Progress in Responsible Tourism

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Editors: Harold Goodwin and Xavier Font
Progress in Responsible Tourism

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As Charles Darwin wrote “It is not the strongest of the species that survive, nor the most intelligent, but the one most responsive to change.”

The photograph on the cover is of Ruth Holroyd of Oakleaf Business Solutions\textsuperscript{1}, Ruth was Group Head of Sustainability at Thomas Cook from 2007-2012, where she made a difference. Ruth was at the International Centre for Responsible Tourism’s conference on Tourism, Creating Local Economic Benefit and Paying for the Landscape\textsuperscript{2} in June. The conference was held in the lecture theatre of the Docklands Academy\textsuperscript{3} replete with inspirational quotations from the giants.

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\textsuperscript{1}  www.oakleaf-business-solutions.co.uk
\textsuperscript{2}  www.responsibletourismpartnership.org/landscape.html
\textsuperscript{3}  www.docklandsacademy.co.uk
Editorial

The Responsible Tourism agenda is broad and this fourth edition of Progress in Responsible Tourism reflects that diversity of issues.

Rebecca Armstrong’s paper on working conditions in the hotel industry addresses an important issue which until now has not been the focus of Responsible Tourism, although we did publish a paper by Andreas Walmsley on Decent Work and Tourism: Wages: An International Comparison in this journal last year, Vol 2(1). Rebecca’s paper draws heavily on the work of the Institute for Human Rights and Business and their Staff Wanted campaign with Anti-Slavery International. There is support for the living wage campaign from people like Ferdinand Mount, former head of the Downing Street Policy Unit under Margaret Thatcher. As Rebecca reports Mount has argued that low pay results in an estimated 7 million UK ‘workers on benefits’ – those who are working but who are subsidised by the state through ‘top up’ welfare payments, because their employers fail to pay them a living wage. Taxpayers pick up the bill for the shortfall left by corporate employers – including hotels –paying their staff poorly, often through intermediaries, to maximise profits. The London Living Wage Campaign is supported by Boris Johnson, London’s Conservative Mayor, and more predictably Ed Miliband the leader of the Labour Party. At World Travel Market this year the issues around employment in the tourism and hospitality sector are being addressed in one of the Responsible Tourism panels for the first time. We are looking at two contradictory aspects of employment in the industry. On the one hand there is increasing reliance, particularly in the hotel sector, on low paid staff. On the other the tourism industry remains remarkably open with significant numbers of Board directors having worked their way up from starting as resort rep’s or activity guides.

Heidi Keyser’s practitioner paper on Responsible Tourism and Local Government in South Africa breaks new ground in looking at the breadth of local government engagement in the management of tourism in destinations. As Heidi points out, it is local government which is at the ‘coalface’ of tourism, the destinations where tourists and locals interact, where tourism takes place, are places governed locally. And in local government many, almost all, of the municipal functions, influence the form that tourism takes and affect how sustainable it is. Too much attention has been focussed on national government policies and too little on local governance – Progress in Responsible Tourism wants to assist in redressing the balance, we are keen to have papers and contributions dealing with local government where tourism can be managed to achieve the objective of making better places for people to live in. Pazzagli, Vegni and Schmidt have produced a short survey of approaches to participatory governance arguing that the
“success of a tourism region depends on a set of elements; including a more sustainable and holistic approach to local environmental management problems by government and the active participation of civil society.” We would like to publish more articles addressing these issues.

Andrea Nicholas has written a short history of the Green Tourism Business Scheme, explaining how it has evolved and developed into arguably the most successful programme globally. The programme has reached its 15th birthday and this seems a good time to present a reflection on its development, we asked and Andrea kindly obliged. As she explains GTBS is not a certification programme. It is best understood as a management programme linked with a grading scheme. The Green Tourism programme is based on the ISO14001 standard for implementing an environmental management system in a business. It requires that the business identifies the most significant issues and ensures continual improvement. The criteria and grading process are based on the businesses performance and evidence that the measures are in place and making a difference.

A common approach of papers published in *Progress in Responsible Tourism* is the identification of good practice in order to encourage replication. Carole Favre’s paper explains the background to the manual which she has published with the Travel Foundation: *Are you ready for Business: How to sell excursions to UK Tour Operators*. The manual has been developed to assist micro-enterprises in emerging and developing economies to sell to tour operators. Donald Barrie has researched the treatment of social entrepreneurship in the graduate tourism curricula, universities should be doing more to equip their graduates to work in a world where the third sector is of increasing importance. Felipe Zalamea has written a review of development in emerging community-based ecotourism models in Latin America and identified a number of initiatives with common characteristics: “they have been following a similar set of principles and values, notably income redistribution, operational transparency and capacity building.” I hope that we shall be publishing reports on their impacts.

Michael Estabrook has written about the issue of human rights in hospitality, the article was first published in HOTELS magazine but the issues are important to Responsible Tourism and when Michael asked whether we would publish too we were pleased to do so. The International Tourism Partnership is doing more work on human rights in the hospitality sector; tourism organisations are also becoming more active on the issues. This year the World Responsible Tourism Awards has a human rights category focussed on child protection; more details of the Awards, the winners and the highly commendeds in the next edition. We would welcome more articles on human rights and the sector.
Xavier Font and Silvia Barbone have explained the emergence and significance of the Project Management for European Sustainable Development qualification, which aims to support project managers, and aspiring project managers, in developing and refining the skills necessary to plan and manage tourism projects effectively, and ensure they provide long-term benefits. Poor delivery has been an issue in sustainable tourism projects in Europe and beyond for years – it is time that these issues were addressed.

Responsible Tourism is about leaving a better world for our children to inherit. To achieve this we need to ensure that future generations understand the holistic nature of sustainability much better than we did. Chris Warren, Jane Gripper and Lara Claringbould have written a report of the work they did with a local school in Kangaroo Valley. It is an example of what a small business with limited resources can do to help make the world a better place.

Go on, be inspired.
How to Sell Excursions to UK Tour Operators

Carole Favre, International Centre for Responsible Tourism, Leeds Metropolitan University

Small excursion entrepreneurs in less economically developed countries (LEDCs) rarely have the skills and knowledge necessary to do business with UK tour operators. This study explores issues related to market access which were presented in a 65 page manual. Illustrated with real life examples and practical guidelines the manual aims to facilitate the practical application, by micro-entrepreneurs (MEs), of the study’s recommendations. The findings and content of the manual were mainly derived from interviews with tour operators, ground handlers and industry experts. They suggest that there are five main crucial elements to gaining market access: excursion design, health and safety, pricing, business skills, and customer service skills.

This paper explains the background to the development of Favre’s manual Are you ready for Business: How to sell excursions to UK Tour Operators published by the Travel Foundation.

Introduction

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are the largest employers in less economically developed countries (LEDCs) and are estimated to account for 90% of worldwide tourism products and services supply. They are therefore in a position to become the most powerful agents of poverty alleviation. More specifically, it is micro enterprises (MEs) that make up the largest share of these locally-owned businesses. Conversely, MEs have gained little from mass-market tourism developments, which have mostly benefited large corporations; nor have they been central in the more recent effort to promote alternative tourism types (e.g. ecotourism) and small community-based initiatives (CBT).

Identified as the main trusted intermediaries between tourists and destinations, tour operators (TOs) provide access to sizeable markets on location, and thus represent a larger and more direct source of income than the independent travellers’ market, which few MEs have the capability, and the technology to access before departure. Establishing linkages with mass market, adventure and other niche operators is therefore essential to pro-poor tourism practice. For UK TOs, it is a way to provide evidence of a renewed commitment to

5 RTA (undated), cited in WTD (2010)
responsible tourism (RT). Crucially, it makes commercial sense as integrating micro-firms to the tourism value chain enhances customer satisfaction and business sustainability to a greater extent than do philanthropic donations.\(^8\)

Linkages are varied in types and size but promoting or including local excursions is one of the most direct ways to impact on poverty reduction, and to spread the benefits of tourism more widely across a destination. Incidentally, tourists are also increasingly eager to experience authenticity through interaction with local communities.\(^9\) In LEDCs, these linkages are very difficult to set up, especially as most micro excursion providers work in the informal sector, lack the human and technical capital to meet tour operators’ stringent standards, and are constrained by external factors beyond their control.\(^10\) Crucially, attempts to provide MEs with a set of clear, readable and helpful recommendations regarding TOs’ requirements to source local excursions have been rare and geographically limited.

This article explores the results of a study which has aimed to remedy this situation by providing guidelines to excursion MEs in LEDCs, in order to facilitate their market access to UK tour operators. The study is unique in that it had a practical outcome in the shape of a 65 page manual entitled *How to sell Excursions to UK Tour Operators*, due to be published and distributed by the Travel Foundation in August. The manual was produced to ensure a much faster and more effective application of the research outcomes to impact on poverty alleviation. In the context of responsible tourism practice, it provides recommendations, which are both empowering and practically implementable in LEDCs, but also communicated in ways that ensure effective learning by MEs. We start by explaining why the manual was necessary by first looking at MEs and their internal constraints, and second the roles and requirements of TOs and their ground handlers’ (GHs), which MEs must be aware of, to gain market access. Then, we turn shortly to methodology. This is followed by a presentation of selected findings from the manual’s first two chapters. We conclude by reflecting on more general implications for MEs and their market access to UK TOs.

**Micro-enterprises in tourism**

**Definition and characteristics**

This report defines MEs (also referred to as small businesses in this article) in accordance to van der Sterren’s model (2008:38 – see Table 1), which focuses on business and financial characteristics specific to small businesses in tourism, in LEDCs; this includes the self-employed and companies with up to ten staff, specialising or not, in tourism.


Table 1: Types of enterprises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Asset base accumulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Mostly part-time labour, temporary, sometimes seasonal activity, family-based labour. Main aim is to generate additional income</td>
<td>No permanent asset base, no capital accumulation, permanent cash shortage. Business only as survival strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro-enterprise</td>
<td>1-9</td>
<td>Not focussed on economic expansion Fixed business premises, limited fixed assets. Family labour, informal or formal status. Little orientation to growth. Tourism is one of multiple family income sources.</td>
<td>Permanent availability of liquid assets, some savings. Little capital accumulation. Business as main strategy. Income stabilization as main purpose.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: van der Sterren 2008:38

Looking at this table, two main problems should be emphasised: first, small entrepreneurs are constrained by cultural norms to distribute their wealth to family members, which largely restricts investment opportunities\(^\text{11}\); second, high levels of competition amongst MEs lead to reduced income\(^\text{12}\). However, as businesses highly dependent upon locally-sourced funding and support, MEs show a strong potential to benefit their communities\(^\text{13}\), and thus to involve their members in developing and delivering excursions.

There is a multitude of constrictions identified in existing literature and categorised as ‘outside of MEs’ control’. These include: lack of support from international agencies, government and local authorities, poor business, IT and transport infrastructures, lack of credit through banks or micro-financing, stringent or hindering legislation and taxes, oversupply and insufficient destination marketing\(^\text{14}\). Whist these factors matter hugely, they are not within the scope of this work, which focuses on constraints MEs can actually act upon.

