels as a cosmopolitan hotel study, which cannot be compared with the small hotels run in the least developed countries. In fact, this kind of study will be very important

particularly in less developed country like Nepal. In the course of studying sustainability in the hospitality industry, Fotiadis (2015) and his comparative study of sustainability in small and medium-size hotels in Taiwan and Greece has provided the impetus for this study in Nagarkot.

Economic Sustainability in Hotels

It is important that the economic health of the organization should be the first priority, along with all the other operational activities. Social and environmental sustainability are interdependent with the economic health of the organization. In 1992, the Scandic Hotel U.S. was about to declare bankruptcy. Between 1990 and 1992, the hotel chain reported losses of approximately US $50 million. A new CEO, Ronald Nilsson, was hired to produce a tremendous turnaround. Nilsson's prime agenda was to make the hotel environmentally sustainable. However, he realized that this goal was not possible unless the economic health of the hotel was improved (Cuenlla, 2002). Houdré (2008) believes that profitability is the key to sustainability which can be achieved by following the strict ethics, growing revenue and saving on costs, thus creating higher shareholder value**.** Michael et. al., (2008 p. 13) state: 'The negative environmental impact of an individual hotel is significant'. A hotel's operations require the generation of inputs and outputs that involve water, energy, chemical, food, sewage, and solid waste'.

Michael et. al., (2008) present some interesting facts about the U.S. Hospitality Industry, which spends about $3.7 billion on energy, of which the electricity use is 60-70% of the total utility costs (electricity, water, fuel and gas). Guest lighting is about 30-40% of the hotel's electricity consumption. A typical hotel uses 218 gallons (1 gallon = 3.78 litres) of water per day per occupied room. Houdré (2011) in an advisory board meeting argued that hotels create a lot of waste and hence have a highly visible position in the community. A typical hotel releases between 160 and 200 kg of CO_2 per square meter of room floor area. Average energy consumption is 55 kwh per guest per night. Regarding waste, the average for a normal hotel is 1kg to 1.5kg waste per guest per night. A case study of the Scandic Hotels figures for 2012 showed: (i) an unsorted waste of 0.5kg per guest per night; (ii) energy consumption of 45.9kwh per guest per night; (iii) water consumption of 201.9 litres per guest per night, and (4) fossil carbon dioxide of 1.9kg per guest per night (Cuenllas 2012).

Burns et. al., (2015) discusses the best practices to be found in the world's hotels. Given that the electricity consumption in a hotel accounts for 60-70% of the total energy cost, a 10% reduction in the energy cost results in an increase in average room rate by $1.35. Again, reducing the water consumption by 7% results in a saving of $135000 to $218000 in the natural gas bill per year used to heat water. Solar energy can be the best way to cut down the cost while using 'green' energy. Solar energy implementation can save on average 25% of the energy that a hotel needs to operate. This accounts for saving of 155kwh of electricity per year. Although this practice has not been widely adopted, switching to an air-to-water heat pump from a conventional heating system (typically, heat from electronic sources or a condensing boiler) can save 50 percent of the energy used and reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 12,000 kg. Where natural gas is available, hotels can replace electricity with gas as a source of energy for the laundry and catering services, reducing the hotel's environmental impact.

After receiving two consecutive awards in 2005 and 2006, Marriott International Hotel worldwide improved its energy management which helped it to save $6 million and at the same time reduced

its greenhouse gas emissions by 70,000 tons. The programme included the installation of 450,000 compact fluorescent light bulbs (CFLs), conversion of all outdoor signage to LED and fiber optic lighting, and implementation of energy and water efficient laundry systems. Through its reduction in energy consumption, Marriott's efforts represent a 2 percent greenhouse gas reduction per room. In 2004, the historic Willard InterContinental in Washington, DC, installed CFLs in common areas and guest rooms. According to hotel management, guest complaints of lighting quality have decreased. As a result of this upgrade, which paid for the initial investment in less than six months, the hotel is saving one million kilowatt hours and more than $100,000 annually. Fifty-three hotels installed building automation in 2013, and realized nearly $200,000 in savings by year-end (Marriott Sustainability Report, 2014)

Environmental Sustainability in Hotels

The Rio Conference (1992) encouraged the hospitality industry to take environmental initiatives such as, the first environmental certificate programmes and initiatives to build so called green buildings. In the 2000's environmental issues were incorporated in the wider concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (Goldstein & Primlani, 2012). Even though hoteliers are considering the social aspects of their operations these are less developed than the environmental aspects (Van Rheede & Blomme, 2012). Basiago (1999) stated that 'Environmental sustainability' requires maintaining natural capital, as a provider of economic inputs called 'sources', an absorber called 'sinks' and of economic outputs called 'wastes' (Daly 1973 & 1974; World Bank 1986; Pearce & Redclift 1988; Pearce et. al. 1990a & 1990b).

Bruns-Smith et. al., (2015 p. 2) states that 'Hilton set a goal of reducing waste by 20 percent and water use by 10 percent by the end of 2013. Hilton exceeded those goals, reducing waste by 24.9 percent and water reductions by 10.2 percent. (The firm's energy and carbon reduction goals proved more elusive.) Thus, decreasing water and energy use can cut utility costs for a hotel while also showing its commitment to corporate stewardship and decreasing its drain on the surrounding environment'. Marriot's Sustainability Report (2014) states that Marriott has been operating with responsible management of resources and has established a formal program to reduce water and energy use. With the rise in unpredictable weather patterns, and global warming conditions, Marriott stresses natural capital and resources, and air and water quality issues. Marriott has the further goals of reducing water consumption by 20% by 2020; empowering hotel development partners to build green hotels, to educate and encourage guests and associates to conserve and preserve resources, and to innovatively control resources including rainforest protection and water conservation.

Social Sustainability in Hotels

Compared to economic and environmental sustainability, social sustainability has not been understood and is least well defined. It has received less attention in public discourse even though it is an important pillar of overall sustainable development. McKenzie (2004) defines social sustainability as the formal and informal processes, systems, structures and relationships which actively support the capacity of current and future generations to create healthy and socially sustainable communities that are equitable, diverse, connected, democratic, and provide a good quality of life.

Bukhari (2012) says: "Social capital and community infrastructure building are another important construct of social sustainability in hospitality industry, which by the results we see lie below in comparison to 'engaged governance' and 'social justice & equity' as these are the basic services, which one organization provide and make available in retort to the demands of communities". Bukhari highlighted about the importance of these two components to enhance the quality of life by building networking, norms, trust, health measures, education, transportation, and rural development. Over all, these elements need to be further focused and developed in the selected organizations.

Houdré (2008) states that the Taj Hotels Group, one of the multi-billion-dollar subsidiaries of Tata Group, has a long history of serving women, artisans and the education of the children. Employees and the corporate officers actively participate in various social activities via the 30% of total profit after tax of the company. Taj Hotels believe in what Mahatma Gandhi has said about the earth: 'The Earth provides enough to satisfy every man's needs, but not every man's greed.' Taj Hotels are involved in sustainable development via corporate governance, employee relations, environmental protection, and community services via the Tata Council for Community Initiatives, which embraces social development, environmental management, biodiversity restoration and employee volunteering. In 2008 Taj announced its newest programme, EARTH (Environment Awareness & Renewal at Taj Hotels), a project which reiterates the conscious effort of one of Asia's largest and finest group of hotels to commit to energy conservation.

Marriott International Hotels with 4000 hotels worldwide in 80 different countries have been innovatively working to make it understand that conservation and community engagement is more than a moral imperative. Marriot also believes that socially responsible business makes good business sense, building customer preference and loyalty. It also believes that travellers also care about hotels that advocate issues of global importance. It has taken initiatives in preserving the Amazon rain forest, providing job readiness training to underserved youth, advocating for secure and easy visa policies into the US (Marriot 2014, Sustainability Report). Willard Intercontinental Hotels, USA are involved in international causes, reinforcing the reality that the U.S. is a generous and caring country. Helping children internationally means supporting such diverse causes as access to clean water in Africa and offering aid to victims of the Asian tsunami (Hourde, 2008).

Research Methodology

The study for this paper was carried out with the help of a structured questionnaire, as well as unstructured questions to as many as 30 hotels and eco resorts in Nagarkot with their 100 in-house guests and about 100 staff. Ten students of the Asian Institute of Technology and Management spent approximately a week in Nagarkot and, together with the researcher, administered the completion of the structured questionnaire by general managers, owners, staff, local stakeholders and guests. The study also consulted a range of source material comprising around seventy journal and magazine articles, 'write-ups' by some eminent personalities, books, soft copies of e-articles.

The Hotel Industry in Nepal

After the advent of democracy in Nepal, the hotel industry started developing at a noble pace. Hotel Himalaya Inn opened in 1950 followed by Hotel Paras in 1951, Hotel Nepal in 1953, Hotel

Snow View in 1955, hotel Shankar in 1964, Hotel Annapurna, a five-star deluxe hotel in 1965, Hotel Soaltee Oberoi 1966, Blue Star Hotel in 1968, Hotel Crystal in 1972, Hotel Yak and Yeti in 1973, Hotel Radisson in 1998 and hotel Hyatt Regency in 2000. Currently there are eight five-star hotels and about twenty-four-star hotels in Nepal. A total of 2500 hotels are registered with the Hotel Association of Nepal and about 350,000 people are employed by these hotels (HAN 2016). A forecast that a number of new airports will open around the country has led to the expectation that 20 or more five-star hotels, 40 four-star and about 70 three-star hotels will open by 2020.

This is however, a very small volume in comparison to a global volume of 700,000 hotels in the world. However, for a small country like Nepal, it is regarded as a positive growth, a 10% turnover rate every year. Rai (2012) states that Nagarkot, having about 50 tourist class hotels, lodges and eco-resorts is one of the important niche tourism destinations which is about 32 km north west of the capital city Kathmandu. It is an eco-friendly destination famous for nature loving vacationers. Nagarkot is situated at about 7,200 feet and is known for its beautiful views of the sunrise over the eastern Himalayas. Nagarkot as a countryside capital is very much a resort village, where people come to escape the sweltering heat of the city and stay overnight. The overall capacity of all the establishments is 603 rooms and 1288 beds. The average expenditure of an individual tourist per stay is $75. According to Rai (2012), the 32 establishments in which he had researched, employed 453 staff members, of which 88% are males and 12% females. On an average, females are paid 2.9% less than their male co-workers. During the peak months, 40% of total expenditure on purchase of food items is spent in periphery 3, 45% in periphery 2 and 15% in periphery 1. For slack months the share of purchase is 35%, 51% and 14% for periphery 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

Findings and Discussions

In an economic sustainability analysis, it is seen that the hoteliers in Nagarkot are aware of guest participation in sustainability. 33% of the total hotels requested their guests to control the use of water and reuse towels and 70% of guests accepted the request. This is similar to what Bruns-Smith et. al., (2015) found in their study in the top 100 resorts in USA, where about 20 environmentally sustainable resorts have towel and linen re-use programme in place and 80% of the customers happily participated. Guests are also requested to use electricity wisely in terms of using electrical appliances such as heating, lighting, ventilations, air-conditioning and televisions, etc. Some hotels also engage their guests in community services.

The majority of visitors like the design of the hotels they are staying in. This indicates that the designs of the hotels at Nagarkot are eco-friendly and have sustainability components installed. Hotels at Nagarkot reflect Nepali culture and ethnicity, but the majority of hotels are modernised to harmonise with the needs of a modern traveller. It is also found that the majority of guests are willing to spend more on eco and environment-friendly hotels. This is consistent with the findings of the Trip Advisor global survey (2006) as cited in Diener (2008, p. 15), which showed that 34% of guests were willing to pay more for environmental friendly hotels. It is observed that the guests also want to be the part of the hotel and contribute something to the society, locals, environment, community and nature. We figured out that the half of the employees are engaged in any particular hotel for less than a year while only 2% employees are engaged in a particular hotel for more than 15 years. It also shows that most of the employees are temporary and are not familiar to their

workplace which might also result to lack of loyalty and easy acceptance to the development programmes like sustainability.

The majority of employees believe controlling expense is the key to cost control like avoiding unwanted cost, recycling and reusing methods, controlling food waste and managing energy, electricity and saving fuels are the fundamentals in controlling cost. It was also found that owners are the most concerned stakeholders in the hotels about the costs and profitability but because of awareness issues and some training and development condemns, it is difficult to get what is expected from the operations. The survey clearly shows that the majority of the employees have not received any training programme on sustainability yet. It clearly indicates the practice of sustainability is not well executed in Nagarkot till date. Employees and hoteliers are not well aware about the sustainability trainings while few employees have received training on the sustainability, and yet it needs to be implemented. We asked employees on what conditions will they be happy to participate in training and development programs in sustainability issues apart from another skills training? Surprisingly, the data showed that 60% of the employees will take part because they want to acquire knowledge about the subject, and only 20% will take part if the hotels share them the direct enticement from the gains (bonus, incentives, etc.) by implementing the sustainability programmes. The rest will be happy to take part in the sustainability training programme if their hotel gains more profit. When asked about what the tools are the hotel owners and managers apply to control the cost of the hotel, most of them said they used LED bulbs instead of florescent and incandescent. We also got other answers like effective use of raw materials, use of local products, etc. This shows that the people are aware of sustainability components in their own way and this further needs a structured sustainable hotel development plan for achieving the sustainable goals of the hotels in this region.

Fig. 1. An overview of sustainable practices of hotels in Nagarkot, Nepal
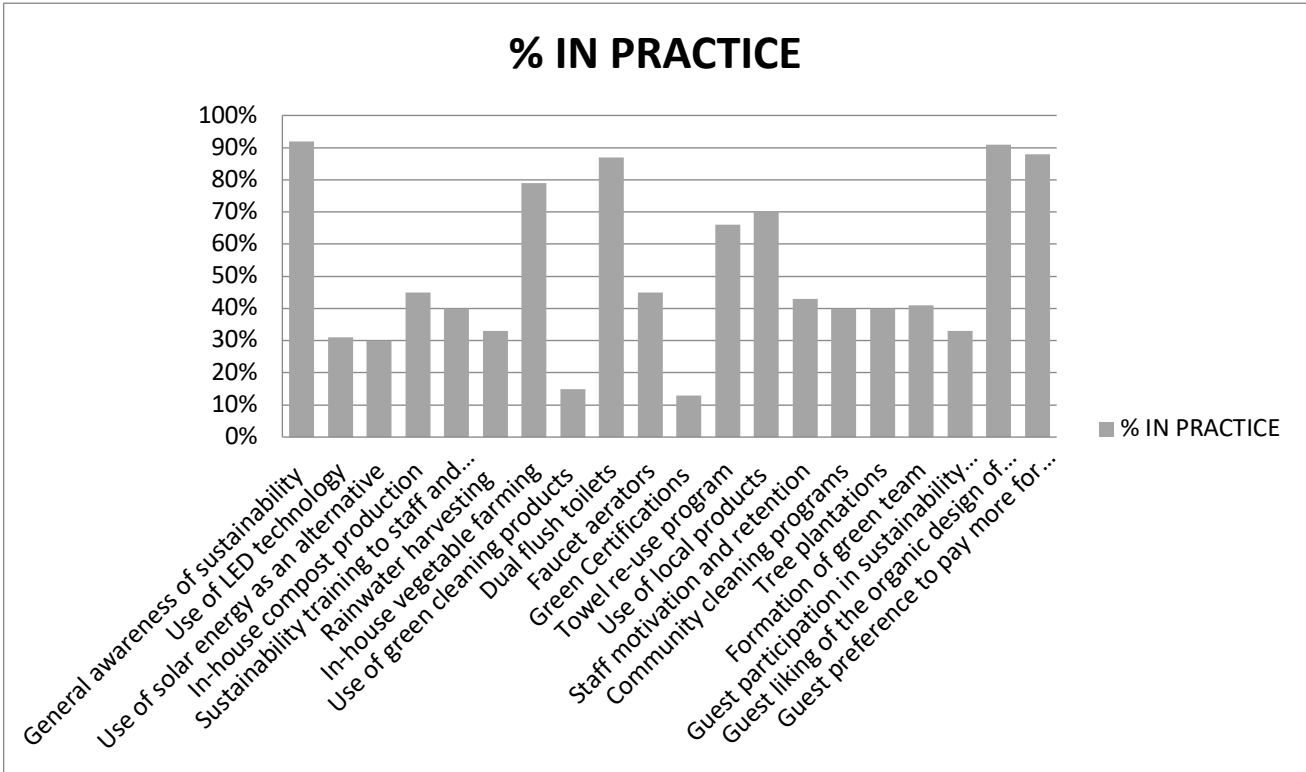
While inspecting on the food cost that the hotels incur on a monthly basis, it is seen that the hotels are able to maintain their food cost percentage in between 20-32%, which is an ideal figure (Tilly 2014). It is found that out of as many 40 books and journals referred for his study, none of the scholars precisely talked about food cost and its relationship with economic sustainability. Out of total food and beverage revenue, 28%-32% goes in food cost and if controlled properly, 1% reduction in food cost can save as much as 10% saving in electricity cost of the hotel. In Figure 1, it is seen that 40% of the total hotels surveyed are managing the waste in a way of converting it to compost for flower gardens and for farming vegetables for their own use. Recycling is the process of converting waste materials into new materials and objects. It is an alternative to 'conventional' waste disposal that can save material and help lower greenhouse gas emissions. Recycling can prevent the waste of potentially useful materials and reduce the consumption of fresh raw materials, thereby reducing: energy usage, air pollution, and water pollution. We found a part response for each category about 50% said yes and the remaining 50% said no. From a survey on source of water in the hotels it is seen that most of them use spring water. 63% of respondents admit that they use spring water for their daily use because of the ample availability of natural springs in the area. Only 33% of respondents have a rain water harvesting system in practice. On the other hand, 67% do not know the benefit of a harvesting system. From the above data 53% respondents said that no one in the hotel is deputized to look sustainability concept. Remaining the 16% are owners themselves. Sustainability is a balancing act, hence needs a participatory act. Sustainability has become a far-reaching field, covering a range of environmental and social issues. We found an overwhelming response of in-house vegetable farming. 79% respondents said that they have their own in-house vegetable farms for the guests

and production is organic in nature. It is also found that some of them are considering the organic farming in the near future. 95% of hotels use chemical products for cleaning purposes and rest of the used herbal soap. The reason is because of non-availability of the green products though the hotels want to use. 70% respondents are not being able to use because of non-availability of the products. Whereas 20% of them said the green cleaning products are not much affordable.

Fig. 2. An overview of sustainable components of Hospitality industry in the world
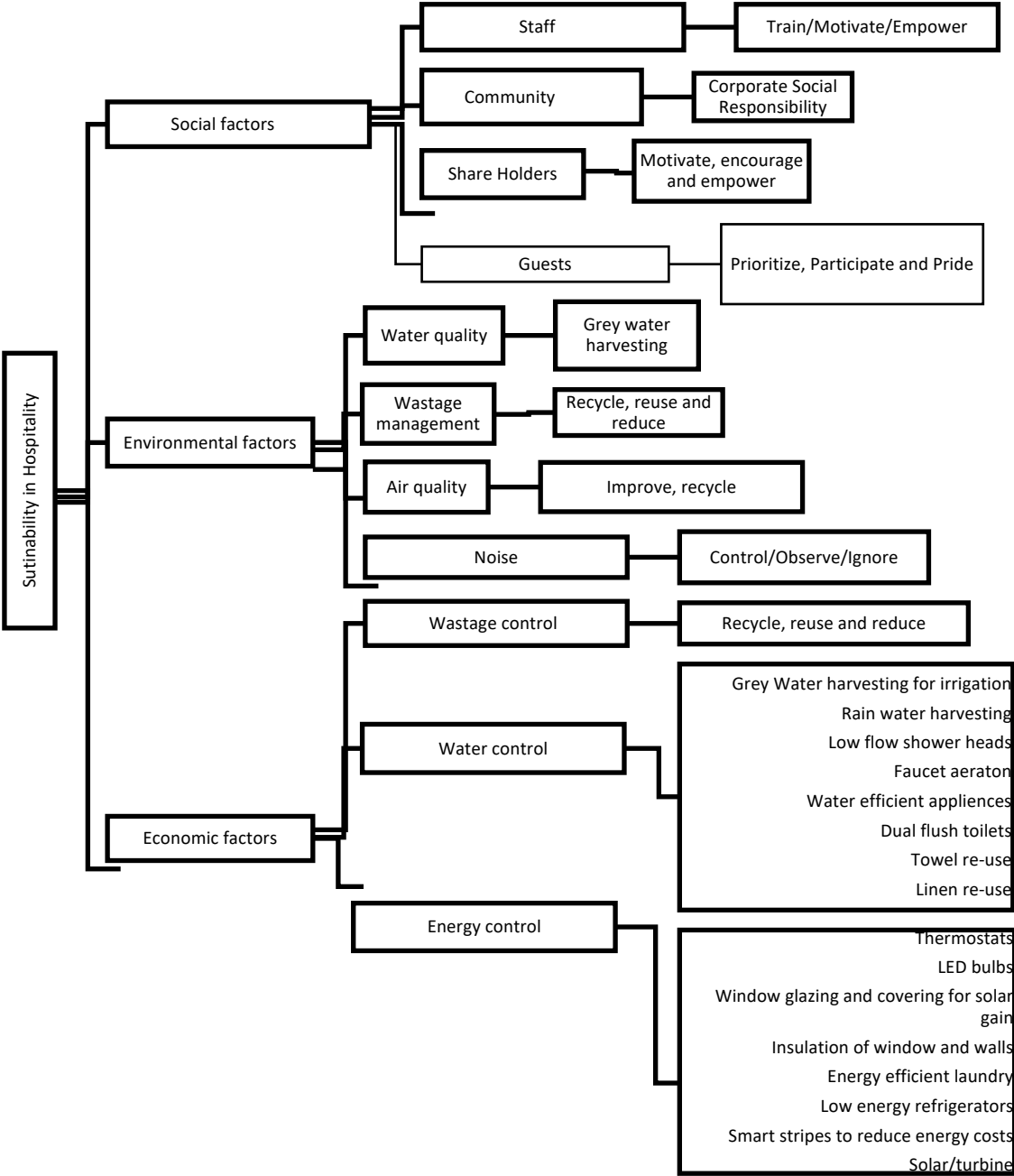
Figure 2 is an outcome of the study and understanding of the sustainability components in hotel industry in a nutshell. It is believed that this diagram will be helpful for the scholars and researchers to have a quick understanding of what is expected out of being sustainable hotel industry.

Conclusion

The origin of sustainability may date back to 100 years ago from an idea known as spaceship earth (George 1879/2009, in Alhaddi 2015, 6). Sustainability practice is a healthy and long-term practice in today for a secured tomorrow. Hotels in the world are practicing sustainability knowingly or unknowingly incorporating around 40%-50% of the sustainability components in their daily operations. A study in a small cluster of hotels like Nagarkot, Nepal outlines that sustainability should be a global practice from cosmopolitan to provincial to the last resorts in a global world of hotels. Here the term cosmopolitan hotels refer to the hotels located in the diverse multicultural cities; provincial refers to a small countryside hotel industry and the last resort represents the hotels which are located both in humans and non-human habitations. Be it green, eco, and high performance or sustainable the universally accepted components to achieve real time sustainable goal of any hospitality business is reliant on three key elements namely: economic health, social health and environmental health components. It is the difference of revenue and cost factors which determines the thickness of hotel's economic sustainability in which the social and environmental sustainability practices can cultivate. However, it is important that all three components should work simultaneously to give a perfect balance.

The recent article on environmentally sustainable tourist behaviour by Juvan and Dolnicar (2016) suggests continuing the work on different environmental tourist behaviour dimension one of the dimensions of sustainability and this study encourages the future researchers to study about the environmentally sustainable behavior of the tourists in the host country to bring a complete balance towards the holistic sustainable of the hotel industry.

From the study, it has been identified that approximately 93% of hotels are practicing sustainability concept knowingly or unknowingly the exact meaning of sustainability. Similarly, it has been found that 34% of the guests are willing to pay more for the hotels which are environmentally sustainable. Another finding from the study suggests that the guests are happy to participate in the sustainable development practices of the Hotels. One of the key findings shows that from the employees' perspective, 60% employees basically take part in the sustainable development trainings and workshops to gain more knowledge from the program, which is a positive indicator of learning and development.

Because of the not having any planned sustainable development practices implemented in the Hotels in Nagarkot, researchers faced lots of challenges on gathering the required data. The questions asked to the respondents were further broken down into smallest parts to explain the outcomes expected from the question. Another limitation of the study was the distance of the hotels/resorts from one another which took lots of time for the study.

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ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY OF OLYMPIC GAMES: A NARRATIVE REVIEW OF EVENTS, INITIATIVES, IMPACT AND HIDDEN ASPECTS

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Abstract: Sustainability has been coined 'one of the most successful concepts in tourism and event studies and has experienced exponential growth since the mid-1980s' (Hall, 2010). Despite its emergence as a popular concept, sustainability is a complex issue that has been poorly understood by stakeholders, policy makers and organisers of Olympic Games. Lohman and Dredge (2012) have noted that even though humans are a fundamental part of the natural environment leading policy makers such as the International Olympic Committee have created policies that solely consider impacts on the physical environment (i.e. transportation and pollution) while ommiting other equally significant environmental impacts such as community displacement (Porter et. al., 2009), use of facilities after the event (Hiller, 2006) and uneven distribution of benefits within the host community (Gaffney, 2010). The aim of this review is: a) to present a historical account of the evolution of sustainability as a concept, b) to discuss the issues surrounding environmental sustainability of those Summer and Winter Olympic Games that have had an impact (positive or negative) on the natural environment and c) to discuss 'hidden' aspects of environmental sustainability e.g. population displacement, human rights, and changes to host city residents' quality of life. An overview of key events and developments to improve sustainability, including the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2007), the International Standards Organisation (ISO, 2010) and the Sustainable Sourcing Code (LOCOG, 2012) will be presented providing also an overview of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games environmental agenda. Even though the review focusses on Olympic Games, there are obvious implications for other mega-sport events such as the Commonwealth Games and the FIFA World Cup.

Keywords: Olympic Games, Environmental Sustainability, Positive and Negative Impact

Introduction: Defining Sustainability

According to the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), sustainability is based on a simple principle: everything that we need for our survival and well-being depends, either directly or indirectly, on our natural environment. *Sustainability* creates and maintains the conditions under which humans and nature can exist in productive harmony, that permit fulfilling the social, economic and other requirements of present and future generations. *Sustainability* is important in making sure that we have, and will continue to have, the water, materials, and resources to protect human health and our environment. (http://www.epa.gov/sustainability).

Sustainability has been coined 'one of the most successful concepts' in tourism and event studies. It is a concept that has experienced exponential growth since the mid-1980s (Hall, 2011). In the tourism literature, this growth is evident in the number of papers published on sustainability; just two papers were published in 1989 and over 60 papers were published in

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2009. In event studies, sustainability has increasingly become part of the discource of mega-sport events (MSE's; Hall, 2012). A report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), also known as the Brundtland Report defines sustainability as '*the ability to meet the needs or the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*' (WCED, 1987). The WCED report highlights five basic principles: a) holistic planning and strategy-making (linking economic, environmental and social concerns), b) preservation of essential ecological processes, c) protection of biodiversity and human heritage, d) intergenerational equity and e) a better balance of fairness and opportunity between nations. Intergenerational equity is central to the WCED definition of sustainability. This principle stipulates that no avoidable environmental burdens should be inherited by future generations. This is because humans are not an entity that is separate from the natural environment but an integral part of it.

Humans and nature must co-exist in harmony. More specifically, Hall (2012) argues that sustainable development must have an eco-centric perspective to consider the impact on natural ecosystems and that separating humans from their natural environment is largely anthropo-centric An eco-centric perspective is reflected in the joint report published in partnership with the World Conservation Union (IUCN), the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) that specifically states: '*sustainability is about improving the quality of human life, while living within the carrying capacity of supporting ecosystems*' (IUCN et. al., 1991). Hall (2012) continues that the eco-centric approach must be based on the acknowledgement that the capacity of the environment to improve living conditions is limited and hence it depends on the capacity of the surrounding natural environment to absorb sustainable activities. This approach may contradict the views of those that suggest there are few limits to economic growth and natural capital, which is often the case with mega-sport events. It is widely recognised that mega sport events that have not considered the eco-centric approach have resulted in environmental disasters (e.g. Albertville 1992 Winter Olympic Games).

Despite its emergence as a popular concept, sustainability is a complex issue that has been poorly understood by stakeholders, policy makers and organisers of mega-sport events. The aim of this narrative review is three-fold. First, the review aims to present an overview of environmental sustainability and how it evolved as a key concept in the planning of policies pertaining to Olympic Games organisation. Second, the review aims to compare and contract sustainability strategies among a range of Olympic Games and highlight areas of positive and negative environmentl impact on the host city's natural eneivronment. Third, the review aims to discuss 'hidden' aspects of environmental sustainability i.e. population displacement, human rights and changes to host city residents' quality of life.

The Evolution of Environmental Sustainability at Olympic Games

Sustainability has evolved as a dimension of the Olympic Movement. Pierre de Coubertin, the founder of the modern Olympic Games, created the Olympic Movement which was first established within the remit of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) on 23 June 1894 at the Paris International Congress in Sorbonne, France (IOC, 2013). The IOC is an international, non-governmental, non-profit organisation of unlimited duration in the form of an association

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with the status of a legal person, recognized by the Swiss Federal Council (ruling of 17th September 1981). Under the supreme authority and leadership of the IOC, the Olympic Movement encompasses organisations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter that provides the foundation of the Olympic Movement:

'The Olympic Movement is the concerted, organised, universal and permanent action, carried out under the supreme authority of the IOC, all individuals and entities who are inspired by the values of Olympism. [...]. Belonging to the Olympic Movement requires compliance with the Olympic Charter and recognition by the IOC. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating young people through sport practiced in accordance with Olympism and its values.'

<div align="right">Olympic Charter (2013), Fundamental Principles</div>

Since its inception in 1894, the Olympic Movement has included two dimensions of Olympism; **sport** and **culture**. It was not until the 1990s, that the IOC recognised the importance of the environment and sustainable development. The trigger for this shift towards recognition of the importance of environmental sustainability was the Winter Olympic Games of Albertville 1992. The staging the 1992 Winter Olympic Games in Albertville was grossly mismanaged and resulted in irreversible environmental damage to the Savoie mountainous region of France (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). Due to Albertville, the environment became the focus of attention and emerged as an issue of global social policy at the Earth Summit Conference in Rio de Janeiro (United Nations, 1992). The IOC could ill afford a replication of Albertville in subsequent games for it was a short conceptual link to associate local games mismanagement to the IOC as the transnational agent responsible for widespread environmental destruction (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). A monumental change following the Earth Summit was IOC's announcement to change the sequence of Winter and Summer Olympic Games. This meant that Lillehammer in Norway would stage another Winter Olympic Games in 1994, just two years after Albertville. This was a strategic decision aimed at restoring confidence in IOC's association with the Olympic Games and its role in ensuring environmentally friendly games since Norway is an environmentally conscious country. The Lillehammer 1994 games were, indeed, an environmental success, which was reinforced by the personal involvement of the mayor of Lillehammer, Gro Brundlandt, and his commitment to produce 'green games' as a member of the United Nations World Commission on the Environment and Development. However, establishing environmental policies linked to hosting the Olympic Games was needed. In 1994, the IOC introduced an environmental policy within its requirements for cities aiming to host an Olympic Games. This new policy clearly stated that 'candidate cities must be evaluated on environmental consequences of their Olympic Games plans' (Gold and Gold, 2013).