**Internal constraints**

MEs’ lack of knowledge, skills and expertise has universally been identified as a major constraint to their engagement with markets\(^\text{15}\). Coetzer (2001:29) argues that “one of the most important determinants of success or failure of tourism micro-sized enterprises [are] the skill and initiative of the individuals involved”, and more precisely, the owner’s attitude and business competences.\(^\text{16}\) This is also identified by small entrepreneurs themselves as their most important assets for success.\(^\text{17}\)

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11 Cole (2007)  
12 Coetzer (2001)  
13 Harrison & Shipani (2007)  
17 Lundberg & Fredman (2012)
Entrepreneurship and marketing skills

An experienced tourism consultant in Latin America, Jones (2011) practically illustrates what she observes as the greatest weakness of small excursion providers in developing countries: their reluctance to make their product known to journalists, TOs, hotel and restaurant owners; in effect what many qualify as their lack of entrepreneurial attitude to link with market. Some interpret this inaction to be symptomatic of entrepreneurs’ lack of marketing skills. The act of linking small tourism ventures’ market failure to marketing skills deficiency (because of their inability to identify and reach the right market) has emerged in academic writing only recently, albeit strongly. It is advanced by some that SMEs should be able to select relevant sales and promotion techniques and identify potential buyers to gain market access.

Communication, networking and innovation skills

MEs need “to form and maintain relationships” with these buyers through effective communication and networking skills. To achieve this, IFAD & IFAT (2004) provide the following practical guidelines: organise business meetings with buyers, involve the media, attend trade fairs and other guided tours in nearby areas, and support the creation of same activity networks.

Accountancy and planning skills

Another key but missing skill identified in two manuals for access to tourism markets regards the entrepreneurs’ ability to calculate their own pricing and commission levels confidently, especially in preparation for negotiations with TOs. This reflects a failure in planning for financial performance, a problem rarely explored in the context of tourism small businesses, and which is a major weakness in an industry where “demand is volatile and the product [...] perishable.”

Educational achievement

As a rule, failure to acquire or demonstrate these business skills is linked to the entrepreneur’s lack of educational attainment, which is very low amongst LEDCs’ native MEs owners. This capability gap is identified as limiting MEs’ engagement with larger

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24 Bastakis et al. (2004)
25 Coetzer (2001)
27 Nitcher & Goldmark (2009) and Kirsten & Rogerson (2002)
corporations\textsuperscript{28}, as they rarely understand how to plan for linkages because most run survivalist rather than commercial businesses\textsuperscript{29}.

Coetzer (2001:29) powerfully resumes the themes discussed here when he asks “how can micro-sized enterprises, lacking the knowledge and capabilities to understand trends, operate successfully in a tourism industry that is dominated by large national and transnational corporations?” He concludes that it can only be achieved through linkages with larger companies. Next section explores how this can be achieved in practice.

\textbf{Channels to tour operators}

Noticeably, apart from one key but dated textbook published by Buhalis \& Laws (2001), very little has been written about TOs and their distribution channels\textsuperscript{30}. Moreover, this book and other available literature largely focus on mass-market TOs. They identify two types of intermediaries for large operators: the UK TOs themselves, and incoming travel agencies, which they qualify as handling agencies, more commonly referred to as ground handlers/agents (GHs).

First, they explain that TOs are unique in that they are both “producers and manufacturers of tourism products rather than simply distributors” (2001:20); according to EU Package Regulation, this makes them legally responsible for monitoring the quality of their packages. However, principally driven by profit maximisation, they are mainly preoccupied with driving down the purchase price of each component of the holiday, making cost central to negotiations. They also expect large volumes to make up for very low margin.

Second, they further state that GHs act as agents of tour operators and assume a series of generic responsibilities resumed as: “undertak[ing] all commissionable jobs at a destination, [including] identification, negotiation, contract and reservation of appropriate tourism products [and] acting as legal representatives” (2001:27). In fact, as the link that identifies and selects local suppliers “efficiently and quickly” (2001:30), GHs seem to hold a central position in facilitating market access.

Some writers warn against developing exclusive partnerships, which are controlling of MEs and create dependency\textsuperscript{31}. Inversely, others argue that “working with a large number of agencies and operators limits the capabilities […] to establish closer ties with them on a daily basis”\textsuperscript{32}; it is argued that this relationship is vital to creating a mutual understanding so that excursions are sold to the right customers\textsuperscript{33}. This seems to support the argument

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{28} Deloitte \textit{et al.} (2004)
\item \textsuperscript{29} ibid; Kirsten \& Rogerson (2002)
\item \textsuperscript{30} Jensen (2009)
\item \textsuperscript{32} Silveira Martins (2008) and Coelho \& Ozorio (2010:15-16)
\item \textsuperscript{33} by Coelho and Ozorio (2010)
\end{itemize}
that an essential condition to market access involves MEs being careful in selecting the right TOs or GHs to work with.\footnote{34}{Ashleigh (2005) and Ashleigh & Haysom (2005)}

Equally, a rare study investigating TOs and GHs finds that both are also careful in selecting local suppliers, taking three main factors into consideration: price, product/production and reliability/confidence.\footnote{35}{see Jensen (2009)} Buhalis & Laws (2001) argue that the latter, which they liken to reputation, is the prime criterion in partner choice, since it should indicate both a capacity and a willingness on the part of the excursion ME to deliver what is promised. This introduces an element of trust, which is judged decisive to establishing and maintaining business relationships in tourism; and especially in developing countries where risk is higher.\footnote{36}{Khrishnapillai \textit{et al}., (2011) and Jensen (2009)}

**Tour operators’ and ground handlers’ standards and requirements**

Meeting standards is unanimously considered as key to market access.\footnote{37}{Jensen (2009)} Generally, literature points to quality, H&S, pricing, reliability and technology as recurrent and leading issues; the very few papers which have focussed on excursion provision have been used here to review standards in a contextualised and applied manner but literature is so rare that additional research in this field is severely needed.

**Quality**

Quality management “has emerged as a fundamental component of an organisation’s overall strategic efforts” to meet the needs of an increasingly discerning clientele expecting continuous improvements in service levels and product developments.\footnote{38}{see for example Nguni (2012), Goodwin (2011), Coelho & Ozorio (2010), Ashleigh (2005), Meyer \textit{et al}. (2004b) and Kirsten & Rogerson (2002)} Whilst it is difficult to determine the notion of quality in an objective manner, we can say that in tourism, customer satisfaction is achieved through experiencing a product’s tangible assets (what is delivered) and its associated intangible services (how it is delivered).\footnote{39}{Ibid:65, Swarbrooke & Horner (2011) and Cooper \textit{et al}. (2008)}

Design-wise, most excursions will be formatted as day-trips, half-day trips or will take a few hours, with the purpose to be both recreational (to offer respite) and cultural (in relation to destination choice).\footnote{40}{Stetic \textit{et al}. (2011)} Today, TOs expect excursions to connect tourists with local populations via unique and authentic learning or cultural participative experiences.\footnote{41}{Van der Duim & Caalders (2008), Coelho & Ozorio (2010), Ashleigh \textit{et al}. (2006) and Meyer \textit{et al}. (2004c)}
Ashley et al. advise that the following be also considered: a visit to a known attraction (around which the excursion can be designed), linkages with local shops or craft producers that are hassle-free for tourists, and “high quality guiding with local knowledge and good [English] conversational language skills” (2006:3). In another paper, Ashley adds overnight stays, which can be highly pro-poor and engaging of the whole community albeit usually aimed at a more adventurous niche market (2006:34). Importantly, excursions must include enough activities to justify the price, duration and distance travelled by tourists.

In a rare paper dedicated to day-trip operations, Stetic et al. explain that in planning for excursions, TOs have two main operational problems: first, “the harmonisation of the size of the excursion groups with the available capacities of the vehicle or catering capacity”, which means that ME excursion providers should be able to accommodate large groups; second, “the selection of quality performers and realisers of the trip”, which stresses the importance of professionalism and customer service (2011:119).

Indeed, tourism is highly reliant on the interaction between customers and front-line service providers to drive up satisfaction levels. Thus, the enjoyment of the excursion’s programme is reliant upon the quality of the customer service provided, and in tourism, specifically upon the ability to create emotional encounters. Taking a RT perspective, many remark that this can only happen if the communities, in which small businesses operate, willingly engage with travellers. Consequently, MEs must gain the support and trust of their communities if they are to deliver the type of experiences sought by tourists.

To ensure standards are met, TOs run quality assurance audits of their partners involved in the coproduction of the packages they retail: the aim is to assess levels of professionalism through pre-inspections. This process can be time-consuming when new excursions must be approved. Post contract, tour operators seem to be more lenient, as their favourite method of quality control is through direct customer service feedback (complaints and compliments).

**Health and Safety (H&S)**

Oddly, H&S in tour operation is not discussed in several key text books. However, it is common knowledge that TOs are constrained by international and national legislation,
and in the case of the UK, the EU Package Travel Directive 1990\textsuperscript{52}, which commands they show duty of care to their customers and makes them liable for service failure.

Looking at market access, Jensen (2009:155) advances that “tour operators’ perception of uncertainty and risk […] is assumed to be one explanation for the reluctance to engage in deep involvement with local service suppliers”. In fact, it is found that although TOs are looking for real product distinguishability, in reality, very few are willing to promote innovative excursions\textsuperscript{53}. This indicates that excursion entrepreneurs must strike a balance between both product differentiation and compliance.

This is a challenge usually undertaken by GHs, under pressure from TOs to ensure trips run safely. Indeed, TOs are the link most trusted by tourists to their destinations\textsuperscript{54}. Consequently, they will expect local producers to meet stringent H&S standards\textsuperscript{55} so their company image, “one of their most critical values that can be put at risk”, is protected\textsuperscript{56}.

Whilst H&S is of special importance to adventure TOs due to the risky nature of the activities they engage in\textsuperscript{57}, literature suggests that it is mass-market TOs that are most reluctant to contract local excursion MEs as they often do not meet their standards\textsuperscript{58}. Clearly, mass-market tourists are more risk averse but no research so far has looked into risk-perception and excursion choice. Instead, literature widely focuses on risk perception linked to destination\textsuperscript{59}, and is age-specific with only one\textsuperscript{60} large-scale UK survey indicating that mass-market and explorer tourists similarly expect comfortable facilities. Today, the theory that tourists can be divided as either seeking novelty or familiarity\textsuperscript{61} seems too simplistic when authenticity is increasingly becoming a decisive pull factor.

The two most important issues facing excursion providers are simply listed as food quality and hygiene\textsuperscript{62}; this is because catering will be offered outside the hotel or resort’s control, and will require both H&S audits of lunch stops\textsuperscript{63}, and public liability insurance\textsuperscript{64}. Additional elements could include security, especially in the case of evening excursions, and the control of tourist behaviour\textsuperscript{65}, already addressed by many TOs (e.g. codes of conduct, welcome meetings).