In 1995, the IOC organised the first World Conference on Sport and the Environment in Lausanne, Switzerland, which has since been held every two years. The conference was supported by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and aimed to address four major issues: a) governmental responsibilities, b) duties of the Olympic Movement, c) education and the environment, and d) sports industries' responsibilities. A practical outcome of the conference was the launch of the 'Eco-wave' movement by the Federation of the European Sporting Goods Industry (FESI). Eco-wave introduced 14,000 International Standard Organisation (ISO) ecological standards for businesses.

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In 1996, the IOC set up the Sport and Environment Commission to oversee submitted bids and environmental sustainability of Olympic Games host cities. The Commission reviewed the information in the Olympic Charter and added a new paragraph defining the importance of environmental protection. The Commission also changed the dimensions of the Olympic Movement to include the **'environment'** as a third dimension alongside sport and cuclture (IOC, 2009: 1)

'The IOC has acknowledged its particular responsibility in terms of promoting sustainable development and regards the environment as the third dimension of Olympism, alongside sport and culture. This led to its decision in 1995 to create an IOC Sport and Environment Commission. Furthermore, NOCs are encouraged to establish a Sport and Environment Commission on a local level.'

http://www.olympic.org/sport-environment-commission

In 1998, the Nagano Winter Olympic Games in Japan marked the first Games at which the IOC had a clearly articulated environmental protection policy that was to be followed by the organising committee. In 1999, the IOC committed the Olympic Movement to the concept of sustainable development (The Global Plan Agenda 21). In this agenda, the IOC provides a reference tool for environmental protection to be used by host cities in order to encourage and support responsible concern for environmental issues and promote sustainable development (IOC, 2009). Among other policies, the IOC developed a list of environmental requirements concerning the cities bidding to host the Olympic Games. These policies, in theory, demand more responsibility and accountability from the Olympic Games Organising Committees (OGOC), and bind them to co-operate with respective agencies, to plan and implement environmentally safe projects (Girginov and Parry, 2005). However, as will be described in this review, policies are always good on paper, but their implementation is challenging and requires careful consideration of a wide range of factors pertaining to sustainability that alas, not all Olympic Games organisers can manage successfully. The enviromental sustainability developments and their associated outcome are presented in Table 1.

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Table 1. Key events, governing bodies and outcomes shaping the Environmental Sustainability framework of Olympic Games

Event / Governing Body	Year	Outcome
Albertville, France, Winter Olympic Games	1992	Environmental destruction of the Savoie mountainous region
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, Earth Summit	1992	Worldwide attention to environmental issues of Olympic Games
IOC	1992	Sequence of Winter/Summer Olympic Games changed
IOC	1994	1st environmental policy published
Lillehammer, Norway, Winter Olympic Games	1994	Environmentally friendly games; Brundlandt Report
1st World Conference on Sport & Environment, Lausanne, Switzerland (IOC; UNEP)	1995	'Eco-wave' (FESI); 14,000 ecological standards for businesses (ISO); education and environment – a key issue
Sport & Environment Commission (IOC)	1996	To oversee environmental aspect of bids; 'environment' added as 3rd dimension of the Olympic Movement
Nagano, Japan, Winter Olympic Games	1998	1st Olympic Games for OGOC to follow environmental protection policy
Global Plan Agenda 21 (IOC)	1999	Reference tool for host cities to ensure environmental protection in hosting an Olympic Games

Historical Account of the Positive and Negative Enviromental Initiatives at Olympic Games

The first environmental initiative in the history of modern Olympic Games was set by the organisers of the Munich 1972 Summer Olympic Games. The Munich Olympic Games organisers invited all participating national Olympic Committees to plant a shrub from their country in the Olympic Park, and coined the slogan *'certatio sana in natura sana'* (healthy competition in an intact environment; Girginov and Parry, 2005). Sadly, the environmental initiative and goodwill of the Munich Olympic Games organisers was short-lived and overshadowed by the terrorist attack of Palestinian activists on the Olympic Village and the subsequent killing of eleven members of the Israeli sports team.

The Albertville 1992 Winter Olympic Games in France were panned as an 'environmental disaster' because of the destruction they caused to the natural environment. These Olympic Games were highly regionalised with competition venues located in thirteen alpine communities spread over 1657 km^2 at the Savoie region of France (Girginov and Parry, 2005). This model of organising the Games necessitated an ambitious construction programme comprising sports facilities, hotels and roads. The new infrastructure was not carefully considered and was built on once-heavily forested areas, which resulted in destruction and irreversible losses of massive forest areas that were filled with vulnerable wildlife (Horst, 2012). The Albertville 1992 Olympic Games marked the beginning of a series of events and developments culminating in establishing environmental sustainability policies by key stakeholders and primarily by the International Olympic Committee.

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The Lillehammer 1994 Winter Olympic Games in Norway were an excellent example of co-ordinated activities between the Olympic Games Organising Committee, the Norwegian government, the local community and private enterprises. These Games were truly a collective effort involving also environmental agencies, the military and countless volunteers (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). They were an outstanding success, organisationally, and for the outstanding support the Norwegian population extended to the athletes, but mostly because of the strict reverence shown to, and the preservation of, the natural environment (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). From the outset, Lillehammer made environmental issues a priority and committed in their bid to deliver a sustainable Games (Girginov and Parry, 2005). The promise was reinforced by the personal involvement of the Norwegian Prime Minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland, who at the time was also chair of the United Nations World Commission on the Environment and Development. The Lillehammer 1994 Winter Olympic Games were labelled 'environmentally conscious green games' and will go down in history as 'an environmental-political showcase' (Girginov and Parry, 2005).

The Atlanta 1996 Summer Olympic Games in the United States of America managed modest changes to the city's environment and infrastructure while focussing on the construction of major sports facilities (Olympic Stadium, Aquatic Centre, Basketball and Equestrian Venues, and Hockey Stadium; Girginov and Parry, 2005). These Games presented an articulated plan of environmental considerations that included: a) *environmental protection* (e.g., the Centennial Olympic Park replaced derelict buildings in downtown Atlanta with a 21-acre urban park, including 650 new trees and plants)*, b) resource management* (photovoltaic energy system comprising 2856 solar panels covering the roof of the Atlanta Aquatic Centre and energy efficient lighting installed in all competition venues), c) *transportation* (approximately 1.3 million spectators used buses or subway and electric trams in the Olympic Park to protect air quality)*, d) waste management* (recycling initiatives produced a remarkable 82% diversion during the best eight days). These Games scored high in environmental sustainability, but were rated low in other aspects such as the social sustainability aspect (Minnaert, 2012).

The Nagano 1998 Winter Olympic Games in Japan marked the first Games at which the IOC had a clearly articulated environmental protection policy that was to be followed by the organising committee (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). Building on the legacy of Lillehammer, the Nagano Games organisers incorporated a comprehensive environmental strategy at every stage of the preparations. Conservation of the natural environment was the key driver of environmental initiatives. The decision was made to utilise existing venues and courses wherever possible in order to reduce the need for new construction. A series of extensive conservation measures including comprehensive recycling programmes was implemented to ensure that environmental impacts were minimised (www.olympic.org).

The Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games in Australia placed environmental sustainability at the forefront of Olympic developments. The Sydney Olympic Park Authority published a 68-page 'State of Environment Report' where they outlined a framework for environmental sustainability including environmental guidelines, policy and strategy which paid attention to biodiversity, resource conservation and social and economic sustainability (www.sopa.nsw.gov.au). According to IOC's (2013) fact sheet on the Olympic Games Legacy,

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Sydney's Green Games strategy saw the successful remediation and restoration of approximately 160 hectares of badly degraded land and the creation of one of the largest urban parklands in Australia (425 hectares). Land restoration included conservation and enhancement of remnant wetlands and forest, and native flora and fauna (i.e., protection of the endangered green and golden bell frog). The venues were also designed with a strong focus on energy and water conservation, use of sustainable materials, pollution control, and waste management. Particularly, the waste management strategy resulted in the establishment of Australia's first large-scale urban water recycling system, which saves approximately 850 million litres of drinking water each year and the extensive use of renewable energy across the Sydney Olympic Park. The Park has also since developed environmental education, interpretation and research programmes (IOC, 2013-Legacy).

The Athens 2004 Summer Olympic Games in Greece presented a well defined environmental policy. The environmental policy featured four important elements: a) the location of the Olympic venues was in full alignment with the land use and sustainability plan for the metropolitan area of Athens, b) in all Olympic venues, the post-Olympic use excluded the construction of hotels, offices, private houses, casinos and nightclubs/restaurants (Law 2730/99), c) in all Olympic venues the number of construction permits was kept very low, and d) all temporary constructions for the Olympic Games would be removed at the latest six months following the completion of the Games (included in Law 2819/2000 on the establishment of a private company for the Olympic Village, protection of Olympic symbols and other provisions; Girginov and Parry 2005). Unfortunately, this clearly articulated and legally substantiated environmental policy was not implemented properly or with due consideration. Following the Games, the 2004 Athens Olympic Games organisers were heavily criticised for making the natural environment an afterthought. Horst (2012) reported that poor planning left the city stuck with paying maintenance bills for poorly designed stadiums that were vastly underused following the Games. In addition, the construction of Olympic facilities did not account of open spaces, which were carelessly destroyed instead of being retained as green spaces (Reyes, 2005).

The Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games in China catalysed a major project of urban transformation and new infrastructure development. Most of the capital invested in the 2008 Olympic Games was in fact spent on infrastructure that helped shape and foster greater environmental awareness among the public and was an opportunity to showcase China's commitment to growing in an environmentally sustainable manner (Aichi Expo, 2005). The Beijing 2008 Olympic Games highlighted a number of environmental issues, including the city's poor air quality (Busa et. al., 2010). During the bid phase in 2000, Beijing set ambitious goals to improve the city's environment. The goals ranged from addressing air and water quality and waste management to introducing environmental considerations in the development of new infrastructure. As specified in the UNEP environmental report on the 2008 Games, in order to accelerate the achievement of environmental goals, Beijing decided to move forward the deadlines of a number of existing environmental targets in the Beijing 'Environmental Master Plan'. The outcomes became visible even before the Games started through: new wastewater treatment plants (waste reduction and recycling schemes at the venues), expanded solid waste processing facilities, increased forestation and green belt areas and an improved public transportation fleet (sustainable transport during the Games). These initiatives were achieved due

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to cooperation with sponsors on environmental sustainability and dialogue with environmental National Governing Organisations (NGO's; Busa et. al., 2010).

The London 2012 Summer Olympic Games in the United Kingdom presented a meticulous sustainability plan. This sustainability plan outlined a commitment to ensuring the 2012 Games were managed in a way that remained economically viable but was also environmentally sound, alongside being socially and ethically responsible. The London Olympic Games Organising Committee (LOCOG) intended to engage in businesses with suppliers and licensees who were best placed to deliver outstanding value for money while ensuring sustainability. This meant that London 2012 organisers engaged in business with responsible suppliers and licensees who were committed to the Sustainable Sourcing Code (2011). Moreover, the Sustainable Sourcing Code was reinforced by a complaints mechanism (Institute for Human Rights and Business [IHRB], 2013). For the first time, an independent commission was established to monitor and publicly evaluate sustainability efforts. The code was based upon the following four principles:
1. *Responsible sourcing* - ensuring that products and services are sourced and produced under a set of internationally acceptable environmental, social and ethical guidelines and standards.
2. *Use of secondary materials* - maximising the use of materials with reused and recycled content, minimising packaging and designing products that can either be reused or recycled.
3. *Minimising embodied impacts* - maximising resource and energy efficiency in the manufacturing and supply process in order to minimise environmental impacts.
4. *Healthy materials* - ensuring that appropriate substances and materials are used in order to protect human health and the environment (LOCOG Sustainable Sourcing Code, 2011).

In addition, LOGOC made environmental sustainability a top priority keeping permanent construction to a minimum and opting to use existing venues and temporary ones wherever possible (Horst, 2012). In situations where new venues were needed, as with the Olympic Park, building took place on reclaimed areas of contaminated industrial land with plans that minimised construction supplies and used lightweight steel and recycled materials. It is estimated that more than 98% of the demolition waste was recycled and 62% of Games operational waste was reused, recycled, or composted (IOC, 2013-Legacy). Olympic structures were built to *last*, designing them to accommodate sports, entertainment, cultural and community events. Organisers developed 45 hectares of habitat, with a 10-year ecological management plan to encourage biodiversity. Approximately 300,000 plants were planted in the Olympic Park's wetlands area and over 1,000 new trees were planted in East London. London 2012 were the first Olympic Games to open up to scrutiny by an independent assurance body, the Commission for Sustainable London 2012 (IOC, 2013-Legacy).

London 2012 was the inspiration for BS 8901, which received a high level of interest internationally. It was decided to create an international version of the standard, ISO 20121, the first fully certifiable International Sustainability Management System standard (IOC, 2013-Legacy). In simple terms, ISO 20121 describes the building blocks of a management system that will help any event-related organisation to: a) continue to be financially successful, b) become more socially responsible and c) reduce its environmental footprint. ISO 20121 applies to all types and sizes of organisations involved in the events industry, from caterers, lighting and sound engineers, security companies, stage builders and venues to independent event organisers and corporate and public-sector event teams (www.iso20121.org).

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For all of these reasons, some hailed the London 2012 Olympic Games as the 'greenest' Games up to that point in Olympic Games history. Perhaps one of the few areas that was overlooked during these Games was the carbon footprint as London officials ended up abandoning their attempt to offset carbon emissions. A study projected the carbon footprint of the London 2012 Olympic Games estimated the Games would produce 3.4 million tons of carbon (Horst, 2012).

The Sochi 2014 Winer Olympic Games in Russia were truly an unpleasant surprise especially following the success of the London 2012 Games and were heavily criticised for their negative impact on the natural environment. One study investigating the pre-Games perceptions of local residents four years prior to the Games showed that the residents were seriously concerned about environmental damage, waste of public resources and increasing crime levels (Müller, 2011). Residents' concerns about environmental damage were unfortunately confirmed as stated in Gazaryan and Shevchenko's (2014) report. The most serious environmental issues that occurred in connection with the Olympic Games during the years 2006-2013 can be found in Caucasian Knot (2014) which shows Sochi 2014 as the 'most costly Games ever' in terms of damage done to nature up to that point in time.

The Sochi region is well known for its ecological uniqueness. It includes the Sochi National Park to the north (established in 1983 as the first national park in the Russian Federation) and the Western Caucasus Reserve to the northeast (inscribed into the UNESCO World Heritage List in 1999; Petersson and Vamling, 2016). In the years prior to the Sochi Games, the Organising Committee collaborated with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). This collaboration involved six expert meetings to Sochi and Moscow. Among the concerns voiced in the first mission report were that all the buildings and infrastructure had to be built from scratch with resultant high environmental impact - with the added uncertainty as to whether these brand-new structures would ever be adequately used after the Games (Sochi 2014 - UNEP Mission Report). The expert visits culminated in the formulation of action plans for the ecological development and environmental preservation in four key areas: a) Zero Waste Games, b) Climate Neutral Games, c) Games in Harmony with Nature and d) Enlightenment Games (Sochi 2014 - UNEP Mission Report). However, with a few minor exceptions (i.e., the sliding venues and the Olympic Mountain Village being located away from the UNESCO World Heritage site and a restoration plan for the Mzymta river basin) these plans were not implemented.

The Olympic project included the building of both a highway and a railroad, from Adler to Krasnaya Polyana, connecting the coastal and alpine Olympic complexes. In this process, boxwood forests were cut down to make way for the modern highway. Vast forest areas were cut down with devastating consequences for the Caucasian boxwood tree. In addition, the waste from the huge building sites was disposed off illegally at different places around the city (Digges 2014). Moreover, Sochi did not have sufficient capacity to take care of all its sewage, which meant that some of the polluted water was flushed directly into the Black Sea (Kravchenko 2014a). It is worth noting that, apart from UNEP, two other environmental organisations were initially involved in the planning of the Sochi 2014 Games; Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF-Russia) and Green Peace. In 2010, both organisations decided to discontinue their involvement with the Games due to strong disagreement about the choice of areas to be used for Olympic venues and the lack of a careful assessment of those areas before decisions were reached. WWF

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stated on their website:

Due to lack of basic environmental information about the area (ungulate concentration sites, migration routes), Sochi-2014 organisers did not implement any activities to at least partly compensate the damage. [...] Under the pretext of Olympic needs, the nature conservation legislation was significantly weakened, especially parts concerning protected nature areas and environmental assessment of construction projects. [...]The Government refused to fund the post-Olympic environmental rehabilitation program [...].

WWF-Russia. Undated. 'Mistakes of Sochi-2014.
http://wwf.ru/about/positions/sochi2014/eng.

The Rio de Janeiro 2016 Olympic Games in Brazil were held under the motto '*Green Games for a Blue Planet'* (Trusen, 2011). The Games were based, according to the bid document, on the three sustainability pillars of *'planet, people and prosperity'*. For the Games, a suitable 'Sustainability Framework' was developed that also defined an institutional framework for the sustainability agenda (Ministerio do Esporte, 2009). The core of the sustainability framework was the *Sustainability Management Plan* (SMP) which also ensured participation of other stakeholders (NGOs, private businesses, and scientific institutions). Rio's application document mentioned the following with regard to the objectives of the plan:

'*The SMP core objective is to support the delivery of the Games and to create, with Government engagement and integration, the means for a definitive transformation in the city. This co-ordinated plan will set a new standard for urban trasnformation and sustainability in South America, and will create a foundation for the integration of sustainable events and environmental regeneration.'*

The SMP was intended to ensure that the Games were in line with the development priorities of the city and included: **water conservation** (construction of river treatment units and expansion of seweage network); **renewable energy** (implementing Brazilian state-of-the-art hydrogen energy cells and generators in all venues); **carbon neutral** (reforestation of 24 million trees in strategic rainforest areas before 2016 with 3 million trees planted in the National Park Pedra Branca aka 'Carbon Park'); **waste management and social responsibility** (100% of solid waste produced at all phases of the event to be recylced through a sustainable chain with direct social benefits to surrounding communities). Additionally, the Organising Committee and the Brazilian Federal Government decided to implement some very innovative environmental-technological pilot projects, for example in the field of green construction and the use of renewable energy resources in public transport. A testing and monitoring system was to be established to minimise possible negative enevironmental effects (Trusen, 2011). In the bid 'green Games for a blue planet' the government committed itself to improving air and water quality. However, a study conducted independently by Reuters analysing government data found that 'Rio de Janeiro's air was dirtier and deadlier than portrayed by authorities and the Olympic Games promised legacy of cleaner winds that has not remotely been met' (Brooks, 2016).

The Rio de Janeiro 2016 Olympic Games were also held under the threat of potential explosive spread of the Zika virus (ZikV). A study focusing on the epidemiology of ZikV and the outbreak

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in the Americas warned about the public health implications and epidemic potential of the virus at mass gatherings event events such as the Olympic Games and issued recommendations (Petersen et al., 2016). The World Health Organisation confirmed in September 2016 that there had been no ZikV cases reported in Brazil either among athletes, spectators or visitors. Other 'hidden' aspects associated with the Rio Games are discussed later in this review.

Table 2 presents the most notable environmental initiatives at Olympic Games and their impact (positive or negative) .

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Table 2. Environmental impact and initiatives of summer and winter Olympic Games (1992-2016)

Host city/ country	Year	Impact	Description of environmental initiatives	Source
Albertville, France	1992	-ve	Environmental disaster; destruction of large forest areas and wildlife	Horst (2012)
Lillehammer, Norway	1994	+ve	Environmentally conscious, green games; environmental-political showcase	Girginov & Parry (2005)
Atlanta, United States of America	1996	+ve	Re-usage of derelict buildings; photovoltaic energy; bus/subway/electric train transport; 82% waste recycled	Minnaert (2012)
Nagano, Japan	1998	+ve	1st IOC clearly articulated environmental policy; nature conservation; games ascribing to Sotoyama concept	Cantelon & Letters (2000)
Sydney, Australia	2000	+ve	'State of Environment 68-page pre-Games Report'; biodiversity preserved; 425 hectares restored parkland; successful water /waste recycling	IOC (2013-Legacy)
Athens, Greece	2004	-ve	Poor implementation of well-defined environmental pre-Games policy; Olympic facilities built on open green spaces; environment ignored	Reyes (2005)
Beijing, China	2008	+ve	Beijing 'Environmental Master Plan'; improved air and water quality; recycling at venues, sustainable transport; increased forestation	Busa et. al. (2010)
London, United Kingdom	2012	+ve	LOGOC Sustainable Sourcing Code; Commission for a Sustainable London 2012; re-used buildings; 96% of construction material recycled; 300,000 plants at Olympic Park & 1000 trees in London; ISO 20121	Horst (2012) IOC (2013-Legacy)
Sochi Russia	2014	-ve	Deforestation of Mzymta mountains: Caucasian boxwood tree and habitat destruction; river contamination with toxic waste; river course altered; infrastructure built as new; no existing facility re-use; most environmentally costly games ever!	Digges (2014), Kravchenko (2014a), Caucasian Knot (2014)
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	2016	-ve	Poor implementation of Sustainability Management Plan; poor air and water quality; threat of ZikV; Guanabara bay polluted with human sewage	Petersen et al. (2016), Brooks (2016)

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Environmental Sustainability - The 'Hidden' Aspects

All the cases of environmental sustainability described here have the natural environment at the core of environmental policies and strategies are designed to deliver sustainable Olympic Games. However, Lohman and Dredge (2012) have noted that even though humans are a fundamental part of the natural environment, leading policy makers of mega sport events tend to focus their strategies and policies on minimising the impacts to the physical environment (i.e., natural resources such as air and water, event-related pollution from construction of facilities and transportation and management of waste). This is often the case with most of the aforementioned environmental policies. Nevertheless, there are other areas within the general concept of Olympic Games sustainability that are often overlooked in the interest of preserving the natural environment in the run up to, and also during, the event. For example, other equally significant environmental impacts that are concerned with the host community such as community displacement (Porter, 2009), uneven distribution of benefits (Gaffney, 2010; Wolfe, 2013), Olympic spending compromising spending for the community (Lenskyj, 2000), quality of life for residents (Scheissel, 2013), use of facilities after the event (Hiller, 2006), and human rights (IHRB, 2013).

According to Porter (2009), population displacement is a defining feature of mega sport events that every few years use a new venue and a new city. Population displacement is part of the legacy of such events that go almost unreported. It is considered either unimportant or unfortunate, but necessary by-product of the urban redevelopment needed to make a succesful event. Policy makers and planners state that population displacement is inevitable and, while perhaps unfortunate, just a 'natural' part of the cycle of urban development. However, little consideration is given to the personal cost and experience of being at the 'receiving end' of the policy and planning processes designed to to achieve population displacement (i.e., tenant evictions and forced purchase of land; Porter, 2009). Gaffney (2010) reported that Beijing 2008 very clearly demonstrated that low income neighbourhoods were 'cleared' in order to make way for mega-event infrastructures and renovation. Tens of thousands were displaced, either through the physical destruction of their homes or through market mechanisms, such as rent inflation. According to estimates, as many as 1.5 million people were displaced for the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (COHRE, 2007).

Gaffney (2010) discusses the distribution of public money in Rio de Janeiro's run up to the 2016 Olympic Games. He points out that the Organizing Committees that are responsible for funding and managing Olympic Games budgets are autonomous entities comprised of national elites that are not subject to any sort of democratic accountability. Organising Committees have access to tens of billions of dollars of public money, keep their own books, and award contracts for everything from stadium building to concessions, to contracting private and public security forces. After the Olympic Games have passed, the committee dissolves, leaving behind political, economic, and socio-spatial legacies that promote neo-liberal forms of governance. There is no legal recourse for those displaced or otherwise aggrieved by the Olympic Games - the massive debt is assumed by the city and with time the corruption scandals fade (Gaffney, 2010). A frequent criticism is that in many cases, a large share of public money is invested in hosting the Olympic Games, thus threatening 'core spending in health, education, welfare and transport' (Lenskyj, 2000). Indeed, the costs involved in staging the Games are now so high that host cities can often only justify the expenditure when it is seen as leading to a major programme of regeneration and improvement (Essex and Chakley, 1998).

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Rio was also at the forefront of exploiting labourers to build Olympic facilities. Gaffney (2010) commented that 'Olympic mega-structures arose from the toil of migrant workers whose own homes were fetid barracks and desolate encampments.' Rio de Janeiro fully engaged in the process of making itself into an Olympic City where the workers streamed down from the favelas (a Brazilian shack or shanty town; a slum) to build sportive constellations that were intended for use by the international tourist class and the upper strata of Brazilian society (Gaffney, 2010). The Rio Organising Committee publicised that '*it is through sport that young people and children learn to overcome obstacles, respect rules, work within a team and demonstrate solidarity. Values that come from the field of play help to encounter difficulties and provide strength to fight for a better life'* but this statement was criticised that the programs aimed at developing disciplined minds and bodies that served, in part, to exacerbate instead of ameliorate social and spatial inequalities.

Cases of uneven distribution of benefits among the host community have been reported in the literature. Wolfe (2013) discusses the developments in the run up to the Sochi 2014 Winter Olympic Games in Russia and the divergence caused between two villages (Kazachiy Brod and Akhshtyr), which was amplified due to uneven distribution of resources. The existence of a historical, paved road represented the critical difference between the villages and was the reason why the village of Kazachiy Brod had been the recipient of investment and attention for having direct access to the road, whereas Akhshtyr (being on the opposite side of the river) was left with no water, no reliable transit links, and the promise of becoming an Olympic dump once construction was complete. No doubt Akhshtyr found itself in the role of victim. While much of the infrastructure development was needed and welcomed, many locals nonetheless felt significantly marginalised, excluded from the discussion, and not benefiting from their region's development (Wolfe, 2013).

The quality of life of local residents in the host community is also seriously affected by an Olympic Games. Schissel (2012) reported that today's sporting mega-events are a globally recognised urban spectacle for their capacity to stimulate economic growth, revitalise urban cityscapes and promote their respective metropolis to a transnational audience. Yet in spite of the ubiquitous enthusiasm touted by Olympic stakeholders, there is a growing literature documenting the negative impacts that sporting mega-events have on the quality of life of host city residents. They are seriously concerned about environmental pollution and congestion associated with sport event-related developments (Tatoglu and Erdal, 2002) and they often feel disenfranchised by the planning process which may result in forming negative perceptions toward the event (Fredline and Faulkner, 2002).

In order for residents to tolerate the inconveniences associated with hosting an Olympic Games (e.g. queuing for services, sharing local facilities, overcrowding, traffic congestion, and route disruption), the perceived rewards should equal their willingness to carry the infrastructure costs, extending friendliness, courtesy and hospitality to tourists (Waitt, 2003). Coackley and Lange Souza (2013) have noted that fair and equitable legacies and developmental outcomes are achieved only when the voices and interests of the general population are taken into account and given priority during the process of planning, funding and implementation.

From the perspective of human rights, Olympic Games bring both opportunities and risks (IHRB, 2013). They precipitate massive public and private investment needed to create new jobs and boost employability, along with the potential for improving essential infrastructure, regenerating urban areas, developing housing and promoting increased participation in sport

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and healthy living. At the same time, an Olympic Games (particularly the Beijing 2008) have come under repeated scrutiny from human rights experts and campaigners over a gamut of concerns. Apart from the community displacement in Beijing, at the height of Olympic construction, at least 10 people were killed, and some 17,000 workers complained of workplace exploitation (Human Rights Watch, 2008). In addition, the Playfair Campaign recorded instances of child labour, excessive working hours and abuses of health and safety laws in the supply chains of several Olympic licensees (PlayFair, 2008).

Human rights have also come to the fore during the events themselves (IHRB, 2013). Media revelations during the London 2012 Olympic Games identified cases of migrant worker exploitation among temporary agency staff working at two hotels used by Olympic delegations and referees. A BBC Newsnight report claimed that Jani-King, the agency used by the Hilton Waldorf, altered workers' hourly rates without warning and threatened them with unfair dismissal. London 2012 was criticised by PlayFair (2012) in that, corporate discourses of 'ethics' and 'sustainability' set by the Games organisers were an 'empty' promise. In its campaign to ensure a 'sweat free' Olympics, Play Fair connected the production of major sporting events to wider issues of global inequality, poverty and structural problems in transnational labour markets (Timms, 2012). According to Timms (2012), London 2012 Olympic mascots were made in sweatshops in Hong Kong. Equally, during the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, civil liberties groups and journalists complained of limits on free speech and assembly imposed by host authorities and events' organisers ostensibly to safeguard brand rights (IHRB, 2013).

The London 2012 Olympic Games laid down several significant benchmarks in addressing human rights related challenges (IHRB, 2013). London was the first Summer Olympic Games to embed sustainability from the outset and to place an emphasis on leaving a positive legacy for the city, sport in the UK, and for the wider Olympic Movement. It was also the first Olympic Games to open itself to scrutiny by an independent assurance body, the Commission for Sustainable London. London's Olympic Delivery Authority set a new bar too, by completing venue construction without any construction worker dying in an accident (Commission for Sustainable London, 2011). London arguably went further than any previous Olympic Games organiser in terms of commitment to sustainability and socially responsible policies and practices and made advances which the Olympic Movement and other Olympic Games organisers can build. Yet, more than one year after the London 2012 Olympic Games, debates around homophobia in Russia and mass protests in Brazil drew attention to the next Olympic host cities. It is unclear if, and by what means, the lessons learnt from London were carried forward to these events.

The Future of Environmental Sustainability at Olympic Games
The Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games in Japan have already got plans for an environmental agenda. The Organising Committee of Tokyo 2020 joined forces with Climate Action and UNEP in 2014 to produce a strategy of environmental sustainability (Climate Action and UNEP, 2014). Tsunekazu Takeda, member of the IOC and President of Tokyo 2020 reported that:

'*All competition venues or facilities for the 2020 Games will be required to meet strict energy-efficiency building certification standards. Including the new National Stadium itself, all competition venues or facilities being constructed or renovated for the 2020 Games will be required to meet strict energy-efficiency building certification standards*

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under the CASBEE system (the Japanese system equivalent to the certification standards) and in accordance with the Tokyo Metropolitan Government Tokyo Green Building Program. Recycled construction material will be used wherever possible. In addition, the Olympic Village will become a new model for sustainable inner-city housing. Energy consumption will be minimised through the use of renewable energy sources including solar power, a seawater heat pump, use of surplus heat generated by waste treatment plants, and biogas power generation using food waste. The Olympic Village will become an urban residential 'smart city pioneer model,' using a wide range of Japanese sustainability technologies. It is anticipated that Tokyo 2020 will deliver a sustainability legacy with long-term benefits for the city and Japan'.

The three pillars of the 2020 Tokyo Games Sustainability Strategy are: *P1-minimal environmental burden; P2-urban environment plans harmonising with nature; P3-a sustainable city through sport.* Tokyo 2020 is currently looking into the implementation of the ISO 20121. The city of Tokyo's 2020 strategy includes a long-term development plan aimed at a vast increase in green areas. The overarching objective of the strategy is to make Tokyo the 'world's most environmentally friendly low-carbon city' and the revitalisation of Tokyo as a 'beautiful city surrounded by water and greenery'. Specific examples include the creation of some 537 hectares of new green space in Tokyo by 2020 and plans to further extend the green road network through the planting of more roadside trees. Tokyo aims to become a city in harmony with nature, with more open spaces and greenery integrated into its long-term development plans. Another example may be seen with the Sea Forest zone in Tokyo Bay, which will further connect the city and the sea to increase cooling breezes in urban areas (Climate Action and UNEP, 2014).