\textsuperscript{52} Europa, undated
\textsuperscript{53} Mitchell & Faal (2008) and Kirsten & Rogerson (2002)
\textsuperscript{54} Goodwin (2011)
\textsuperscript{57} Swarbrooke \textit{et al.} (2003)
\textsuperscript{58} Van Der Duim \& Caalders (2011) and Jensen (2009)
\textsuperscript{59} Wichasin (2011)
\textsuperscript{60} Williams \& Balaz’s (2012)
\textsuperscript{61} Pearce (1982) and Lepp \& Gibson (2003) cited in ibid
\textsuperscript{62} Van Der Duim \& Caalders (2008) and Bah \& Goodwin (2003)
\textsuperscript{63} PPT (2006)
\textsuperscript{64} Ashleigh \textit{et al.} (2006) and Bah \& Goodwin (2003)
\textsuperscript{65} Ashleigh \textit{et al.} (2006)
Pricing

In the UK, mass-market TOs’ level of net profit is incredibly low\(^\text{66}\) as they “trade huge volume on small margins”\(^\text{67}\). Citing figures by the Civil Aviation Authority, the FTO (2006) states that “the average tour operator’s return on turnover in recent years remains around just two to three per cent”, whilst TUI indicates profit margins between 3 to 5 per cent\(^\text{68}\). This explains why costs are driven down to remain competitive\(^\text{69}\). Based on writings about the accommodation sector, it is generally argued that in their drive to lower prices, UK tour operators coerce local suppliers in accepting rates that do not reflect the standard of service they offer, putting MEs “under immense financial pressure”\(^\text{70}\).

Because they cater for less customers, adventure and activity TOs generally benefit from stronger margins\(^\text{71}\) of up to 10\(^\%\)\(^\text{72}\), which have remained solid despite the recession\(^\text{73}\). This will explain why TUI now owns 17 adventure brands\(^\text{74}\), presumably indicating that maintaining margin levels will become a priority of these smaller operators too. In fact, a rare and earlier study into UK small-scale TOs clarifies that their pricing strategy is identical to that of larger companies, albeit scaled down, and that much attention is paid to positioning against known competitors\(^\text{75}\). Surprisingly, medium-sized TOs seem to exert much control over price\(^\text{76}\) suggesting once more, that MEs will have to investigate rather than assume which operators might offer them the best terms.

Amid all the literature focussed on buyer-supplier relationship, only one study provides commission figures along the distribution chain, namely “20 to 25 per cent commission to the international tour operator, with a lesser share (20 per cent) going to the local supplier, which allows the ground handler to absorb the remaining 55 to 60 per cent of the excursion cost for organising, insurance and transport”\(^\text{77}\) – this model shows that, instead of TOs, GHs are most heavily remunerated for managing the excursion’s components although it is unclear whether this structure applies as a general rule elsewhere. Presumably, excursion entrepreneurs will need to agree rates for services included in their package (e.g. activities, food, admission fees) in their destination\(^\text{78}\): no relevant literature could be found on this subject.

\(^{66}\) Buhalis & Laws (2001)
\(^{67}\) Mitchell & Faal (2008:17)
\(^{68}\) Hawkes (2011) and Mitchell & Faal (2008)
\(^{70}\) this is evidenced empirically by Bastakis \textit{et al.} (2004:159)
\(^{71}\) Mitchell & Faal (2008) and Patterson (2007)
\(^{72}\) Hawkes (2011)
\(^{73}\) ATTA \textit{et al.} (2012) and ATTA (2010)
\(^{74}\) ATTA \textit{et al.} (2012)
\(^{75}\) Davies & Donward (2006)
\(^{77}\) See Mitchell & Faal in the Gambia (2007:21)
\(^{78}\) Stetic \textit{et al.} (2011) and Ashleigh \textit{et al.} (2006)
Reliability

Issues of reliability are mostly referred to in terms of consistency\(^{79}\), timing/regularity of delivery\(^{80}\), and matching required quantities\(^{81}\).

Two studies of customer satisfaction in hotels\(^{82}\) find that customer loyalty depends upon the ability to show consistency in service delivery, not upon service quality alone. However, “perform[ing] the service right the first time in order to achieve a good reputation” is also important\(^{83}\), especially as this reputation is one of TOs’ key criteria in choosing a local partner\(^{84}\).

Another significant factor affecting consistency regards seasonality and potential falls in demands\(^{85}\), especially as excursions are not season-bound\(^{86}\) and poorer sales can result in failure to deliver services all year-round. Although TOs tend to discount packages to attract more tourists in low season\(^{87}\), this implies that excursions would be sold at a lower price, significantly affecting financial viability. In LEDCs, this problem is further amplified by MEs’ poor access to credit\(^{88}\), and lack of awareness of other funding options\(^{89}\).

As for timing and quantities, excursions will need to be flexible enough to start at times and days convenient to TOs and GHs\(^{90}\), and to cater for the varied group sizes they will specify\(^{91}\). This reinforces the importance of the transport component in planning for excursions.

Technology

Connecting suppliers to sellers, information technology is commonly recognised as a binding condition to market access and growth for SMEs\(^{92}\). It is identified by Rogerson (2005) as a key theme in current tourism literature, constraining MEs in developing countries in two ways. First, because access to computers, the internet or other forms of telecommunication is very restricted; second, because few of these businesses seem to

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79 Cooper et al. (2008), Bah & Goodwin (2003), Kirsten & Rogerson (2002) and Meyer et al. (2004b)
80 Nguni (2012), Silveira Martins et al. (2008), Herrmann (2009) and Rogerson (1998)
82 see Mohd Suki (2012) and Kandampully et al. (2011)
83 Cooper et al. (2008:528)
84 Jensen (2009)
85 Holloway et al. (2009) and Cooper et al. (2008)
86 Stetic et al. (2011)
87 see \(^{91}\)
89 Meyer et al. (2004b)
90 Coelho & Ozorio (2010)
91 Van Der Duim & Caalders (2008)
realise the potential that technology, especially the world-wide web offers in terms of business development.

Technological systems and expertise appear to be one of the main conditions applied by UK TOs in selecting a local partner. However, even in the case of a large operator such as TUI, there is evidence that being contactable in some way is what matters most; this might only involve media as rudimentary as a phone although it is advanced that systems that manage advance bookings, deposits and cancellations must be also in place.

MEs seem to be faced with two main questions: First, “WHO makes the decision to buy excursions?” - this should help them identify the quickest and most appropriate route to market; second, “HOW is this decision made?” - this should help establish a list of criteria used by TOs in assessing whether they and their excursion, are market-ready. However, one major fact remains clear: as argued by Bastakis et al., MEs are likely to be put under pressure to deliver “maximum service and quality standards with the minimum contract price” (2004:162).

Research methodology

Approach

The vast majority of studies on market access use a qualitative research methodology based on interviews and discussions, often with small enterprises, and supported by questionnaires targeted at a number of purposively selected participants, through stratified sampling. Often, this approach is supplemented by secondary data from previous studies and documented sources. This work adopts a similar approach. This situates this research in an inductive context, focused on identifying themes and theories and questioning processes to explain actions. It could be defined as “exploratory” in principle as it focuses on a question rarely researched, but instead of aiming to build a theory per se in the long term, it explores how and why relationships are established. The research’s main limitation lies in that it does not assess if the manual successfully increases market access amongst this project’s beneficiaries, namely MEs. Instead, it was only possible to ask all interviewees to provide feedback prior to submission, in order to at least gather enough feedback to edit the manual, and correct mistakes. This was also useful in assessing the quality and potential usability of the manual.

93 Nguni (2012) and Rogerson (2007)
94 Chand & Katou (2012)
95 Van Der Duim & Caalders (2008)
97 O’Leary (2012) and Barbour (2008)
98 Stebbins (2001)
Methods and sampling

Direct data collection through questionnaires and then interviews were central to the research. First, participants were sent a short survey. Primarily, this survey aimed to provide a company-bespoke framework to make the second stage of the process, the interviews, more relevant and less time consuming to participants, although one hour proved to be too short in some cases. Skype was favoured over face-to-face and phone interviews principally because participants could be reached worldwide (an essential condition to collating evidence across developing countries), and at no cost. This approach to research and data collection sits within a phenomenological paradigm, whereby phenomena are interpreted through the experiences interviewees describe in semi-structured interviews. Specific participants were selected to ensure this process was effective.

Sampling adopted a non-random strategy concentrating on a small manageable selection of participants that are “in the know”. According to Barbour (2008) small samples are hardly scientifically representative, thus research need to reflect diversity to provide evidence for comparison. This was achieved through purposive sampling, by selecting specific criteria judged to impact on respondents’ perceptions and experiences (idem):

- **Tour operators**: continent, activity, holiday type, size, price, years in operation, RT commitment
- **Ground agents**: continent, number of UK TO partners
- **Experts**: experience of working with excursion MEs in developing country, knowledge of legislation, insurance and H&S

In total, ten TOs were interviewed and were selected as prime participants, as the study investigated their requirements. Vis-à-vis GHs, the initial aim was to only interview two per continent, to somewhat verify data. However, as research progressed, it became clear that GHs were even more central to market access than first identified, and although real efforts were made to find more interviewees, these were unsuccessful, which weakens findings. Unpredictably, getting access to GHs abroad was also initially difficult as they were reluctant to contribute because they consider MEs as direct competitors. Interventions from three experts offered an extremely valuable insight into specific problems, which contributed to assessing and contextualising answers from TOs and GHs in the manual. The process of organising interviews was lengthy and time-consuming, requiring pain staking perseverance and approaches from various angles, over a five month period.

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100 Hanna (2012), Cater (2011), Hay-Gibson (2009) and Saumure & Given (undated)
101 Kvale & Brinkmann (2009), cited in Folkestad (2008:9)
102 Novelli & Hellwig (2011) and O’Leary (2010:161)
Surveys and interviews

Since the sample is small, all answers were codified and analysed manually\(^{103}\). The process was two-fold: first, each survey was analysed to prepare for the interview, and through this continuous process, recurrent and important issues became easily identifiable (e.g. H&S, lack of professionalism/administrative skills, poor product design/understanding of tourists’ needs) - these were always explored during each interview to reassert their prominence. Second, interview narratives were transcribed and categorised into themes. Whilst examples were isolated to prepare a list of potential case studies/illustrations for the manual, underlying concepts (e.g. empowerment) and new themes (e.g. responsible v poor pay) were identified\(^{104}\).

Findings and discussion

This section provides a contextual discussion of the recommendations and guidance, contained within the manual. It concentrates on the chapters ‘DESIGN THE EXCURSION’ and ‘ENSURE THE EXCURSION IS SAFE’, identified by TOs and GHs as the most important stages to gaining market access. Only the first page of both chapters, entitled ‘WHAT YOU NEED TO KNOW FIRST’, is discussed as this is where key findings are summarised (subheadings shown in the manual have been kept to help convey the direct style of the manual).

Context – responsible tourism, market access and MEs

The questionnaires showed that in principle, all participants agreed with supporting MEs for two reasons: it made business sense as it "contributes to enhancing the customer experience"\(^{105}\), 94% of participants agreed with this statement. Three GHs saw this as the only reason for linkage to MEs. Secondly, 87.5% of interviewees stated "it is part of the company’s RT ethos"\(^{106}\). Strangely, this did not always mean that promoting market access to MEs was seen to "contribute to poverty alleviation". Indeed, only 62.5% of respondents recognised this as a motivation. This seemed to confirm that MEs are too rarely viewed as vital agents of development\(^{107}\). Encouragingly, only four TOs engaged with MEs because it "helps meet their CSR requirements"; considering this is never their only reason, it might suggest that actions taken by TOs and GHs are more grounded in a real belief that they make a difference rather than in an attempt to ‘tick the right boxes’. Crucially, the vast majority of interviewees really believed in RT and in linking with MEs, and work towards promoting this agenda in their company, sometimes well beyond their organisation’s policies.

103 Cochrane \textit{et al.} (2012)
104 Rubin & Rubin (2012)
105 Meyer \textit{et al.} (2004b)
106 Goodwin (2011)
107 As found by McPherson (1994) and Herrmann (2009)
Design the excursion

It emerged that design was considered to be the foundation stone to linking with TOs.

What do TOs want?

For more mainstream operators, excursion design was primarily about ‘adding value’ (adventure TOs) or ‘offering good value for money’ (mass-market TOs). Having to maintain profits under shareholder pressure, they saw competing on price as essential, particularly in the given current economic climate, which suggests they are more interested in contracting MEs that can offer ‘something more’ rather than ‘something new’. Indeed, one GH explained that the large UK adventure TO they work with was not interested in contracting new excursion suppliers. Tailor-made and smaller TOs seemed less concerned about this, as they can justify charging a premium for a more personalised and expert service, and thus were more pre-occupied with differentiating on the basis of competence and expertise.

All TOs were searching to contract MEs that could deliver memorable experiences to improve the overall quality of the holiday, enhance their reputation and generate increased sales. However, smaller and adventure TOs were more focussed on generating repeat business, and thus only contracted MEs they can trust will meet their service level standards; they pay much importance to their reputation, and consequently to that of all the MEs they work with. They see quality as a differentiator in a market where clients are increasingly demanding and discerning\(^{108}\). As soon earlier, the problem for MEs lies in that quality, thus customer satisfaction, is a subjective and intangible notion\(^{109}\): varying for each company interviewed and their target market, this makes it an incredibly difficult concept to grasp for MEs.

Only two respondents, both large GHs in Asia, did not seek to work with MEs that operated responsibly as they were primarily focussed on cost. All other GHs wanted and dedicated time to pro-actively source responsible MEs. This is for two reasons: first, they believe it is the right thing to do; second, it is a clear market advantage when wanting to work with UK TOs and travellers.

Why is excursion design important?

TOs exercise different levels of control over the contracting process of MEs. Few contract all their ME suppliers directly. In fact, only one tailor-made TO did, but this was limited to MEs that operate professionally (with office and internet access); their GHs handled ‘one-man band’ businesses as they were judged too complex and time-consuming to work with. The remaining six TOs entirely relied on their GHs to find, negotiate, contract, communicate and work with MEs. As noted earlier, this suggests that

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108 See Buhalis & Laws (2001)
GHs do not merely act as agents of TOs\textsuperscript{110} but as decision-makers, which weakens the widely debated argument that TOs, even those that are mass-market, exercise most of the control in the supply chain.

This is especially evident as GHs unanimously would not consider swapping their existing ME excursion providers for new suppliers that offered the same service on the basis of cost alone. In all cases, as they scrutinise the pricing process, they doubt the same experience could be delivered at less expense. More crucially, all GHs explained that because MEs are run by individuals, with whom they have established long-lasting and strong relationships based on trust, they would be very reluctant to break that trust and to take on a new supplier. This confirms that ‘trust’ is an essential parameter of the TO/GH/ME dynamic\textsuperscript{111}. They considered a different approach would be risky especially in LEDCs, where most MEs need their time and support to meet standards set by UK TOs\textsuperscript{112}. Therefore, GHs would only consider contracting MEs that offer something different, better, somewhere new.

On the one hand, this position is hardly encouraging for newly-established MEs as GHs prefer to deal with well-established businesses anyway. On the other hand, it shows that even though it is argued that TOs are principally driven by profit maximisation\textsuperscript{113}, they clearly cannot always drive costs down: they will be constrained by factors outside of their control (e.g. professionalism of MEs in LEDCs), which can better be managed by GHs as they understand the destination better.

Whilst ‘STAGE 3 – PRICE THE EXCURSION’ in the manual addresses issues related to pricing in more detail, it should be noted that mass-market TOs are not alone in exercising their bargaining power upon small suppliers\textsuperscript{114}. The largest adventure TOs actually revealed that despite their RT credentials, they were most unlikely to compromise on price, and will pressure GHs, and consequently MEs, to supply services that ensure their packages remain affordable. Encouragingly, all participating GHs (singularly dedicated to RT practice) would rather reduce their own margin than put real financial strain on MEs, but this is only if they believe in the entrepreneur and the excursion he/she is proposing. This really goes to show that market access is crucially dependent upon the relationships established between intermediaries and suppliers, a fact unanimously highlighted by all interviewees.

What are my options?

First, TOs and GHs identified a need for unique experiences, although the term was interpreted in different ways and was not relevant to all. In literature, USP is highlighted

\textsuperscript{110} See Buhalis \& Laws (2001)
\textsuperscript{111} See Krishnapillai \textit{et al.} (2011) and Jensen (2009)
\textsuperscript{112} See Jensen (2009)
\textsuperscript{113} See Buhalis \& Laws (2001)
\textsuperscript{114} See Medina-Muñoz \textit{et al.} (2003)
as key to market access but mass-market TOs did not consider this essential as they principally look for excursions that ‘tap’ into their traditional offering centred on fun. Nonetheless, they remarked that it is increasingly difficult to understand the needs of their fragmented clientele, suggesting that product development opportunities are certainly being missed, especially as various studies show that package tourists’ out-of-pocket spending can be as substantial and as pro-poor as that of adventure tourists.

Although one adventure TO remarked that it is rare to find truly unique products, all adventure/activity TOs sought uniqueness through authenticity; they confirmed this was achieved by creating opportunities for cultural immersion. Preoccupied with engineering memorable experiences, these TOs use cultural encounters as platforms to construct emotional connections with destinations and communities. However, as argued by several writers, they stressed that these cannot materialise without ensuring that visited communities welcome holidaymakers, which in turn implies that MEs must be supportive of, and supported by, their communities. However, this was less of a worry to tailor-made TOs. Generally catering to couples chaperoned at each destination by a local guide, they can manage potential conflicts more easily. For them, authenticity between hosts and guests is created on a much more personal level, through the relationship between customers and their friendly and expert guides. This establishes that service quality as well as activities can equally contribute to ‘delivering’ authentic experiences. In fact, all TOs thrived to find ways by which they could make their clients feel unique; in the manual, ‘STAGE 5 – DELIVER EXCELLENT CUSTOMER SERVICE’ explains how this can be achieved.

Noticeably, one GH warned that authenticity is “in the process not in the outcome (e.g. looking for a lion, not finding a lion)”. Indeed, one tailor-made TO stressed that their older (unlike younger) clients could not be fooled into experiences, which they felt were staged (e.g. stays in yurts or long houses). That same GH further commented that not all activity/adventurous tourists sought immersion; most are satisfied with ‘some’ level of interaction as long as they get ‘some’ insight into local culture. As remarked by mass-market TOs, this is even truer of their clientele, which does not necessarily seek interface but is happy to just try ‘something local’ (e.g. food).

A second opportunity for MEs was to offer excursions that enabled TOs to expand to new destinations. However, TOs admitted to be limited in doing so. Their most common problem regarded remoteness of location. However, it was surprising to find that, considering this has been identified in literature as a central constraint to market access for the past two centuries, only 62.5% of respondents identified this as an issue. This small

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117 see Ruggles-Brise (2011)
majority stressed they needed excursions to be easily accessible from tourist honey pots to both generate enough demand\textsuperscript{120}, and facilitate their inclusion into existing itineraries as distances travelled should be minimal\textsuperscript{121}.

Unsurprisingly, this was of particular importance to all mass-market operators, who specialising in catering to large capacities, generally only run excursions for groups of 25 to 50 people. Interestingly, tailor-made TOs, theoretically far more flexible in the number and types of destinations they organise holidays to, indicated that remoteness was a problem because their clients needed to be able to reach destinations easily, quickly and affordably. Even in the case of the only two GHs that showed no concern about remoteness, accessibility was crucial. Both located in Latin America, they saw the appeal to their region lying in its isolated landscapes; yet, they recognise these were easy to get to. On the one hand, it shows that access, rather than remoteness is the problem\textsuperscript{122}, on the other, it indicates, that the term ‘remoteness’ can mean different things to different people (in this case, unique, beautiful and little explored).

This seems to be the view adopted by all adventure/activity TOs for which remoteness is characteristic of their activities, although they cannot realistically travel to truly remote areas as it would be unaffordable to their target market. This further proves that although MEs might prefer to work with smaller or adventure TOs\textsuperscript{123}, they, as well as tailor-made TOs, are not necessarily in a better position than mass-market TOs to support those located in remoter areas as they are equally commercially constrained by cost. Furthermore, speaking to GHs revealed that in destinations featuring few packaged tours, large adventure TOs were reluctant to develop new itineraries which they saw would conflict with their existing offer, and might impact on being able to run these tours at full capacity. More a case of substitability than one of oversupply\textsuperscript{124}, this shows how difficult it is to support MEs in less visited countries, as a new tour in one region might threaten the livelihood of MEs in another.

In fact, one tailor-made TO remarked that although tourists want to enjoy ‘off-the-beaten-track’ destinations, there is less demand for places tourists have not heard of. Therefore the argument in favour of linkages with MEs in rural areas to help alleviating poverty seems unrealistic\textsuperscript{125}, that is unless these are located near popular cultural and natural attractions\textsuperscript{126}. However, even when they are, it might not be possible for locally-owned MEs to gain market access. As two GHs based in East-Africa explained, because rural territories in the regions have been turned into national parks, where foreign-owned

\textsuperscript{120}see Hummer & van der Duim (2012), Goodwin (2011), Zapata et al. (2011)
\textsuperscript{121}see Coelho & Ozorio (2010)
\textsuperscript{122}see Coetzer (2001)
\textsuperscript{123}see Tapper & Font (2004)
\textsuperscript{124}as argued by Lundberg & Fredman (2012) and Medina-Muñoz et al. (2003)
\textsuperscript{125}as per Coetzer (2001)
\textsuperscript{126}as per Coelho & Ozorio (2010)
lodges monopolise excursion and activity supply, it is almost impossible for MEs to develop excursions.