Conclusion

Event-greening has been defined as the process of incorporating environmental dimensions into the planning, organising and implementing an event. It involves incorporation of sustainable development principles and practices at all levels of the event organisation. The London 2012 and the Rio de Janeiro 2016 Olympic Games each adopted event-greening measures. Their respective sustainability agendas differed however in the degree of institutional integration and thoroughness (Ackermann, 2011). In overall, minimising the impact to the natural environment features at the core of Olympic Games sustainability initiatives. Nevertheless, its implementation seems to be problematic in most cases as it requires careful consideration and assessment of long-term damage to the natural environment.

Environmental sustainability has become a standard requirement and mandate for running successful Olympic Games. Strategies and policies such as, the International Standards Organisation Environmental Agenda (ISO20121), and the Sustainable Sourcing Code introduced by LOCOG for the London 2012 Olympic Games were all excellent examples of steps taken to reduce the Olympic Games impact on the natural environment. However, there are other aspects of environmental sustainability that some countries are overlooking and have still a long way to go to ensure that these aspects of environmental sustainability are also considered as an integrated part of the event. More specifically, it is the aspects that pertain to population displacement, distribution of benefits, disruption to local residents' lives, workplace exploitation and human rights. Even though these aspects are mentioned in the sustainability agendas of Olympic Games lack of resources is often the reason for which social programmes pertaining to the legacy of the events are not implemented.

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More support is needed from international organisations such as Climate Action and the United Nations Environmental Programmes to raise awareness of the 'hidden aspects' of environmental sustainability. The engagement of all stakeholders alongside the establishment of an open and inclusive organisation is key to achieving the promotion of the overlooked areas of environmental sustainability, i.e., the 'soft' aspects which bear on the social fabric, the cultural vibrancy, the ability to innovate, an environmentally aware public, and an enhanced international image (Busa et. al., 2010). Environmental sustainability is not only about waste management at the venues or planting trees in an Olympic Park. It should include consideration of aspects related to the 'human element' and safeguard the rights of all stakeholders to host a truly successful Olympic Games.

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SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROPOSAL AT MISSION ESPADA IN SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

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Abstract: San Antonio is a popular tourist destination, drawing more than 35 million visitors each year. Tourism in San Antonio currently is focussed on a wide range of tourist attractions which are concentrated within the city limits. The purpose of this study is to diversify the urban-centric tourism to the surrounding rural areas and to develop rural tourism through a sustainable model in these areas. This proposal studies and focuses on the rural outskirts of San Antonio at Mission Espada with the aim to develop rural tourism to revitalise the local agrarian-based economy and to reverse migration from rural areas to urban areas. The proposed site is around 612 hectares and is located 1.2 miles south of Mission Espada, just outside the buffer zone as it is a World Heritage site. This site has been chosen as it is accessible from Mission Espada through an asphalted country road in good condition. The road winds through country homes and farms, offering excellent vistas of the rural setting there. This road also has very little traffic which is ideal for cycling and directly connects the proposed site to the Mission Espada. The proposal is for a rural tourism hub centred around rural life in Ranches in Texas that revolve around agriculture, dairy, livestock and equestrian activities. Establishing a rural tourism model around Mission Espada would attract tourists and benefit rural communities as well. The development plan aims at creating a unique opportunity for tourists to experience the culture and heritage of Texas while creating employment opportunities and benefiting small businesses.

Keywords: Sustainable Tourism, San Antonio, Rural Tourism, Culture, Heritage

Introduction

The city of San Antonio in the state of Texas is a popular tourist destination, that draws more than thirty-one million visitors each year (Travel and Tourism, 2014). However, tourism is centred around urban areas within the city limits of San Antonio. The City offers a wide range of tourist attractions like the Alamo, the River Walk, Six Flags theme park, Sea World and San Juan Capistrano. The city's ten-day annual festival 'Fiesta' attracts about 3.5 million visitors with more than 20 % travelling from across the state, the nation, and different parts of the world (Fiesta San Antonio,2017). The purpose of this proposal is to diversify tourism of San Antonio, which is currently concentrated within the city, to the surrounding rural areas. The diversification of tourism is aimed at being the driving force of development and economic rejuvenation of the rural areas. The focus of this proposal is the development of the rural area around the Mission Espada of the San Antonio Missions. It is a World Heritage Site and, the surrounding areas that belong to the Heritage South Sector in San Antonio. The San Antonio Tourism Council survey reports visitor length of stay ranging from one to seven days, averaging at four and a half days. According to the San Antonio Tourism Council, every one- half day that the typical visitor extends their stay, the hospitality industry impact could increase by approximately 11 %, which translates to approximately $9 to $11billion annually. This increase is seen mainly from overnight visitors. Additionally, the one- half day extended stay equates to an economic impact of approximately $1.0 billion in added revenue for the San

Antonio area (Destination SA update, 2011). Currently, tourists visit Mission Espada as part of their Mission tour, spend a few hours at Mission Espada and move on to the other four missions or other attractions in San Antonio. The visitors mostly stay in hotels located within the city limits. They do not stay at Mission Espada and hence there is no scope for significant economic development through tourism in the rural areas surrounding Mission Espada. This study aims at proposing a strategy which would encourage tourists to come to Mission Espada as a destination to experience Texas culture, heritage and a wide variety of rural recreational activities, in a historic setting with the local, rural people.

Literature Review

North America has predominantly been a rural society until recently. In the year 1790, only 5% of Americans lived in cities and towns with populations of 2500 or higher. Today, the figure is over 80% (Jensen, 1995). One of the main factors for the shift from rural to urban settlements was industrialisation. Industrialisation brought about an economic restructuring from resource-based extractive economy dominant in rural areas to a more service-based economy in urban areas. This phenomenon was further accelerated by the farm crisis and the changes in agricultural practices in the 1980's, which resulted in the decrease of rural jobs and the migration to urban areas. (Bourke & Luloff,1995; Edgell & Cartwright, 1990; Luloff et al.,1994; Mac Donald & Jolliffe, 2003; Wilson et al., 2001).

North America's rural areas have long been of interest to domestic and foreign tourists, for the majority of Canada and the United States are rural in nature and include bounteous natural and cultural features that appeal to many types of travellers. However, it has only been since the 1970's and 1980's that rural regions, small villages, and county, state/provincial, and national governments have begun considering the importance of rural tourism development in earnest as a result of declining traditional farming and extractive industries (Hall, Kirkpatrick, Mitchell & Timothy 2005:42).

Rural tourism offers people from urban societies the opportunity to experience nature and the lifestyle of rural people. They can participate in activities, try out rural cuisine and relax in a natural setting. The concept of rural tourism is by no means well defined and is subject to a number of interpretations. Fleischer and Pizam (1997) associate rural tourism with the 'country vacation' where the tourist spends a large portion of their visit engaging in recreational activities in a rural environment which can be categorised into farms, ranches, country homes, or the surrounding areas. Rural tourism business has the potential to improve tourism as a way to rejuvenate and diversify the regional economy. This can be done through economic, social and cultural tourism with sustainable development practices while preserving the historical, natural and cultural heritage of the region. It provides the opportunity for people living in rural areas to supplement their traditional agriculture-based employment or other extractive means of employment such as logging, hunting, cattle rearing, fishing and so combat rural poverty.

Based on a rural tourism study in Cyprus, Sharpley (2002) indicated that the term rural tourism is synonymous with 'Agrotourism'. Agrotourism refers to 'the development of tourism based on traditional accommodation facilities in villages in the rural and mountainous Troodos regions.' This demonstrates the integral connection of rural tourism to the agrarian-based rural communities and gives us a good idea of the dependence of rural tourism on the infrastructure and facilities available in these communities. Additionally, it can be observed that agrarian-based communities are diversifying into tourism as a way to supplement their income from agriculture. According to Dewailly (1998), rural tourism is often portrayed as being sensitive

to the environment and antithetical to the more common mass tourism. Mass tourism usually has been observed to be environmentally exploitative and has dominated tourism in the 1970's and 1980's.

Cultural rural tourism is characterised by the heritage, traditions, way of life and places of interest that are unique to a specific rural community. They might also offer other activities in a rural setting such as nature, adventure, sports, festivals, crafts and general sightseeing (MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003). This hybrid term is clearly derived from the concept of cultural tourism, which although defined in myriad ways, is generally understood as a kind of alternative form of tourism that is based on experience, understanding, and interacting with distinct local communities.

In typical urban settlements, there are a lot of factors that promote rural tourism such as fast-paced life, disappearing natural landscapes/greenery, polluted environments, increase in a number of built forms and the compaction of living spaces due to lack of free land. In addition, among Americans and Canadians, there is a certain mystique and romanticised representation associated with the countryside. According to Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), 62% of all American adults travelled to a small town or village between 1998 to 2000. While cities are important gateways and tourist destinations, rural space is a vitally important part of the tourism industries and both countries for domestic and foreign visitors (Murphy, 2003; Murphy & Williams, 1999). Rural tourism in the US can be classified into categories based on their location, culture, heritage and recreational activities that they offer. These categories can be seen in table 1 below.

Table 1: Based on the information from (Hall, Kirkpatrick, Mitchell & Timothy 2005:44-53).

Tourism Category	Location	Activities Offered
Indian Reservations	Native American reservations	Indian Casinos, Handicrafts, Rural outlet malls, local events, national monuments
Outdoor/Nature based	National Parks/Reserves, Marine Parks	Boating, fishing, camping, hiking, cycling, sightseeing
Heritage based	Rural areas with Cultural/Heritage significance	Archaeological tours, battlefield tours, cultural events/tours, mine/quarry tours
Farm/Agriculture based	Rural Ranches, Vineyards and Farm Homestays	Demonstrative farming, hunting, fishing, Equestrian related activities, country-style cooking

Case Studies

Case study methodology was selected for this study as it provides the framework to analyse numerous contemporary tourism development plans. It provides the opportunity to utilise information from a wide variety of case studies, both national and international. Case studies provide the opportunity of conceptualising a tourism development plan through close examination of the precedent plans and application of logical reasoning. The evolution of the case studies with the passage of time can be observed. This provides valuable insights into the general acceptability of the project in relation to the geographic context and can explain its successes or failures. The positive aspects of the case studies can be incorporated to develop a holistic rural tourism model.

The following case studies are selected as they provide working examples of rural tourism models with a wide range in the geographical location of the projects, ranging from Vermont in the United States of America, Akseki Sarihacilar Village in Turkey and the Island of Lesbos in Greece. They also give an idea of the activities and attractions typically offered in the rural tourism setting. The scale of the projects also varies, from Liberty Hill Farm, which is a privately owned and operated property, to the rural tourism development plan of the island of Lesbos in Greece undertaken by the government.

Case Study 1: Liberty Hill Farm & Inn Vermont, USA

The Liberty Hill Farm and Inn is located in Vermont 340 miles from New York. It is a good example of Agrotourism in the context of the United States and hence selected as a case study. It takes advantage of the combination of Vermont's natural landscapes, which are primarily forested and the historical background to create a hub for rural tourism. The tourism hub proposed at Mission Espada in San Antonio also aims at utilizing its natural landscapes and historical background for rural tourism which is a common feature that both the studies have in common. Hence this case study serves as a working example of the planning of a hub. The Liberty Hills Farm primarily caters to guests from the urban megapolis of New York, offering them an opportunity to experience the rural lifestyle through a host of farm-related and nature-based activities. It also offers country style home cooked rustic cuisine that features fresh, locally grown produce according to seasonal availability.

The activities offered at the Liberty Hill Farm can be subcategorised into farm-related experiential activities and nature/outdoor related nature activities. The farm-related activities offered are further divided into agriculture-related activities and farm animal based experiential activities (Liberty Hill, 2016). The agriculture-based activities on offer are berry picking and a tour of the vegetable farm. Activities such as milking cows, bottle feed baby calves and playing with country kittens relate to the farm animal-based experiences. The nature/outdoor activities offered make good use of the naturally occurring forest trails, river, and mountains. The nature-based activities offered are fly fishing, hiking, walking amongst wildflowers, skiing, mountain biking and star gazing.

The wide range of experiences presented to the guests ranging from the physically intensive nature activities to the relaxing experiences of farm-related activities cater to the wide range of visitors. The aim of this proposal is to create a tourist hub that caters to all ranges of visitors offering them a wide choice of activities (Liberty Hill, 2016).

Case Study 2: Akseki Sarihacilar Village, Antalya, Turkey

This case study (Altun, Beyhan, Esengil, 2007) proposes a framework for diversifying tourism in Antalya, Turkey through the evaluation of the village in terms of sustainable rural tourism. The intention of sustainable tourism has been to improve the tourism phenomena in a way that contributes to the regional economy and social life permanently without destroying the environment, society and historical, natural and cultural aspects of the area. The Sarihacilar village was selected as it had preserved natural and civil architectural works. The aim of the project was to target the well-established monopoly of the sea, sun and sand tourism and help diversify tourism by presenting a new concept of alternative tourism. This alternative tourism plan would rejuvenate the rural economy that is currently dependent on the declining traditional means of employment.

In order to make these rural areas suitable for tourism, it is critical to develop an understanding of tolerance among the local people towards the potential tourists who belong to different historical and cultural backgrounds. It is also important for the preservation of local value that is jeopardised by globalisation, and to accelerate the attempts for development by means of rural tourism. The diversification of tourism to the rural village of Sarihacilar was realised by the six phases listed below:

- Creating an inventory of the existing village
- Surveying the houses of the village
- Interacting with the homeowners to determine the necessities and planning the reprogramming of the buildings
- Preparation of maps of existing conditions
- Restoration of the buildings
- Development of settlement plans for village

A significant amount of land is reserved for sports facilities, rural activities and entertainment facilities. The project also provides information on other activities available in the surrounding region. The numerous recreational activities proposed within a twenty-kilometre radius are walking, climbing, wilderness tours, bird watching, photography, hunting, cycling, landscape appreciation and rural heritage studies (Altun, Beyhan, 2007). The tourism hub proposed at Mission Espada would be developed along the lines of the sustainable development principles, that ensures the preservation of the environment, society, culture, and heritage of the area (Altun, Beyhan, Esengil, 2007).

Case Study 3: Island of Lesbos, Greece

This case study was chosen in order to understand the development of the Island of Lesbos by the redistribution and diversion of tourism from the central 'Greater Athens' to the agrarian-based rural community on the island of Lesbos, the strategies used to develop sustainable tourism, and the role of policymakers.

The main proposal 'Rural Tourism Program for Mission Espada Region in San Antonio, Texas' shares the same objectives with this study which are:

- Decentralisation and diversification of tourism
- Sustainable development of rural tourism in agrarian-based rural communities

- The stimulation of rural employment and economic development of the region

The Greek tourism policy focused on the swift development of tourism in the Greater Athens region till the early 1970's. This focus of the policymakers was then shifted to the mainland region of Greece. This was done by developing the transportation, electricity and communication networks. After the 1970's, the tourism policy shifted to decentralising tourism in Greece. This was done by employing 'five-year plans' which aim at the development of the underdeveloped and backward regions of Greece.

Since tourism represented a major economic activity in Greece it played an important role in these plans. In 1988 tourist revenues contributed more than 7% to the Gross Domestic Product. Tourism was instrumental in creating direct, indirect and induced jobs and employed an estimated 480,000 people in 1990. During the time period between 1971 and 1992, the number of tourists visiting Greece increased by 420 %. This development is clearly reflected on many islands, e.g. on Lesbos (Nijkamp and Verdonkschot, 1995).

The island of Lesbos is still one of the economically deprived and sensitive areas of Greece. The most important part of the economy of Lesbos is the primary sector that comprises of the large-scale production of olive oil and ouzo. Although International tourism has been prevalent in Lesbos since the 1960's, significant development was seen in the last 10 to 15 years, through the construction of holiday resorts and rapid expansion of infrastructure facilitating tourism.

The tourist attractions offered by the island play a key role in increasing tourist arrivals to Lesbos. The desirable Mediterranean climate along with beaches and natural landscapes provide the right location for the diversification of tourism. Lesbos is rich in architecture and archaeology which can be explored by tourists through its numerous museums, castles, cathedrals, ancient theatres and Roman aqueducts. The old picturesque village of Molyvos can be visited to see the traditional industries that produce olive oil, ouzo, leather, woodcarving, and pottery. (Nijkamp and Verdonkschot, 1995).