A third option open to MEs centred on offering improved products. This can be achieved by enhancing the quality of the experience or adding experiences to existing excursions. As mentioned earlier when discussing ‘adding value’, the first option was predominantly the concern of mainstream adventure tour operators who are looking for excursions where ‘things are done differently’. For example, they spoke of reaching a destination by a different transport mode (e.g. bicycle, animal) or arriving at a destination at a different time to avoid crowds. In terms of design, this meant that MEs could still schedule visits to very touristic sites, thus greatly expending the appeal of their excursions to a wider audience. When asked to confirm whether excursions needed to be designed around a popular attraction, TOs agreed this was a good idea, and although some GHs were looking for totally new experiences, they recognised their best selling excursions were those that included visits to ‘must-see’ sites. However, to be able to deliver on authenticity, all suggested the best option was to include ‘something old and something new’.

Food experiences, such as market tours or cooking lessons were seen as most sought by tourists across all TO types. For example, one TO, which caters to a wide range of tourist types, introduced seven new culinary tours through September and October 2012. These types of tours are very pro-poor as they benefit the wider community. Additionally they are easy to set up, especially in cities. This makes them affordable investments for MEs, a very important factor since they receive very limited financial support. A mix of leisure and culture was a leading trend for all but mass-market tourists. For example, whilst the latter are still very reluctant to engage in the mildest of physical activities, adventure/activity travellers increasingly request cycling tours, which are even more popular when combined with a meal in a local restaurant.

Conversely, adding new cultural experiences can be challenging. Indeed, GHs working in East Africa and Latin America remarked that in natural destinations the potential for inclusion of cultural experiences is very limited since not all destinations are culturally appealing to tourists. Encouragingly, those located in Africa observed that whilst most of their clients indeed only show interest in wildlife and landscape viewing, their repeat customers are increasingly seeking cultural encounters, and this should offer some opportunities to MEs.

What matters most?

All TOs and GHs stressed that in fact, gaining market access is about MEs matching their excursion design to the ethos, activities and clients of the company they want to

127 see Ashleigh et al. (2006)
128 Ashleigh et al. (2006) and Harrison & Shipani (2007)
129 Nitcher & Goldmark (2009) and Cole (2007)
work with. In order to achieve this, TOs expect MEs to engage in basic market research (e.g. speak to holidaymakers, visit tourist information offices, research their tours and company) to ensure they understand how to design excursions that fit within their existing portfolio. This was emphasised as an essential step to access market\textsuperscript{130}. Furthermore, TOs highlighted that understanding customers’ behaviour also contributes to helping them in their efforts to differentiate from competitors\textsuperscript{131}. Clearly, this requires MEs to be highly entrepreneurial, which most participants recognised rarely happen in LEDCs, as also reflected unanimously in literature\textsuperscript{132}.

However, one GH in Africa offered a less categorical explanation, stating that: “Africans are very entrepreneurial and can certainly make business plans, but that’s when they do business with their black counterparts; the problem is they don’t understand how to cater to white-western tourists”. All TOs and GHs do indeed refer to the cultural void between MEs and western holidaymakers\textsuperscript{133}. Ad in literature, many related this capability gap to poor levels of education, and explained that failure to exhibit western-style business skills prevented engagement with UK TOs but also GHs, as most GHs dealing with UK TOs are foreign-owned, or employ foreign staff.

In the manual, “STAGE 4 – START WORKING WITH TOUR OPERATORS”, addresses the issue of business skill shortage in more detail but in general terms, MEs’ lack of awareness and understanding of UK TOs’ requirements was repeatedly highlighted as a prime barrier to market access. Certainly, it was raised as an important issue when discussing H&S, to which we now turn.

**Ensure the excursion is safe**

Issues relating to H&S came out as the second most important barriers to market access. They were judged by all participants to be equally as important as design but were ranked second because they cannot be addressed unless excursion content is known.

*Why is H&S so important?*

All TOs stress they have no other choice but to comply to EU legislation. However, all GHs commented that no other TOs in Europe are as demanding or ‘obsessed’ with H&S as those from the UK. This position represents such an important barrier to MEs gaining market access that most GHs suggested they would be better off catering to tourists from other countries (albeit the US).

Apart from the argument that TOs are tourists’ most trusted link to the destination\textsuperscript{134},

\textsuperscript{130} as noted by Klein (2002) and Jobber (2007)
\textsuperscript{131} see Kotler (2005) cited in Cant (2012:1109)
\textsuperscript{133} a point also discussed by Forstner (2004)
\textsuperscript{134} see Goodwin (2011)
a view probably shared across Europe too, no explanation could be found in literature to explain this ‘obsession’ with H&S. Clarification came from the expert interviewee in this matter when he stated: “it has less to do with EU Holiday legislation than it has with British criminal law”\(^\text{135}\). He explained that in 1993 a precedent was set with the case of the ‘Lyme Bay’ disaster involving school children on an activity holiday. This resulted in a prison sentence. Although no other convictions have been handed out since, TOs are afraid that other current cases will have similar repercussions. Thus they perceive the risk of damaging their reputation\(^\text{136}\) as significant enough to justify their high requirements. The expert specified that “English Courts have taken a particular approach, atypical of much of Europe on this matter, which is also strongly exacerbated by the country’s litigation culture”.

Whilst it is understandable that TOs worry about the damage that accidents such as this year’s hot air balloon crash in Egypt can do to their brand, it is a fact that most MEs in LEDCs are unlikely to offer activities presenting the same level of risks (one GH pertinently observed that they rarely can afford the equipment). Therefore, they should be treated with more flexibility. In fact, of all the cases mentioned by the expert (merely a handful), only one concerned an excursion, a non-fatal accident on a ski-doo trip in Italy (2007). All others are set in hotels. Furthermore, of all the participants able to comment on this subject (44% of the cohort), all agreed in highlighting that indeed, most holiday complaints regard accommodation (in spite of stringent H&S procedures), not excursions; and when they do, complaints do not relate to H&S but to organisational details.

**What matters most?**

In absence of specific EU rules, all interviewed TOs followed guidelines issued by the FTO to ensure they understood how to show duty of care. As these guidelines are designed to indiscriminately apply across developed and less developed countries, this attitude seems rather impractical, if not idealistic. Indeed, although UK TOs do their best to impose EU requirements in LEDCs (e.g. seat belts or life jackets), in reality they have little space to manoeuvre since they are constrained by local legislation and the lack of available infrastructures in destination. Actually, GHs explained that TOs cannot impose standards not legally required in destinations, regardless of EU or international legislation. They further stated that failing to compromise makes little business sense, especially if TOs are to meet, as discussed in Stage 1, the needs of a clientele increasingly seeking new types of experiences\(^\text{137}\).

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135 as per the Common Law Offence of Corporate Manslaughter and the statutory offence under the Corporate Manslaughter and Corporate Homicide Act 2007


137 Goodwin (2011)
Apart from one mass-market TO, all TOs seemed to accept this, but they all struggled to reconcile product innovation with H&S compliance\textsuperscript{138}, although to varying degrees. The most flexible communicate with their clients prior to departure to warn them of potential risks, and they can then decide whether or not to take part in the excursion. In fact, GHs, who also sell excursions directly to tourists, argue that as long as holidaymakers are properly informed, they are responsible enough to make their own decisions. Therefore, TOs should make more efforts to inform rather than shield tourists from potential risks. Indeed, as it is unrealistic to expect MEs in LEDCs to perform at EU standards, the challenge lies in both managing tourists’ expectations, and in matching the right types of tourist to the right type of excursion. As explained by one of the most progressive TOs interviewed, “a tourist staying in a luxurious five star hotel is less likely to handle being confronted by real poverty”. Therefore, MEs should not only understand the needs of visiting tourists, but also take in consideration the environment in which they stay (at home and at the destination) so they fully comprehend their (and TOs’) expectations regarding H&S.

What do TOs want?

The problem is that 93\% of all respondents complain that MEs’ lack H&S awareness, and their inability to identify and understand how to minimise risks act as a prime barrier to market access.

On the one hand, this is an LEDC-specific issue: first, GHs explained that as a concept, H&S is hardly embedded in local culture, especially in rural areas where levels of education and exposure to tourists is lower then in cities; second, in many countries, legislation does not exist or does not meet UK TOs’ requirements (e.g. horse riding helmets in Argentina). On the other hand, this is a UK-specific problem, as there are clear differences in the way UK TOs interpret FTO guidelines, and this directly impacts on MEs’ ability to understand what is, or is not, a risk, for each type of TO and consumer. Thus identifying and understanding how to minimise risks becomes a very complex task, especially when similar TOs have different standards.

To some extent, differences across similar TOs appeared to emanate from differences in the way certain individuals’ personally interpreted guidelines, with some being far more progressive than others. This additional human dimension, unbeknown to MEs, can play in favour or against them, which further confirms that behaviour plays a significant part in accessing markets\textsuperscript{139}. Maybe there is a case for attempting to open make mass-market tourists to more unconventional set-ups, which usually fall within the realm of adventure/activity TOs, and to see how they react?

Help in understanding TOs’ H&S requirements is available from all GHs, albeit rarely from TOs themselves, but this help is only given after MEs have demonstrated they can

\textsuperscript{138} as explained by Mitchell & Faal (2008) and Kirsten & Rogerson (2002)

\textsuperscript{139} see findings by Chamberlin & Jayne (2012)
show some evidence of risk-awareness in the first place. This situation is admittedly creating a vicious circle, although it is understandable that GHs and TOs cannot afford the time to talk to every entrepreneur thinking of selling an excursion; this explains why they focus their efforts on those that have proved they understand the basics of good design and H&S. Helpfully, this study’s expert in training tourism MEs to access markets, explained that some organisations offer support to MEs in understanding H&S matters (albeit not always in a very effective manner). In fact, one GH only did business with MEs that attended H&S training run by such an organisation in the country where it operates (a local civil society organisation).

How does it work?

Contrary to the literature, most but not all TOs, ensured that MEs comply with their H&S standards by running H&S checks. These took place when GHs and MEs had reached the stage at which they organise to run a trial excursion to review and evaluate all risks. These checks continue until GHs and TOs are confident risks have been minimised and the excursion is led in a professional and safe manner, and thereafter to maintain overall service quality.

Whilst most TOs have clear procedures by which they run these checks (see below), and expect MEs to have these too (100% of TO respondents complained that MEs cannot provide evidence of a H&S audit system), it was interesting to note some disparity between what TOs and GHs claim actually happens in destination at the early stage of the market access process. It was evident that if GHs wanted to start collaboration with ME excursions suppliers, they were usually far less concerned about paperwork than the TOs they worked with. In some instances, and unbeknown to TOs, GHs did not even run preliminary H&S checks, and relied on their trusted and existing partners’ feedback (e.g. local guides, restaurants) as well as internet research to assess whether or not they should work with a specific excursion ME. If they then were happy with their findings they would recommend the ME, although they would slowly progress with bookings, which explains why gaining full market access can be a long process.

However, this was unlikely to happen when dealing with mass-market TOs, who specified that carrying large quantities of very risk-averse clients, they cannot afford to take risks themselves and must ensure that a thorough paper trail of evidence is available in case of complaints and legal action against them.

Tailor-made TOs stated they had tight H&S procedures. Since they handle clients that have high standards, they argued that H&S failure would more significantly impact on their reputation and USP. However, they subcontract H&S audits to a third party, which actually tends to focus on assessing medium to large companies only, and rely on sending

140 see Cooper et al. (2008) and Buhalis & Laws (2001)
141 as highlighted by Ashleigh et al. (2006)
in-house self-assessment forms to MEs, which cannot possibly be as effective as visits. Where they showed their support to MEs, was in working together with their GHs to provide constructive feedback to help MEs meet requirements in a manner implementable in destination.

Activity/adventure TOs deal with more flexible clients but their approach to H&S is actually defined by the activities they offer and their ownership status. On the one hand, the higher the risks (e.g. mountaineering vs. walking), the more thorough checks will be\(^{142}\). However this does not appear to be an issue as local MEs dealing in high risk activities are generally very risk-aware. On the other hand and according to some GHs, unlike many independent TOs, those belonging to large groups put great pressure on them to complete large quantities of H&S forms, and thus, in a similar way to mass-market TOs, made it hard for MEs to access market. Contrastingly, one GH located in Asia commented that his smallest TOs do not request any evidence of H&S compliance because “they don’t even care”, whilst one start-up and small UK TO maintained that since they trust their GHs to take on all operational responsibilities at destination, they were happy to proceed without this evidence and to rely on customer complaints to deal with H&S issues when they arose. These two approaches might be considered irresponsible but they are definitely more conducive to collaboration with MEs.

Once MEs have listed and found ways to minimise the major risks of their excursion by considering the type of TO and clients their excursion caters to, they should identify their costs to work out a retail price. In the manual, the section ‘PRICE THE EXCURSION’ explains how MEs should prepare for this. This chapter provides illustrations showing margin levels along the distribution chains, which were not found in literature. Importantly, it also provides opportunities for MEs to understand the costing process so they can earn a decent income.

When MEs have written evidence to show they can cost transparently, they can ‘START WORKING WITH TOUR OPERATORS’ (the fourth chapter in the manual). At this stage, they should demonstrate they can apply the knowledge they have gained so far. MEs are expected to behave professionally and act as real entrepreneurs in order to convince GHs and TOs they are worth doing business with.

After contact has been initiated between both parties, the GH will organise for the excursion to be tested. At this stage, risks will be further assessed to find practical ways in which they can be controlled but GHs will also focus on the extent to which MEs can ‘DELIVER EXCELLENT CUSTOMER SERVICE’ during the tour (the final chapter in the manual). Thereafter, business service standards are expected to be met when taking bookings, again to demonstrate to GHs and TOs that MEs can be fully trusted to operate within their requirements. This process can take up to one year, and this indicates that MEs

\(^{142}\) as noted by Swarbrooke et al. (2003)
need to remain financially solvent for this period, which will be unlikely unless they have secured sufficient income from other streams (e.g. independent travellers). Consequently, it seems that more established, rather than newly set-up MEs are in a better position to gain market access.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion found in the manual summarises the findings of this report in a very succinct and accessible manner, by simply focussing on key words that MEs should remember if they want to design excursions they can sell (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Conclusion**

![Diagram](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

_Souce: Favre (2013:71)_

Crucially, the word ‘trust’ stood above all others. Throughout the interviews, it became clear that for business collaboration to be initiated and sustained, TOs needed to trust ground handlers and GHs needed to be able to trust MEs, but ultimately, this trust also extended to customers who were relied on to provide feedback, which also contributed to assessing the quality of the excursion and the experience provided. In essence, this dynamic forms a loop, also influenced by the contribution of other informants working for and with, TOs or GHs. As intermediaries, GHs occupy the most important role in the loop. Generally it is through them that communication between MEs and TOs is channelled and this study found that they are in effect the real decision-makers in facilitating access to market for MEs. Their ‘insider knowledge’ of the destination, its culture and limitations puts them in an ideal position to find ways by which compromise can be reached between TOs and MEs, to reconcile the ‘ideally expected’ with the ‘practically achievable’. However, this presupposes they are committed to MEs, which is not the norm according to participating GHs.

It is difficult to ascertain categorically which type of TO is both easiest (in terms of market access) and best (in terms of poverty alleviation) for MEs to work with. Whilst some TOs, built on a social enterprise model, are very attractive because they invest much
effort in helping their local suppliers gain access to market, they cater for a niche, operate in very few destinations, are rare, and are very selective in choosing their partners. In fact, they are probably the most difficult TO type to access. Tailor-made TOs are clearly focused on working with MEs, as these highly contribute to strengthening their USP against other activity providers. However, they demand that MEs demonstrate high levels of customer service standards, which rarely happens with newly established MEs, as they lack awareness of UK visitor needs. Additionally, tailor-made TOs cater to small parties, which despite being charged more, are unlikely to bring in large amounts of income, especially if the ME is located in less touristic areas. Working with adventure TOs seems therefore more attractive because they cater to larger numbers of customers but as they become increasingly vertically integrated into larger and more profit-driven groups, their H&S requirements will become as stringent as that of mass-market TOs, unless they are left with the freedom to continue operating within a more flexible company culture.

Indeed, company culture emerged as a key catalyst to facilitating market access. It was always those companies that started as small companies themselves that were more eager to work with MEs. However, it was also clear that the interviewee’s personal commitment to integrating MEs to their business or the business they worked for (for both GHs and TOs alike) also impacted immensely on the likelihood of this happening.

Another important and principal finding was that MEs need to understand their market to gain market access; and this understanding needs to be acquired independently. Crucially, MEs cannot expect GHs or TOs to spare time and money to teach them about travellers’ needs, motivations, H&S requirements, their own activities and the type of experiences they are looking to include in their product portfolio. MEs must be entrepreneurial and must posses the business skills necessary to working with UK clients and their holiday providers. Hence, the manual is predominantly written to provide MEs with information that should enable them to develop these skills. It is dotted with practical recommendations that identify ways in which they can meet TOs’ requirements, can assess which types of TOs they are best suited to, and can become responsible practitioners.

The issue of responsible practice is particularly relevant to MEs, which must compete to gain the attention of UK TOs that already offer a wide range of holidays at destinations, and already work with other MEs. Indeed, those looking to gain market access must develop a USP that will set them apart. According to GHs interviewed for this study, this USP needs to centre on delivering responsible and authentic experiences, in accessible and strategically located places.

To conclude more generally on issues related to design and H&S, the challenge to gaining the widest access to UK operators’ markets could be summarised in one question: “Can MEs deliver authenticity with great customer service and little risk?” The more they can, the better their chances to use tourism as a real path towards prosperity.
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An Exploration of the Role of Social Entrepreneurship in Tourism Curricula

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This study presents research that seeks to explore and describe the role of social entrepreneurship in tourism curricula. The purpose of the inquiry is to inform the future direction of graduate-level programs whose administrators are interested in reflecting this growing field in their courses. A review of the literature identifies themes, trends, terminology and other aspects of social entrepreneurship. To establish the extent of social entrepreneurship courses currently offered at the graduate level, and to examine the content of these courses, a content analysis is performed that analyzes 13 courses from different universities around the world. None of the courses studied were offered within tourism faculties or departments. Therefore, in order to capture tourism perspectives, the research design includes interviews with graduates of a masters level tourism program that did not include courses on social entrepreneurship. To incorporate views of the social sector, and to add further breadth and depth to the inquiry, an interview with a long-standing industry practitioner is included. Ten distinct categories of social entrepreneurship learning content currently offered at the graduate level are identified. Results also include eight elements of social entrepreneurship content relevant to the tourism sector for potential inclusion in future tourism courses.

This paper presents research intended to inform educators and administrators of the value of including social entrepreneurship as a topic in tourism curricula. Recent and growing interest in social and environmental sustainability, from both the public and businesses, has been such that managers are increasingly integrating social stewardship in their business plans (Mabry, 2011, p. 119). Recent scholarly research shows that many organizations are adopting a strategic approach where sustainability of both the natural and social environment is becoming essential in order to stay competitive (Ceulemans & De Prins, 2010; Mabry, 2011). Additional perspective comes from the Associate Dean of the Sauder School of Business who recently indicated that student expectations of prospective employers are much broader now and students are likely to “be more concerned about the company’s environmental footprint or its social engagement policies than what its dental plan is like” (Bennett, 2012, para. 17). In response to these trends, post-secondary learning institutions may experience, if they are not already, demand from existing and potential students for courses and materials related to social entrepreneurship (SE).

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A succinct definition of social entrepreneurship is offered by Brooks (2009): “Entrepreneurship motivated primarily by social benefit to address social problems or needs that are unmet by government and the private sector in a way that is generally congruent with market forces” (p. 177). Using a flexible research design featuring a variety of research methods, the research inquiry seeks to explore and determine: What elements of the growing scholarly field of social entrepreneurship warrant inclusion in graduate-level tourism programs?

The objectives of the inquiry are as follows: (1) to identify themes, trends and other aspects of SE; (2) to explore and describe the extent and content of SE in graduate-level university programs; (3) to capture and consider tourism and industry-specific perspectives of SE, and; (4) to determine high-level elements of SE learning content for potential inclusion in future tourism courses.

The paper is structured as follows. First, a review of the literature associated with SE occurs in order to identify and engage with previously published research relevant to the topic. Next, the methodology is described outlining the approaches and steps taken during the inquiry. Also explained is the thematic framework analytic method used where management of data was aided by a matrix-based analysis. The inquiry closes with an analysis of the data including a summary of findings and possible implications of aligning SE course content with tourism course outlines as proposed by the research question.

**Literature Review**

The term ‘entrepreneur’ is often associated with someone who starts a business. This term is believed to have originated in French economics in the 17th or 18th centuries (Dees, 1998, p. 1). Translated from French, entrepreneur derives from ‘entreprendre’ and refers to someone who ‘undertakes’ a project or activity of significance. William Drayton, CEO of Ashoka, a global organization known for identifying and investing in social entrepreneurs, is thought to have coined the term ‘social entrepreneur’ several decades ago (Davis, 2002, p. 6).

**Social versus Commercial Entrepreneurship**

For the sake of clarity, the term ‘social entrepreneurship’ (SE) will be used throughout this paper in order to effectively distinguish this form of entrepreneurship from the more traditional form that is hereafter referred to as ‘commercial entrepreneurship’ (CE). Being a much newer concept than CE, a standard definition for SE does not appear in the literature although Brooks (2009) posits that most SE definitions contain one, or all, of the following concepts (p. 4):

- Social entrepreneurship addresses social problems or needs that are unmet by private markets or governments
Social entrepreneurship is motivated primarily by social benefits

Social entrepreneurship generally works with-not-against market forces

Social entrepreneurs combine innovation, entrepreneurship, and social purpose and seek to be financially sustainable by generating revenue from trading

Distinctions between CE and SE should not be thought of as dichotomous but rather the two forms of entrepreneurship merely share different locations on a continuum that ranges from purely economic to purely social (Austin et al., 2006, p. 3). In his article *The Discipline of Innovation*, noted author and academic Peter Drucker (2002) suggests that no matter what the size, age or type of business an entrepreneur engages in, “the heart of that activity is innovation: the effort to create purposeful, focused change in an enterprise’s economic or social potential.” (p. 96). Peredo and McLean (2005) provide further clarity by suggesting that whereas a social entrepreneur is the *individual* behind an entity that has both profit and social goals in mind, social enterprise is the *activity* commonly equated with social entrepreneurship (p. 5).