The visitors have been classified into different tourism categories in order to conceptualise and plan activities and services based on their specific demands. The potential tourists are classified into the following types of tourism which provide a brief description of the activities offered in each category in Table 2.

Table 2: Based on the information from (Nijkamp and Verdonkschot, 1995).

Tourism Category	Target Visitors	Infrastructure and Development Required	Activities Offered
Farm/Agriculture based	Visitors from urban areas and international tourists	Training locals for tourism, establishing standards for products and services, development of infrastructure to accommodate guests	Farm animals-related activities, demonstrative farming, rural style cuisine, harvest festivals and nature-based outdoor activities
Adventure sports tourism	Adventure sports enthusiasts	Development and maintenance of trekking/hiking routes, mapping of existing trails, proposal and development of facilities to support adventure sports	Trekking, hiking, adventure sports and cycling
Sea tourism	Aquatic sports enthusiasts	Proposal and development of facilities/ infrastructure to support aquatic sports, training of locals to conduct and maintain aquatic sports	Windsurfing, water skiing, snorkelling, scuba diving, sailing, and parasailing
Winter tourism	Winter tourists	Infrastructure development to accommodate winter tourists, planning of winter activities	Food festivals, music festivals, indoor sports and activities, culture and heritage tours
Exclusive tourism	High-income tourists	Development of luxury tourism facilities, training locals to provide luxury services and products, extension of the present built-up area	Spa treatments, beauty and wellness services, gourmet dining, adventure/aquatic sports and luxury tours

In conclusion, the different opportunities for tourism development are explored and the plans and strategies for different types of tourism are developed to bring tourism to the agrarian-based island of Lesbos. This is a great example of how tourism is decentralised and diversified from popular overcrowded destinations to rural agrarian-based communities for the development of rural tourism.

Rural Tourism and Sustainable Business Development Proposal

Mission Espada was founded in 1690 as San Francisco de Los Tejas in the east of Texas. It is the oldest of the Texas missions and was renamed to San Francisco de La Espada in 1731. It is the southernmost mission amongst the San Antonio Missions and is relatively remote (Las Misiones, 2017). The missionaries at Espada strove to make the missions resemble typical Spanish villages. According to the National Parks service, Espada was the only mission that

was capable of making bricks and the influence of these mission artisans can be seen throughout the city even today. The National Parks service also states that the Spanish Franciscan missionaries trained the indigenous Coahuiltecan tribe to hunt and gather and to be loyal and productive citizens of 'New Spain'. Along the period of 50 years, the tribe was taught the principles of farming, ranching, architecture, blacksmithing, loom weaving and masonry. The Spanish language coupled with the Catholic faith formed the foundation of the 'new culture' of San Antonio (National Parks Service, 2017).

1. Site

Mission Espada is located 6.5 miles south of Mission Concepcion and is linked by the historic 'Camino De Los Reyes' also known as the Kings Path. A World Heritage Inscription, the proposed site is around 612 hectares and is located 1.2 miles south of Mission Espada. The site is located just outside the Mission Espada's buffer zone as it is a World Heritage site. This particular site has been chosen as it is accessible from Mission Espada through an asphalted country road in good condition that winds through country homes and farms, offering an excellent view of the rural setting there. This road also has very little traffic which is ideal for cycling and directly connects the proposed site to the Mission Espada which is just 1.2 miles from the site.

The main feature of the site is the Cassin Lake, located in South-Eastern part of Bexar County, and forms part of the San Antonio river basin (at 29°18' N, 98°27' W). It is an artificial lake built by William Cassin in 1907 for irrigation purposes. It is spread over 580 acre-feet and was owned and operated by Medina Properties limited in the early 1990s. The surrounding landscape is largely flat with a surface of clay loam and supports vegetation like Mesquite, cacti, and grasses (Texas State Historical Association, 2017). The lake provides an opportunity for popular recreational activities like fishing, boating, picnicking and relaxation. The lakeside is also the ideal location for 'Texas Style' barbecues. The flat nature of the site is ideal for equestrian, demonstrative agriculture and demonstrative dairy activities that are all planned as per this proposal.

The site is flat to gently rolling and is surfaced by clay loam that supports mesquite, cacti, and grasses. The site is bordered by the Roosevelt Avenue to the west, farmland to the north, national parkland to the east and a large-scale solar farm to the south. The site is not in the flood zone of the San Antonio River and the lake is artificially created. The site borders the Mission Espada buffer zone towards the north-east as seen in Figure 1. As per the latest land use map of San Antonio, the site falls in the suburban tier which is further described as a private and industrial zone.

Figure 1: Land use map showing the extent of the buffer zone. The proposed site is not in the buffer zone (image reference: Google Maps and San Antonio Missions 2014: 255)

Proposed site 612 Hectares

Enlarged area showing the buffer zone of Mission Espada
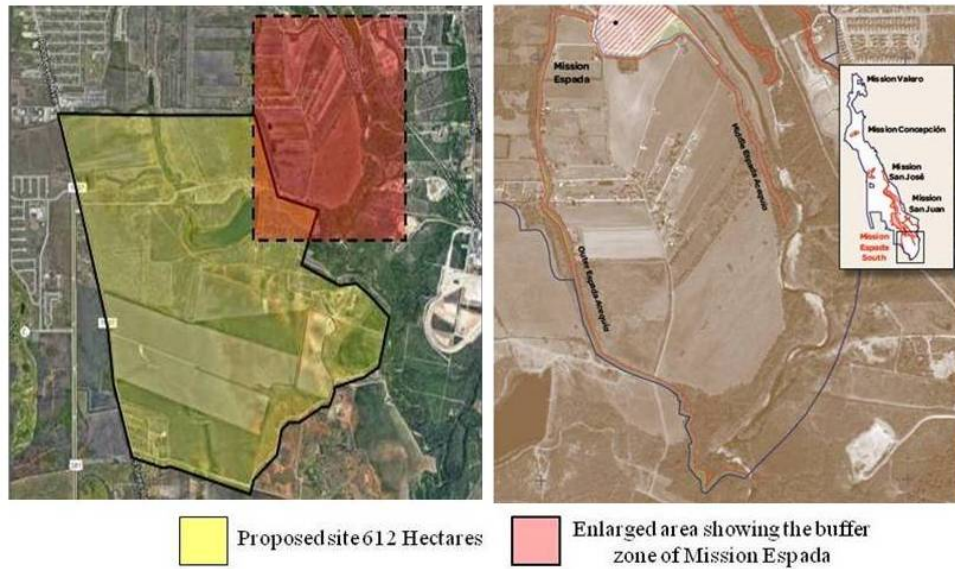
There are two main entry points to the site, one of which is accessible from the country road leading south of the Mission Espada and entering the site from the North, and the other entrance being accessible from the main Roosevelt avenue which is from the West as seen. The entrance from the North is ideal for tourists as it leads directly from Mission Espada to the site and offers excellent views of the country style homes and farms along the road. This road introduces tourists to the rural setting before they enter the site. The entrance from the West is well suited to be the service entry for the site as it is directly connected to the Roosevelt Avenue. Roosevelt Avenue is the main road which will make access to the site for the heavy vehicles providing services to the site easier, without disturbing the peace and quiet of the countryside. By having two different entrances we can ensure that services provided to the site will not interfere with tourists and the tourists do not see the movement of heavy trucks in and out of the site.

Figure 2: The two entrances to the site are seen in the above image. (image reference: Google Maps)

WEST

NORTH

2. Concept and Development Programme

The project is aimed at developing rural tourism in the areas around Mission Espada by proposing a rural tourism model that would attract tourists and benefit the rural communities. This would generate a lot of employment opportunities and help in the development of small businesses in the area while providing a unique way for tourists to experience the culture and heritage of Texas.

The proposal is a rural tourism hub centred around rural life in Ranches in Texas that revolve around agriculture, dairy, livestock and equestrian activities. The whole program is divided into four main themes based on four different types of activities. The Themes are:

- Dairy and livestock
- Lake and Fishing
- Agriculture and Apiculture
- Equestrian

These four themes would be accommodated in four different zones and the site will be divided based on their area requirement. These zones will provide recreational activities, tutorials, demonstrations and offer products specific to the zone.
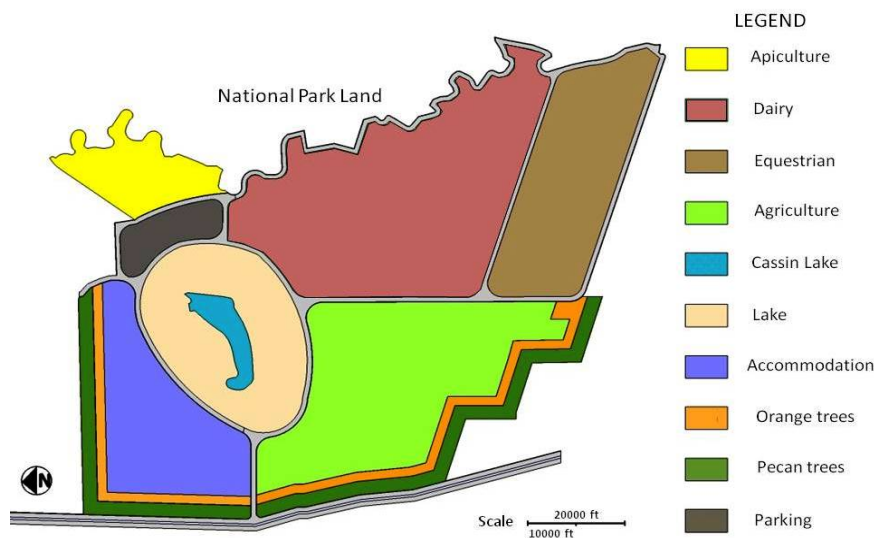
3. Development of Programme:

**Figure 3**: Site plan representing the various zones

Activities Based on Zones

A. Agriculture Zone:

The Agricultural zone focuses on activities related to agriculture and are demonstrative in nature. The demonstrations encompass different aspects of agriculture e.g., farming, crop cultivation, and harvesting techniques. The main activities proposed in this zone are listed below.

- Country cooking classes: Tourists will have a unique opportunity to learn how to cook healthy country delicacies using fresh local ingredients in a farm style ambiance from local experts.
- Pick your own vegetables: Guests are given a tour of the vegetable farm where they will have the experience of seeing how vegetables, herbs, and spices are grown, be allowed to pick the vegetables which will then be used by the project staff to cook a meal and serve it to the guests.
- Demonstrative Farming: Tourists are given a demonstration of farming techniques, equipment used and the process of harvesting the crop.
- Tour of the honey farm: Tourists get the opportunity of visiting a bee farm and to see how honey is harvested and processed. Tourists can also buy organically farmed honey.

**Figure 4**: Proposed activities for the Agricultural Zone
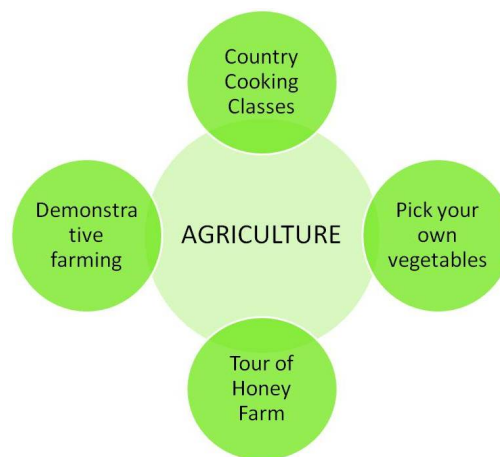
B. Dairy and Livestock Zone:

This zone focuses on demonstrations and activities that relate to the different aspects of dairy and livestock rearing. The guests will get the opportunity to interact with the animals and participate in related activities. The main activities proposed in this zone are listed below.

- Hayrides: Hayrides will be offered to the tourists as a form of entertainment.
- Try your hand at milking cows: Guests will get the chance to learn how to milk cows the traditional way, by hand.
- Bottle feed baby calves: Bottle feeding baby calves and playing with them can provide a rich and fulfilling experience for the guests.
- Tour of the coop: Guests are given a tour of the chicken coop. They can see how chickens are fed, eggs harvested and other activities.

**Figure 5:** Proposed activities for the Dairy and Livestock Zone
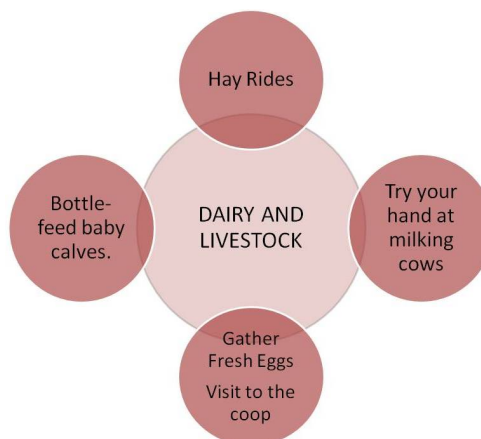
C. Lake Zone:

This zone focuses on demonstrations and activities that relate to the lake and sustainable fishing. The guests will get the opportunity to relax by the lake and engage in recreational activities that are offered by the lake. The main activities proposed in this zone are listed below.

- Fly Fishing: Fly fishing can be pursued by fishing enthusiasts at the Cassin lake situated on the property.
- Boating: Kayaks and boats will be provided at the Cassin lake for guests, who can use the lake for boating.
- Picnic by the Lake: The landscaped area around the lake is a perfect place to have a picnic with the family. This can also be combined with fishing and boating to make the experience more memorable.
- Catch and Barbeque: Guests can have a fishing and barbecue party by the lakeside, where freshly caught fish can be barbecued. The guests also bring in their choice of meat.

Figure 6: Proposed activities for the Lake and Fishing Zone
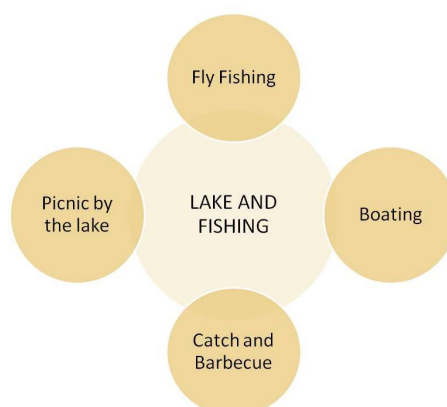

D. Equestrian Zone:

This zone focuses on the grooming, maintenance, and activities that relate to horses and horse riding. Guests can learn all about horses and even learn the skill of horse riding. The main activities proposed in this zone are listed below.

- Learn to ride a horse: Horse riding lessons are offered to guests at the Equestrian Zone by experienced horse riders from rural Texas.
- Learn how to use a Lasso: Guests get the chance to experience local culture by the traditional art of using the Lasso which is synonymous with being a cowboy and can be learned from the rural experts.
- Horse riding excursions: Horseback excursions are offered to the guests by local guides, where they can explore the numerous trails in the neighboring parklands, the San Antonio River and the world heritage San Antonio Missions.
- Feed and brush the horses: Learn how to care for horses, how to feed them and brush them at the horse stables in the project.