Worldwide, societies and organizations are seeking innovative approaches to addressing social problems that have not been addressed by governments or the marketplace. In many cases, these challenges have been taken on by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) operating in fields ranging from social services, education, health services and environmental conservation to arts and culture (Wei-Skillern, Austin, Leonard & Stevenson, 2007, p. 1). In his book entitled *Living Economics*, McMurtry (2010) suggests that social enterprises are innovative because they focus on economic, philosophical and social norms versus on single-minded and inward-looking activities such as “for-profit or political power and control” (p. 31). The Schwab Foundation for Social Entrepreneurship suggests “A social entrepreneur is a leader or pragmatic visionary who combines the characteristics represented by Richard Branson and Mother Theresa” (Schwab, n.d., para. 2).

**Social Entrepreneurship Innovators**

Historically, SE innovators can be traced back a very long time. Fontan and Shragge (2000) argue that the social economy “has been with us as long as humans have worked communally and shared in the results of their labour” (p. 3). A common theme among SE innovators is that they create social value, not always directly, but by helping provide tools for people to better themselves. Well-known examples include Benjamin Franklin, Andrew Carnegie and Bill Gates. Not only was Franklin one of America’s founding fathers, he demonstrated SE genius by creating the first fire department. Out of community concern, he invented devices such as the street lamp, flexible catheter and the lightning rod (Brooks, 2009, p. 15).
Businessmen who were very successful on the CE front such as Andrew Carnegie and Bill Gates, later became venture philanthropists with a strong SE bent. Upon retiring as a very wealthy industrialist in 1901, Carnegie donated over 2500 buildings to communities around the world for use as libraries and he also established numerous colleges, schools, nonprofit organizations and endowed trusts bearing his name (Carnegie, n.d.). Bill Gates is one of the world’s richest men and he is also considered to be the most philanthropic. The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation with an endowment in excess of $33 billion, was formed in 2000 in order to specifically have an impact on education and third-world health issues (Brooks, 2009, p. 101). Many other examples exist in the literature that suggest when philanthropists work in partnership with governments, businesses and other non-profits, pressing societal issues can be tackled and the resulting impacts can lead to real, lasting change.

The Creative Process of Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurs use many of the same tools and language of business as their commercial counterparts, however, it is their motivation that sets them apart. Economist Joseph Schumpeter (1934), often referred to as the ‘Godfather’ of entrepreneurship, claimed that for entrepreneurs the “financial result is a secondary consideration, or, at all events, mainly valued as an index of success and as a symptom of victory...” (p. 93). In other words, commercial entrepreneurs tend to be more goal-obsessed than money-obsessed.

Santos (2009) argues that the essence of SE is not about upholding values so much as it is concerned with creating value (p. 6). Santos further contends that the unique role that social entrepreneurs play in the economic system is one where they seek a balance between value appropriation (e.g. extracting profits) and value creation (e.g. innovating, producing). By this he suggests that the creative process of social entrepreneurs includes recognizing that value appropriation practices alone (e.g. industrial activities that contaminate the environment) are often not sustainable whereas combining value appropriation with value creation, and making the necessary trade-offs, is a common SE tactic (p. 8).

Brooks (2009) suggests that the primary difference between those that pursue SE versus CE “…is not the nature of the entrepreneurial process itself but rather the denomination of the rewards sought” (p. 5). In “Social Entrepreneurship: A Modern Approach to Social Venture Creation”, Brooks chronicles the various steps and stages from opportunity recognition to goal attainment that an entrepreneur typically goes through after recognizing a social opportunity (see Figure 1).
Tourism and Social Entrepreneurship

Within the literature on tourism and economic development, two broad themes appear: tourism is a driver of economies, and; there are economic cost-benefits of tourism (Fletcher, 2009; Shaw & Williams, 2002). Linkages to tourism in the literature related to social entrepreneurship, however, and its economic development potential are not abundant. This is not to say that these linkages do not exist or will not emerge; there is perhaps a greater likelihood that the involvement of social entrepreneurs in the tourism industry will occur if they can see social value and purpose in tourism involvement versus the single-minded pursuit of profits or market share. This “double bottom line” thinking (Brooks, 2009, p. 66) where profits and social value are measured can also be approached in a “triple bottom line” manner (Elkington, 1998) if environmental value is included in reporting. There is a growing international trend to not just measure a business by its profits but also by the steps taken to minimize environmental impacts and by the degree it assists the local community and society (Pfister & Tierney, 2009, p. vii). Given this trend, it may be fair to say that many tourism operators are generating social value per se that is not acknowledged by themselves or society.

There appears to be no reason why entrepreneurs who have the “social sector” and/or “social enterprise” in mind cannot enter and be successful in various sectors of the tourism industry. Lionais and Johnstone (2010) propose that the locales in which the social economy is most active are communities that prefer to use their own resources to

Figure 1: Path and stages related to the creative process of social entrepreneurship. Adapted from Brooks (2009, pp. 24-84).
address their own distinct problems (p. 111). For example, the development of tourism in communities that are gateways to protected areas has long been recognized as being beneficial to proximal communities (Denman, 2001; Good, 2000) but such development does not always deliver economic, social, cultural and environmental benefits. A framework for assessing community capacity for tourism development prepared by Bennett, Lemelin, Koster and Budke (2011) proposes to assist communities in benefiting from tourism by appraising their capacity for tourism development. Included among their seven capital assets is a “social” element. The inclusion of social benefits as one of the key capital assets in the framework suggests that the social economy, social enterprises, and therefore social entrepreneurs, can and should have a place in community-based tourism development.

The Academy and Social Entrepreneurship

Austin et al. (2006) propose that SE is still emerging as an area for academic inquiry given that its “theoretical underpinnings have not yet been fully explored and contributions to theory and practice are needed” (p. 1). When describing the modern “entrepreneurial personality”, Morris (1998, p. 77) advises that the average education level of entrepreneurs has increased over the past two decades. To help debunk the myth that “entrepreneurs are born and not made”, Brooks (2009) posits that people can be taught to be more goal-oriented, innovative and independent than they might otherwise be (p. 17). In his list of theories of social entrepreneurship, Brooks lists “preparation” as one of five theories and suggests that “entrepreneurship can be taught and hence it depends on factors such as education and work experience” (p. 9). These trends and theories, combined with the unique nature of the social economy, suggest that social entrepreneurs make good candidates for formal education and training and that their entrepreneurial skill sets do stand to benefit as a result. So, while “nature” may play a role in determining an individual’s tendencies toward entrepreneurship, “nurture” in the way of education and training can also play an important role in the development of social entrepreneurs.

Related to tourism studies, Lordkipanidze, Brezet and Backman (2005) looked at entrepreneurs involved in sustainable tourism and they recommend:

“the integration of entrepreneurial elements at all levels of the education system, developing mentoring programs as well as setting up a business service centre will help to increase the level of entrepreneurial development and help to shape positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship” (p. 798).

In his study on entrepreneurship education, Hisrich (1992) supports the Enterprise Development Centre (EDC) model as the best means to organize the practical aspects of entrepreneurship education. Whereas the EDC model as recommended by Hisrich is a proven model at business schools (e.g. University of Tulsa), few “social” EDCs exist to benefit budding and other social entrepreneurs. Roberts and Woods (2005) argue that in
SE there is no “proven method, code of practice or core business model to follow” whereas CE academics have examples of “best practice” that can be taught in the classroom (p. 46). Hynes (1996) advises that entrepreneurship education needs to avoid the “mechanistic approach” of business teaching where systems and techniques are often the focus and concentrate more on “motivation and personal competency components which are essential for enterprise development” (p. 11).

A pedagogical approach to integrate community-based learning into formal education programs exists (Sather, Carlson & Weitz, 2007; Sousa, 2007) and is termed community service learning (CSL). The CSL approach seeks to introduce students to the work of community-based social enterprises by combining voluntary community service with experiential learning. According to Sather et al. (2007), development of a community-based curriculum that incorporates the CSL approach dramatically increases students’ interest and offers a more consistent approach to addressing community problems (p. 95).

Santos (2009, p. 2) indicates that many social entrepreneurs, despite often starting small, have ended up successfully pursuing ideas having global relevance (e.g. global growth of microfinance industry). Santos suggests that while these successes have begun to spark academic interest, it has only been recently that business schools and academic authors have given the SE phenomenon attention. A challenge for academia will be to help transform what is primarily a practitioner-led pursuit into a rigorous and respected discipline.

Opportunities and Drawbacks

The lack of clarity and consensus around the definition of “social enterprises” may be problematic for policy-makers wishing to encourage them (Phillips & Hebb, 2010, p. 184), but it has not deterred a substantial number of organizations outside of the public and private sectors from undertaking SE. In fact, many organizations currently operating in the social economy strive to undertake “social intrapreneurship” whereby they use guidelines or rules to foster entrepreneurial behaviour internally; thus the prefix “intra” is used to suggest behaviour that occurs within the enterprise (Brooks, 2009, p. 161). The intrapreneurship concept offers opportunities for existing enterprises and ventures to create an intrapreneurial spirit and environment by including social value purpose and social value creation in their existing organization (Hisrich, 1992, p. 11). That many enterprises encourage SE from within appears to acknowledge how important SE is to their growth and development.

Within the literature related to social entrepreneurship, many social enterprise organizations around the world fall into what is sometimes referred to as the “third sector”. These organizations, also referred to as civil society organizations (CSOs), typically include: nonprofits; charities; social enterprises; social movements; and other
community-based organizations (Phillips & Hebb, 2010, p. 181). Historically, to many people the third sector has tended to be associated with a commitment to volunteering (Sousa, 2010, p. 134). Opportunities for social entrepreneurs to combine the social aspects of the volunteerism concept with the entrepreneurial aspects of running a tourism enterprise may be possible via a relatively recent tourism alternative known as “voluntourism” (see www.voluntourism.org). Voluntourism occurs where individuals undertake volunteer work in other regions bringing economic benefits to communities whereby the volunteer assists with social projects and gains and transfers skills in the process (Mdee & Emmott, 2008, p. 193).

Increasingly, social enterprises have emerged where environmental sustainability is part of the mission and environmental service organizations (ESOs) are becoming common (Emmanuel, 2011, p. 4). Examples include energy auditors, slow food movements, and retrofit services. Given the double and triple bottom line philosophies of these enterprises, increasing numbers of sustainability-minded visitors may demonstrate increased demand for their products and services knowing that these enterprises offer a social value proposition as part of their mission.