Figure 7: Proposed activities for the Equestrian Zone
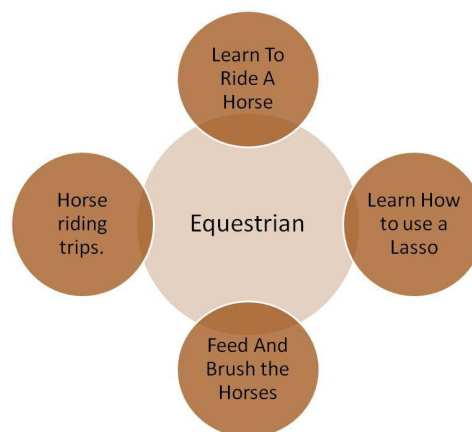
Conclusion

This sustainable rural tourism proposal aims to serve as a model for rural tourism development in San Antonio, with the objective of diversification of tourism from urban San Antonio to the rural areas. The proposed project for the 'The Heritage South Sector' in Bexar County, San Antonio has great potential for generating sustainable growth built on the foundation of its heritage and values. The main goal is to promote sustainable growth while respecting its history and preserving its natural resources. It aims at increasing the number of days spent by tourists, hence increasing the income from tourism for the city of San Antonio. The aim of the project is to provide employment opportunities for the local community through sustainable tourism, resulting in the improvement of the local economy and standards of living. Tourists will have the opportunity to experience authentic Texan rural lifestyle, culture and heritage in the historic setting of Mission Espada. This proposal can be further developed to design a tourism hub along the guidelines of sustainable tourism at Mission Espada. The development of detail plans for the buildings, program, and activities would be necessary for discussion with experts from different disciplines, such as architecture, business, culture, academics, hospitality, and finance. This would ensure the economic viability of the proposal and the effective design and smooth functioning of the tourism hub. This sustainable rural tourism model also has the potential to stimulate rural, sustainable tourism development projects around the world.

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FROM COLONIALISM TO TRANSNATIONALISM: THE NEO-COLONIAL STRUCTURE OF CARIBBEAN TOURISM

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Abstract: Sustainable tourism development in the Caribbean is inhibited by several challenges such as diseconomies of scale and scope and other structural and resource constraints. These challenges are further exacerbated by the heavy prominence of transnational conglomerates who own and operate most of the large hotels, airlines, cruise ships, travel agencies and tour operators that market and control tourism on the islands. Foreign domination of the foregoing sectors has contributed to substantial leakage of foreign exchange revenues, social polarization, social exclusion and environmental degradation. While most Caribbean islands achieved constitutional independence from Europe, this did not necessarily involve a restructuring of economic relationships or a shattering of colonial ideologies. Today, the legacy of slavery and the plantation society underpins much of the regions' contemporary culture, values and economic relationships despite the attainment of political independence. This paper aims to trace the nature and antecedents of foreign domination and control of Caribbean tourism and explores possible solutions to combat transnational intervention and economic dependency on them.

Keywords: Neo-colonialism, all-inclusive resorts, tourism dependency, tourism impacts, tour operators, transnational hotels, island tourism

Introduction

The Caribbean archipelago of islands is nestled between North and South America. Tourism is one of the principal economic activities on the islands and an essential source of job opportunities, livelihood, and inclusive growth. Mass tourism has become a significant source of revenue for many Caribbean states. In Barbados, tourism makes a 25% contribution to the gross national income, in Antigua 27% and in the Bahamas and St. Lucia 28% (Caribbean Development Bank, 2017). In the Caribbean, tourism directly supports over 800,000 jobs and generates over US$35.5 billion in revenue (Caribbean Tourism Organization, 2017). However, tourism has not been a panacea for the Caribbean's social or economic ills. As a matter of fact, several scholars liken tourism to the plantation economies of the 17th and 18th centuries (Beckles, 1990; Britton, 1982; Kondo, 2008). In the Caribbean, tourism has often been referred to as the 'new plantocracy' (Beckles, 1990), 'plantation tourism' (Weaver, 1988) or 'apartheid tourism' (Elliott & Neitotti, 2008) due to its structural similarities to the plantation economies of the 17th and 18th centuries (Beckles, 1990; Brohman, 1996; Lewis, 2002; Pattulo, 2006; Strachan, 2002; Weaver, 1988). These similarities include the dominant role of expatriate capital, management and control; profit repatriation, the seasonality of employment, the need for a large component of unskilled local labor and the reliance on a narrow range of monolithic tourist markets. What is also evident is the industry's tendency to respond to external, rather than local needs. The core-periphery structure of the plantation system has remained essentially intact well into the 21st century, resulting in a tourism industry, which perpetuates underdevelopment.

Historical Background

The Caribbean has a history of European colonization, domination and subjugation. This mass exploitation has its roots in 17th and 18th century mono-crop agricultural production for European markets. By 1750 Caribbean sugar surpassed grain as the most valuable commodity in European trade and by the 18th and 19th centuries, Caribbean plantations produced 80 to 90% of all sugar consumed in Western Europe (Beckles, 1990). During the sugar revolution, and after the obliteration of the indigenous Amerindians, the social stratification system of most Caribbean islands comprised a minority planter class consisting of wealthy European plantation owners and a majority black labor class comprising, African slave labor and subsequently indentured servants from Asia. By the time of emancipation in 1833, Caribbean societies remained socially and economically the same with sugar remaining the dominant mono-crop export.

Although several Caribbean islands achieved constitutional independence in the 1960s, this did not necessarily involve a restructuring of economic relationships or a shattering of colonial ideologies. During the post war period (1950-1978), the islands underwent an economic transformation. By the 1960s, proponents of capitalists and neo-liberalist ideologies influenced a more outward–oriented approached to economic development with less emphasis on staple crops and more emphasis on foreign direct investment. Multilateral lending agencies such as the Inter-American Development Bank, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and the United Nations Development Agency promoted tourism as a viable economic and social development tool for third world countries. Access to IMF structural adjustment funding became conditional on the implementation of policies designed to reduce state intervention in economic affairs and the adoption of more outward market-oriented economic growth and free trade (Edmonds, 2015). These policies influenced a shift away from agriculture and indigenous industries to policies, which emphasised the expansion of once hitherto ignored economic sectors such as international tourism. It can be argued that such policies have not served the Caribbean well and have, in fact, hindered sustainable development and exacerbated economic problems. The consequences of these policies are that many Caribbean islands remain unprogressive. For instance, although within the last three decades Cuba and the Dominican Republic received the 'lion's share' of tourists' arrivals in the Caribbean with 3,903,958 and 5,969,377 arrivals respectively in 2017 they remain two of the poorest countries in the region (Caribbean Tourism Organization, 2018). Today, tourism represents to the Caribbean region what sugar was a century ago: a monocrop controlled by foreigners and a few local elites. In the islands, international tourism has reinforced foreign domination, has led to a loss of cultural integrity and control over local resources; and, has reinforced economic dependency.

Transnational Hotels – Nature and Impacts

In the Caribbean, transnational conglomerates own and control most of the large hotels, restaurants, transportation links and tour operators. Transnationalism reinforces the asymmetrical distribution of power and economic resources between former colonies of the Caribbean (periphery) and their European (core) colonisers through tourism. The transnational system has also influenced the gravitation towards certain types of tourism development, particularly mass, institutionalised, standardised, packaged tourism. Foreign domination of the hotel and distribution sectors of tourism has contributed to substantial leakage of foreign exchange revenues and contributed to social polarisation and social exclusion in the islands.

A considerable amount of hotel investment in the Caribbean has been undertaken by large-scale hotel chains based in North America or Western Europe. International hotel chains such as Marriott, Sheraton, Starwood, Sandals, Best Western, Holiday Inn, Hilton, Renaissance, Radisson, Ritz Carlton, Four Seasons and several others have stakes in Caribbean tourism. Many of these establishments have as many as 1000 rooms or more. The problem with international investment is that the transnational companies retain the bulk of tourists' expenditure. It is suggested that 37% to 90% of tourism expenditure generated in the Caribbean accrues to the foreign countries where the transnationals are based (Pattulo. 2006). These are known as economic leakages (Cabezas, 2008; Pattulo, 2006). Excessive foreign ownership and control ensures that profits, salary repatriations, payments for imported goods and services exacerbates foreign exchange leakages. Payments made to resorts by tour operators and conference organisers are often made to the resorts' bank accounts located outside the region. The generous tax incentives offered by Caribbean governments to induce investment all contribute to substantial foreign exchange leakages. These normally include the duty-free importation of construction materials and equipment, and the luxury consumable imports required to cater to the sophisticated tastes of international tourists. Historically, the region has never produced sufficient crops for self-sufficiency and this tradition has spilled over into the tourism industry where a significant amount of food and consumables are imported. It is estimated that only 16% of fruit and 20% of fish consumed in Caribbean hotels are sourced locally (Caribbean Development Bank, 2017). It is difficult to bring local suppliers into the tourism supply chain, since the goods required by tourists may not be produced locally, and, when they are, they may be of poor quality, not available in sufficient quantity or may be rejected by hotel developers and tourists as inferior. In a Caribbean resort, you are more likely to be served English 'minced pies' at Christmas than a slice of Caribbean 'black cake' (a traditional Caribbean Christmas treat).

While transnational resorts contribute to mass local employment, the majority of jobs are labour intensive, lowly paid (usually at minimum wage) and require an unskilled, local, labour force. In Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, St Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago and several other islands, the annual minimum wage is under US$5000.00. Consequently, there is a wide disparity in wealth between the average tourists visiting most Caribbean islands and the majority of the local population. The gross national income, per capita, of the USA and Canada is three times that of Barbados, and more than ten times that of Jamaica. The average tourist is therefore able to spend more money on a weeks' vacation than the minimum wage earner in the Caribbean can earn in a year (Toppin-Allahar, 2015). These wealth disparities can create tensions and resentment between visitors and host communities. Moreover, to make matters worse, on several islands, governments have suppressed the minimum wage levels to maintain 'competitiveness' and to please foreign investors. By maintaining low wages, the economic benefits of any enhanced tourist inflow and increase in visitor expenditure does not reach most of the workers in the tourist trade but is instead retained by the international conglomerates as profits. By keeping national wages low efforts to increase visitation or attract upmarket clients is nullified because any surplus profit is extracted and retained by the transnational enterprises (Williams, 2012; Wong, 2015).

All-Inclusive Hotels

A major source of foreign exchange leakage is the all-inclusive hotel. On several islands, all-inclusive hotels dominate the industry. In Jamaica, all-inclusive resorts make up 53 % of the island's hotel rooms. Additionally, all-inclusive resorts accounted for 79.4 % of the larger hotels with 100 rooms or more. In St Lucia, all-inclusive resorts make up 51 % of all hotel

rooms (McElroy & Albuquerque, 1998) and in the Dominican Republic 95 % of all resorts are all-inclusive (Cabezas, 2008). An all-inclusive resort will ordinarily offer all the attributes of a pre–paid holiday, which would include accommodation, meals, and recreational activities and gratuities for a single price (Turner and Troiano, 1987). These services are usually offered within the confines of the resorts, with several owning and operating their own boutiques, gifts shops, watersports operations, tour buses and mini-marts. Because tourists are encouraged to stay within the confines of their resort, all-inclusive resorts affect the average per capita spending of visitors (Pattulo, 2006).

Seventy-five to eighty percent of the vacation expenses of all-inclusive package tours are allocated to tour operators, airlines, hotels and other global corporations headquartered in a foreign country (Kondo, 2008) with very little, if any, of the expenditure reaching the destination. While all-inclusive resorts satisfy transnational hotels and mass integrated tour operators' preference for standardisation and commoditisation of the destination product, their predominance has done little for the communities in which they operate. All-inclusive clients tend to be mainly psychocentric to mid-centric with little or no travel experience. As they typically have very little exploration/adventure needs they are quite content staying within the confines of the resort (Carey & Gountas, 1997). Because all-inclusive visitors are discouraged from venturing outside the resorts to spend money in locally owned enterprises, this decreases the opportunities for local restaurants, taxi drivers, craftsmen, vendors and even farmers to earn a living from tourism as the money becomes exclusively concentrated within the hands of the foreign conglomerates that control the industry (Williams, 2012). This is referred to as 'Zero Dollar Tourism' where the destination experiences an increase in arrivals but a decrease in expenditure (King, Dwyer & Prideaux, 2006). In the Dominican Republic, the earnings per tourist have decreased per-room spending from a high of US$318 in 1982 to the current low of US$154 (Cabezas, 2008). In Barbados, where there has been a sudden growth of these all-inclusive tourism enclaves, this Barbadian hotel owner expressed concern that:

"A number of the resorts (non-all-inclusive) and restaurants are closing and turning into condominiums because the all-inclusive product has killed the restaurant trade, and it is killing the smaller, independently run hotels. All-inclusive don't provide any business to Barbados, except for the resort the people stay in. They don't provide any business to the restaurants, taxis, shops, supermarkets, gas stations, because people go to the resorts and stay there. It's not good for Barbados; it's not good for tourism" (Sealy, 2018).

The all-inclusive resort is, thus, another consequence of the colonial legacy, which encourages mass tourism tied to the colonial tradition of high-volume, low value-added, mono exports (Mycoo, 2006). The result is mass visitation but a lower multiplier impact within the host community.

Social Exclusion, Polarisation, Marginalisation

Labour Policies

As was the case during the colonial era, the common practice of international hotels is to hire foreigners in top and middle management positions even when a qualified and skilled labour force is available in the host country (Manning, 2016). In the Dominican Republic, Dominican natives seldom work in positions of management or as chefs in the resorts. Cabezas (2008) notes how tourism in the Dominican Republic has deskilled and devalued Dominican workers. They claim that people are relegated, at best, to positions of servitude in low-paid jobs. These

exclusionary practices marginalise the local population, not just the working class, but also nationally trained executives and mid-level managers who may find it necessary to migrate to find meaningful and well-paid employment. As a result, several islands lose highly qualified workers in what is known as the 'brain drain'. When locals do benefit from tourism, it is usually the local elites, who benefit from high paying jobs or middle management positions. In rare cases, the best jobs often go to residents with the lightest skin color (Goodwin, 2008).

In countries such as Barbados where the majority of locals are black, and most tourists are white, the dynamics of race relations can be complex. Williams (2012) cites a scenario in which an unhappy guest went to the front desk to complain. The hotel manager, a black man, just happened to be at the desk when the visitor approached, loudly demanding to see the manager. The manager said, "Yes, that's me." The visitor refused to believe that a black man could be the manager of a luxury hotel and when he repeated that he was the manager, the visitor left in a huff. In a similar vein, the writer of this paper was turned down for a high-profile sales manager job when she worked for a large international American chain in Barbados. The preferred candidate was a white American, because according to what I was told 'she would relate well to the clients' who were mainly white Americans. When the company failed to obtain a work permit for the Florida native, she was mysteriously and suddenly married off to a local man to get around the work permit issues. In contrast, for roles involving cleaning, serving, bowing and stooping, the black natives are the preferred choice (Wong, 2015). The growth of the tourism industry in the Caribbean has re-created pre-colonial racial tensions based on race and skin color. In many cases tourism hiring practices has reinforced the colonial notion of black inferiority and white supremacy in the islands.

Exclusion from Beaches and Land

On many of the islands, foreign owners and operators of tourism facilities have acquired exclusive rights over extensive tracts of land and shoreline. In Jamaica, all but nineteen of the island's 488 miles of coastline had been privatised by 1992 (Goodwin, 2008). In Barbados, over the past three decades, access to certain tracks of land including beaches have been the topic of much social discourse on the island. In Barbados, all beaches are held in perpetuity for public use. However, there have been several disputes between developers and residents regarding access to some of the island's most popular beaches prompting a local calypsonian, The Mighty Gabby, to pen a song with the following chorus as a form of protest:

Jack don't want me to bathe on my beach,
Jack tell them to keep me out of reach
Jack tell them I will never make the grade,
Strengthen security, build barricade.
That can't happen here in this country,
I want Jack to know that the beach belong to we!
That can't happen here over my dead body,
Tell Jack that I say that the beach belong to we!
The beach is mine, I could bathe anytime,
Despite what he say, I can bathe anyway

In Barbados and Cuba, residents are systematically excluded from using facilities or entering the more exclusive golf courses and luxury resorts on the islands (Cabezas, 2008). Only recently, Barbadians staged a protest in response to a dispute between owners of the Crane Beach Resort and beach vendors over access to the resort's beach. In Barbados, membership

fees at a certain golf course are purposely fixed so high that even wealthy local elites cannot afford membership (Sealy, 2009). In Cuba, where tourism is spatially concentrated tourists have access to lush facilities, numerous products and fine food, while residents struggle in their daily existence in shanty towns. Attractions such as Varadaro Beach, which was once accessible to native Cubans, is now available only to foreign tourists (Elliott & Neirotti, 2008).

Because of tourism, many Caribbean nationals are systematically excluded from land that served agricultural purposes and from shorelines that were formerly used for fishing and recreation. As this Barbados resident states:

"All I can see these golf courses doing is creating more and more areas in this island that are off-limits to locals. Areas where I used to play as a child have now been developed and fenced in for only those who can afford it" (Sealy, 2009).

Cruise Ships

Of the more than 70 cruise ships that travel through the Caribbean, none are Caribbean-owned. Caribbean communities derive even fewer economic benefits from cruises than resort style tourism. According to one study, cruise tourists contribute as little as 12% of all tourist expenditure to the Caribbean (Goodwin, 2008). The daily spending per person for cruise passengers is 55% lower than the spending per person for long-stay tourists. Furthermore, the little spending by cruise tourists occurs in duty-free shops, which are owned by foreign companies that sell imported goods. These activities contribute little to the Caribbean economy.

A Caribbean Development Bank (2017) report also reminds us that some cruise passengers may choose to stay on the cruise ship and do not spend any money in the country of arrival but are still counted in the arrival statistics. Ship construction materials and furniture are mostly imported, and the food and beverages consumed on board are frequently purchased overseas in the homeports of the ships. Only a fraction of the staff is Caribbean. Although some cruise passengers take island tours while in port to shop for trinkets and other souvenirs, the economic benefits accrued by these small operators are miniscule in comparison to those extracted by trans-national cruise ship owners. Consequently, the overall market for cruise tourism in the Caribbean translates into even lower earnings for the region, since its participation in the profits is restricted to port fees and a few hours of shopping in duty free ports.

Tour Operators

Tour operators are a hidden, but significant, source of foreign exchange leakage. Over the past 30 years mergers, acquisitions and strategic alliances have propelled British tour operators into large oligopolistic 'power houses', allowing them to control airlift capacity, price, product and consumer buying behaviour (Bastakis, Buhalis & Butler, 2004; Buhalis, 2000; Gartner and Bachri, 1994; Stuart, Pearce & Weaver, 2005). Tour operators control large chunks of traffic into the various islands. For instance, Virgin Atlantic Holidays and British Airways Holidays alone control as much as 50% of all traffic out of the UK to the island of Barbados. Some of the smaller and medium sized hotels are dependent on tour operators for as much as 90% of all their business (Sealy, 2014). This oligopolistic power allows the tour operators to exert pressure on accommodation providers for rooms to be contracted at the lowest possible rates. The rates offered to tour operators by hotels are significantly lower than the rates published by hotels to the public and can represent discounts of 20 to 60% off the published rack rates.

Tour operators compete against other operators that feature and sell the same undifferentiated products to the same market segments (Inkson and Minnaert, 2012). Inkson and Minnaert (2012) note that the elasticity of demand of tourism products means that the ability to compete is dependent on the tour operator's ability to beat their competitors on price. As tour operators are increasingly forced to lower their prices to maintain their market share the hotel becomes the first port of call for lower accommodation rates. Consequently, tour operators must employ a variety of skills, tricks and techniques to drive accommodation rates down. When demand and occupancies are low tour operators might complain to hotels that their property ''is not selling'' with the intention of compelling hoteliers to grant further discounted net rates. Tour operators withhold early bookings by taking advantage of the latest release option in their contracts to increase their bargaining power. When the hotel offers the cheaper rates, the tour operator would then release the previously held bookings to the hotel. This creates in the mind of the unsuspecting hotelier the illusion that it is the additional discounts that precipitated the newly reported bookings, but the tour operator would have been holding the bookings for some time without reporting them to create the illusion of poor demand. Further to this, it is reported that customers do not always benefit from the last-minute discounts that are offered by hotels to tour operators to stimulate bookings during slow periods. Hoteliers complained that these discounts would still be deducted from the operator's final payment to the hotel thereby increasing the tour operators' profit margins (Sealy, 2014; 2018).

Tour operators frequently use the practice of 'switch selling 'or 'directional selling' in order to achieve their strategic goals. They sometimes mislead customers by repulsing them from using certain properties by citing unfounded issues or problems or by telling them that the hotel is full or 'unavailable' so that the customer would book a competing property or ones owned by the tour operator (Buhalis, 2000). Mystery shoppers investigating British tour operators on behalf of a Barbados boutique hotel reported that they were frequently told that Barbados was *"unromantic"*, had *"too many children"* or had *"too much traffic"* to persuade them to travel to St. Lucia (Sealy, 2014). Tour operators can manipulate the competition among the various hotels and destinations within the same competitive set as they control the airlift capacity and price (Papatheodorou, 2006). They can drive hotel occupancies up in one destination by 'switch selling' to drive occupancies down in another destination to increase their bargaining power for lower rates. These dynamics put hotels who depend on tour operator channels in a very vulnerable position. In Barbados, hoteliers noted that they would frequently receive calls from customers claiming that, the tour operator said that their hotel was 'unavailable' when it fact several rooms were available for sale. Customers would then ask to book direct with the hotel but hotels risk punitive penalties from the tour operators if they took direct bookings (Sealy, 2014). Hoteliers noted, however, that because the tour operators control about 70% of the airlift and airline seats coming into the island, the customer frequently had no choice but to book with the tour operator.

Tour operators would often misquote travel statistics, employ intimidation tactics or play hotels against each other at the destination to compel them to give further rate reductions. Claiming that a hotel of a higher category at the destination has quoted a lower rate is a frequently used tactic to create the illusion of fake competition between hotels at the destination to drive rates down (also see Buhalis, 2000). Barbados hoteliers reported that during periods of low demand tour operators would ask for as much as a further 50% off the already existing contracted room rates (Sealy, 2018). Furthermore, to drive rates down even further tour operators may negotiate for 'run-of-the-house' rooms, which gives the hotelier the flexibility to assign rooms of a lower classification to tour operator clients so that the premium rooms can be reserved for sale to premium customers at premium prices. However, tour operator clients would 99.9 % of the

time complain about the 'run of the house' room, or about other hotel services or facilities to make a case for an upgrade to a higher category room without paying the surcharge.

Tour operators would often misrepresent the star rating of a hotel by overstating its star classification. When guests arrive, if the services and facilities are not to their expectation, this may lead to complaints and compensation being paid by the hotel. Ordinarily, a hotel of a higher classification would attract a higher price thereby increasing tour operator profits. However, when you sell a 4-star hotel, as a 5-star the expectation of service and facilities are very high. In Barbados, a large west coast hotel refunded millions of pounds over time to customers who were disappointed when they arrived because they were misled or not properly informed about the hotel by the tour operator. Furthermore, tour operators may also withhold payment until the last minute sometimes leaving hotels with serious overdrafts and scrambling for cash to pay local suppliers and staff. The visitor pays the tour operator in advance for their holidays but, the large tour operators require 30 to 45 days credit facility, but many do not pay on time. Buhalis (2000) notes that these delayed payments allow the tour operators to earn as much as 25% of their revenue from interest on hotels' money as it sits in their banks in the metropole. Frequently, the failure of tour operators to pay on time has resulted in hotels applying for additional overdraft facilities to meet financial and operational obligations and in turn paying interest on these loans or overdrafts.

It is important to note that these experiences are not unique to the Caribbean. As a matter of fact, they are congruent to the experiences of hoteliers in peripheral destinations in other regions of the world (Andriotis, 2003; Bastakis, Buhalis & Butler, 2004; Buhalis, 2000; Gartner and Bachri, 1994; Karamustafa, 2000; Stuart, Pearce & Weaver, 2005; Tan & Dwyer, 2014; Tveteraas, & Lien, 2014). The constant reduction in net rates will lead to the inability of the smaller hotels to maintain their physical facilities and service standards. The deterioration of the tourism product also leads to a poor destination and product image and to a reluctance by customers to pay a premium price. The further deterioration of the tangible product showers the tour operator with additional power to negotiate for even cheaper rates, which consequently leads to a further drop in prices. Buhalis (2000) warns that the concentration of bargaining power in European tour operators will inevitably reduce the profit margins of small, medium sized tourism businesses and their ability to reap decent returns on their investment.

Recommendations

The neo-colonial system appropriates local resources in peripheral places and concentrates it into the hands of foreign organizations in metropolitan countries for profit. When a country's natural resources are packaged and sold by foreign enterprises a substantial portion of the profits and value-added is captured by the metropole and therefore does not accrue to the destination country. These leakages result in the local population bearing the economic and social costs of tourism while retaining relatively little of the economic benefits. The role of governmental policy is critical in making the destination and its local tourism businesses more competitive. Government should encourage and facilitate policies to strengthen the competitive position of the local tourism business sector. Several governmental actions could help to develop a more sustainable tourism industry. These include:

• Strengthening inter-sectoral linkages, particularly with the agro-industries, to reduce foreign exchange leakages. This could include the development of market associations that make it easier for hotels and restaurants to source local produce and goods. The Sandals Programme in Jamaica is an agro-tourism initiative, which has grown from 10 farmers

supplying two hotels in 1994, to 80 farmers in 2004. Due to this initiative, farmers' sales increased in three years from US$60,000 to US$3.3 million.

- Developing strategies to convert cruise arrivals into long-stay visitors of the future.
- Encouraging local entrepreneurship by providing small-scale businesses with education, training and access to grants and loans.
- Enhancing the marketing and research skills of local hotel personnel so that they are not overly dependent on tour operators and can stand on their own against the international corporate giants.
- Building market research capabilities through the utilisation of accurate, relevant and timely data as the basis for evidence-based decision-making, planning, investment and marketing.
- Developing an indigenous craft industry that would encourage all-inclusive and cruise ship tourists to venture outside the resorts/ships for Caribbean made, distinct and unique handicrafts. (In the Caribbean, most souvenirs are generic and imported from Asia).
- Designing and delivering community events that would create unique experiences to entice visitors to leave their resorts. The Barbados Oistins Fish Fry is a weekly event where fishermen, fish sellers, farmers, local chefs and craft people sell vegetables, fish, beverages and prepare meals and sell handicrafts to thousands of tourists and locals. The event is self-sustainable.
- Controlling the amount and type of accommodation to prevent over supply. Limit all-inclusive resorts: hotel development should resonate with the ethos, values and needs of the destination.
- Using the sharing economy channels such as Airbnb to encourage more home stays and alternative accommodation choices for visitors. Tourists using sharing economy accommodations spend more on groceries and dining outside their accommodation than tourists in other types of accommodation (Caribbean Development Bank, 2017).
- Tightening immigration policies to prevent foreign personnel from monopolising high paid managerial positions where qualified locals are available. Impose fines on policy violations.
- Diversifying the tourism offerings away from the sea, sun and sand concept. Promotional efforts must be directed towards offering specialised and special interest products. Niche markets have more focused and targeted media outlets and offer opportunities for strategic alliances with a cadre of more specialised tour operators and their networks.

Tour operators have a strong influence on the nature of the information communicated to clients before and during the holiday, which influences the consumption patterns and expectations of the visitor. Tour operators typically classify hotels and resorts to meet their own brand specification; but this often presents a distorted, induced image of the destination and resort area. Consequently, tourists often lack information and awareness about the cultural, environmental and economic impacts of their touristic activity. Goodwin (2008) suggest that Caribbean destinations should change the consumption patterns of tourists through the application of information-based policy instruments. This could be done through social media; press visits or movie and film tourism with appropriate storylines. Consumer behavior can be influenced by an education campaign to entice visitors to venture outside their resorts to experience the true realities of the destination and its people. It should inform foreign tourists on how the economic, environmental and cultural impacts of their travel behavior is felt by the destination.

Closing Remarks

The Caribbean's dependency on other countries has its roots in colonial society. On the surface, independence in the Caribbean was nothing more than a 'constitutional independence' with all the features of a neo-colonial society emerging. (Britton, 1982; Wall & Mathieson, 2006; Weaver, 1988; William, 2012; Wong, 2012). Caribbean societies resemble today a subtler organisation of the colonial system through neo-colonial structures and a hegemony of European culture and western ideologies. Today, as in the past, the political economy of the Caribbean is socially, politically and economically structured in a way that facilitates the interests of the metropolitan centers as it did during the colonial era.

These problems and challenges are not totally fortuitous but have been exacerbated by Caribbean governments' weakness in implementing policy decisions and their incessant failure for creating an enabling environment for indigenous tourism development and investment to flourish. Wilson (1996) notes that very often in the Caribbean, the scramble for foreign exchange and the need to please foreign investors has precipitated tourism development determined by the short-term fancy of government rather than a coordinated and strategic approach that takes into account the needs and interests of all stakeholders. This situation is compounded by weak regulations, poor planning guidelines, inadequate legislation and corruption. As V. S Naipaul (1969) wrote several years ago:

'Every poor country accepts tourism as an unavoidable degradation. None has gone so far as some of the West Indian islands, which, in the name of tourism are selling themselves into a new slavery (Naipaul 1969, p. 210).'

Unfortunately, several Caribbean countries continue to experience the most abusive forms of exploitation as a manifestation of this neo-colonial system. Also, evident are the social tensions generated by the development of institutionalised mass tourism in relatively poor societies with a history of racism and gross inequality. This paper highlights the reality that power differentials still exist within the tourism supply chain. It has bought about the sobering realisation that peripheral and insular communities continue to fight for social justice as they bear the social and economic cost of tourism.

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TOURISM & SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT
KATHMANDU, 16-18th MAY 2018

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Conference Report

Scholars and practitioners gathered for the 9th International Conference on Tourism and Sustainable Development conference in Kathmandu between 16th and 18th May, 2018, following a very successful conference in the same location in 2017. Over 70 contributors from all over the world presented over 50 papers and keynotes covering many issues regarding the interface between tourism and its contribution to development. As Professor David Simmons, University of Lincoln, noted, these issues were particularly pertinent this year after the release of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the designation of 2017 as the International Year of Tourism for Sustainable Development by the UNWTO (World Tourism Organisation, 2018). While all the SGDs have some relevance to tourism, Goal 8 (the promotion of sustained, inclusive and economic growth) and Goal 12 (sustainable consumption and production patterns) alongside sustainable use of the environment (Goals 14 and 15) have been identified as being of specific focus for tourism planners and managers. Of course tourism development is not without its many problems, including a legacy of impacts and exploitation, highlighted by Dr Wendy Sealy in her expose of dependency and foreign domination in Caribbean tourism.

Whilst we were able to learn from international scholars, there were also many excellent papers from Nepalese colleagues, examining the issues and future potential for tourism development in a country which is still struggling with the impacts of the huge 2015 earthquake and political turmoil in recent years. The best paper award was sponsored by CABI publishers, with a copy of the Encyclopaedia of Sustainable Tourism (Cater, Garrod and Low, 2015). This award was presented to Prateek Gurung who presented a paper on Tourism Impact in Indigenous Bote Community of Chitwan National Park. Prateek used mixed methods to examine the perspectives of an indigenous community on tourism development. In common with previous research he found issues of dependency and control, with limited current benefits actually accruing to the host populations.

There was a particular focus on adventure tourism research this year, following the keynote by Professor Ghazali Musa from University of Malaya. Indeed Nepal is arguably the home of adventure tourism, pioneering the concept of both high altitude mountaineering (Musa, Carr and Higham, 2015) and trekking, as well as being host to many other adventure pursuits such as whitewater rafting, mountain biking and paragliding. There was therefore a sense of adventure tourism 'coming home', as Nepal has great opportunities to "develop adventure tourism products as a way of diversifying the tourism offering" (Cater, 2018). In parallel there will be increased research capacity, as Professor Ramesh Kunwar announced the forthcoming peer reviewed journal of Adventure Tourism to be published in 2019. Importantly, however, Professor Musa emphasised that we need to make sure that adventure tourists are also spiritually aware so that they care for the environments and cultures that they visit. This seems appropriate in a region which has both seen the birth of so many religions and also fostered the spiritual connection to mountain landscapes that is a strong contemporary tourism desire.

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