A drawback to SE is that it does not appear that SE scholars, SE practitioners and others involved in the social economy can agree on the theory, practice and definitions associated with SE. For example, there appears to be debate as to whether “earned income” activities have a place in the realm of SE in conjunction with the provision of social products or services. Peredo and McLean (2005) indicate that some social enterprises are emphatic about being not-for-profits where the focus is strictly on finding ways to create and sustain social value compared to others that believe SE necessarily involves “enterprise” and that the use of earned income strategies is key to operating a “double bottom line” venture (pp. 12-13). Other drawbacks to the universal acceptance of SE and the social economy appear in a study comparing and contrasting SE in the United States (U.S.) and Europe where Kerlin (2006, pp. 259-260) determined that the U.S. enterprises placed emphasis on revenue generation whereas European ones emphasized social benefit. University research in the U.S. related to SE occurs in both business and social science faculties according to Kerlin (2006) but in Europe it is social science specific. Kerlin (2006) also noted that legal framework in the U.S. is lacking compared to Europe where it is underdeveloped but improving.

Until there is greater clarity and consistency around some of these SE issues, governments, legislators, funders and others may point to the fragmented perspectives of the various actors as reasons not to support SE initiatives beyond what is currently the case. Rather than making the issue of the social economy clearer, confusion occurs around what the social economy actually is (McMurtry, 2010, p. 24).
Methodology

The general approach to the research was to conduct small-scale qualitative research that offered the flexibility to allow the design and focus to change as the research proceeded. The aim of the research inquiry was to explore and identify key learning content associated with social entrepreneurship currently offered by post-secondary learning institutions. The ultimate purpose of the inquiry was to inform the future direction of graduate-level programs interested in reflecting this growing trend in their offerings. A social constructivist approach to the various interviews conducted placed focus on how individuals construct and determine meanings by way of interaction and interpretation with their surroundings (Robson, 2011, p. 24). This epistemological stance can also be described as interpretivist whereby the researcher and the social world impact on each other (Snape & Spencer, 2003, p. 17).

When undertaking an exploratory study of a phenomenon (e.g. social entrepreneurship), several researchers extol the use of a step-by-step sequential approach (Cresswell, 2003; Olsen, 2004; Robson, 2011). A ‘mixed’ (Ritchie, 2003, p. 37) or ‘multiple method’ (Robson, 2011, p. 385) approach to the research offered the necessary framework to incorporate the variety of research methods undertaken as part of the inquiry. Qualitative data was the primary data type gathered given that the research was exploratory and contextual in that it was concerned with understanding and describing potential linkages between SE and tourism curricula. The analysis of documents (i.e. words) as well as interview responses where human behaviour is examined (i.e. verbal responses) was central to the research. The use of multiple research gathering methods (literature review, content analysis of course outlines, and interviews) would help to seek cross-linkages between data collection methods and serve to minimize bias and maximize data validity (Oppermann, 2000, p. 141). Drawing upon the work of qualitative researchers such as Stake (1995), Simons (1980) and Yin (1984), six steps were followed:

Step 1: Determine and Define the Research Question(s)

On the subject of qualitative research methods, Veal (2007) advises that the focus of a research project may be expressed as a hypothesis, a problem, or a question (p. 64). A question-based approach was taken and the prior development of several provisional research questions assisted in setting boundaries and giving direction by linking to the purpose of the research. Subsequently, a thorough review of the literature helped to refine, target and formulate the single question to which the project would seek answers: What elements of the growing scholarly field of social entrepreneurship warrant inclusion in graduate-level tourism programs?

Step 2: Determine Data Gathering Techniques

One prominent qualitative researcher describes two broad groups of qualitative data: (1) naturally occurring, and; (2) generated (Ritchie, 2003, p. 34-37). Documentary analysis,
involving the study of existing documents, is considered a source of “naturally occurring” data. The primary source of naturally occurring data for this study were determined to be the various social entrepreneurship course outlines (syllabi) gathered via Internet research from learning institutions currently offering SE programs and courses.

As described by Ritchie (2003), ‘generated’ data in the form of participant’s perspectives and behaviours could be gathered as part of field research. Samples of data from two populations of key informants would occur: (1) an SE industry practitioner, and; (2) graduates of a post-secondary tourism program that did not include or focus on SE as part of the curriculum. The industry practitioner was included owing to his highly specialized role in society as an ‘expert’ or ‘specialist’ (Ritchie, 2003, p. 33). The tourism graduate group was included in order to gauge their thoughts on the future inclusion of SE in graduate programs such as the one they previously completed.

**Step 3: Prepare to Collect the Data**

Following the review of the literature, data gathering of existing SE course outlines occurred next in the sequence in advance of the interviews. This sequenced, mixed method approach to data gathering was intended to serve three purposes: (1) to add breadth and depth to the inquiry by using primary and secondary strategies; (2) to elaborate or expand upon initial findings from the leading strategies during the follow-up strategies, and; (3) to validate the findings using different methods of data collection (i.e. triangulation).

SE course outlines from several learning institutions were gathered via the Internet with a view to capturing a wide variety of examples from around the globe. Participants for interviews were specifically invited because of the high likelihood that they would: (1) respond to the interview request; (2) be interested in an interview, and; (3) be able to provide valuable input by way of their responses. The populations for the surveys and their respective sampling frames are illustrated in Table 1:

**Table 1. Populations and Associated Sampling Frames for SE Research Inquiry**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Method</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sampling Frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content analysis of existing SE curricula</td>
<td>All learning institutions offering SE courses at the graduate level</td>
<td>Thirteen course outlines from an assortment of institutions around the world whose syllabi were available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual (In-depth) Interview</td>
<td>SE industry practitioners</td>
<td>Interview with SE industry practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus Group Interview</td>
<td>Masters level graduates of tourism program that did not include SE content</td>
<td>Focus group with graduates of a Masters in Tourism Management program</td>
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</table>

*Note: Sampling frame refers to the participants of the group that are representative of a larger group known as the population (Robson, 2011, p. 238).*
A preliminary list of variables to be sought and examined (e.g. course description, course goals, schedule, etc.), was determined based on the specific categories common in graduate-level course outlines. The preparation of a “thematic framework” using numerals to represent the variables to be analyzed facilitated the initial analysis of all of the textual data to be examined (Ritchie, Spencer & O’Connor, 2003, p. 220). This coding scheme would serve to ensure validity and reliability of the data (Hall & Valentin, 2005; Neuendorf, n.d.; Ritchie, Spencer & O’Connor, 2003). By developing a thematic framework for the course outline analysis and another for the interviews, data from both aspects of the research could then have coding applied to the applicable data set to facilitate sorting and synthesizing of the data. A copy of the thematic framework used to code the course outlines is displayed in Figure 2.

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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Course goals</td>
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<td>2.1 Objectives</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.2 Goals for students</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ways to meet course goals</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.1 Assignments</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.2 Required readings</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Rationale</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Learning tools</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2:** Thematic framework for coding course outline data (Barrie, 2012)

On the advice of Robson (2011), the categories examined via interviews and content analysis are ‘exhaustive’ in that they were designed to capture everything relevant to the study (p. 354) and categories are mutually exclusive such that data could only be categorized in one way (p. 356). This form of thematic coding allowed specific category labels to serve as codes to assign meaning to the information compiled (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ritchie, Spencer & O’Connor, 2003; Whitford & Ruhanen, 2010).

**Step 4: Collect Data in the Field**

In order to examine the extent and nature of SE courses offered by various post-secondary institutions around the world, research via the Internet and by direct contact with institutions occurred. Data was systematically coded as collected in order to assist with ongoing analysis and to avoid a massive effort later on (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 66). Where large quantities of information were collected as part of the study, entry and analysis of data prior to the completion of the research was undertaken as “the messages stay hidden and need careful teasing out” (Robson, 2011, p. 408).

Interviews were recorded electronically to facilitate transcription of the recordings afterwards. Additionally, the investigator took written notes so that salient aspects of
answers to interview questions were documented in order to compile a full record of each interview. Open-ended interview questions were posed to the participants from the topic guide and structured around the research question defined in Step 1.

**Step 5: Evaluate and Analyze the Data**

The content analysis (CA) research method was chosen as the most suitable qualitative technique for examining textual data gathered from course outlines and interviews. Several codes and themes were identified in advance of the CA efforts based on themes and patterns that arose from the literature review and from an initial review of various course outlines. Additional codes were determined inductively following the entry of both the textual and the interview data into a database. For example, following the initial analysis of the course outline textual data, two of the four main labels for coding (2 & 3) had sub-labels added to assist in capturing obvious sub-themes of some of the main themes that arose during the analysis of the text (see Figure 2).

During the interviews, the use of a topic guide identified and insured that key issues and subtopics would be explored. The creation of a theoretical framework subsequently occurred where the themes from the main sections and subtopics of the guide would enable grouping of categories thematically.

**Step 6: Prepare the Report**

The intent of the report is to identify and illustrate key SE course content for tourism programs and include recommendations based on analysis and interpretation of the data.

**Data Management using Thematic Framework Approach**

The analysis method framework used was developed by the National Centre for Social Research in the United Kingdom. An interpretive design utilizing a thematic framework approach was taken for both the content analysis of SE curricula and the analysis of interview data in order to display, sort and synthesize the data. Then, a three-stage thematic, cross-sectional analysis based on interpretations of meaning occurred in an iterative, non-linear manner that involved moving back and forth between the raw data and the themes, patterns and explanations that developed (Spencer, Ritchie & O’Connor, 2003, p. 213). These stages, (data management; descriptive accounts; explanatory accounts), allowed the investigator to check assumptions, search for additional clues hidden within the data and to identify underlying factors (see Figure 3).

**Analysis of Data**

The management and synthesis of the raw data collected during the research characterized the first stage of the three-stage analytic process. The second stage of the process involved becoming deeply immersed in the recently synthesized data in order
to determine and prepare “descriptive accounts” where key dimensions of the data are identified. This “unpacking” of the content and nature of the various themes explored was performed to illuminate key content and to make meaningful distinctions (Ritchie et al., 2003, p. 237).

The final stage of the process involved providing ‘explanatory accounts’ where the investigator sought to account for patterns that appeared and provide possible reasons why.

**SE Course Outline Analysis**

The data analysis of SE course outlines involved the development of a catalogue of the learning institutions whose course outlines were available on the Internet (see Table 2). The content analysis of the course outlines was mainly concerned with identifying, capturing and interpreting SE content in the thirteen documents studied. In response to the aim of the research inquiry, the exploration of ‘key learning content’ offered by graduate-level SE courses could be effectively examined using this approach.
Table 2: Catalogue of Learning Institutions Whose SE Course Outlines were Examined

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Institution</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Course Name</th>
<th>Degree Offered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Columbia University</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Launching Social Ventures</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke University</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvard University</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship in the Private and Social Sectors</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York University (Stern)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York University (Wagner)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Global Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxford University</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship, Innovation And New Business Models</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American University</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Communication, Culture and Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madurai Institute of Social Sciences</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Introduction to Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MSW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of California, Davis</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Topics in Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copenhagen Business School</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship: Creating Social Change Using the Power of Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Alberta</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship and Corporate Social Responsibility</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milano School of International Affairs, Management, and Urban Policy</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Introduction to Social Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KAIST</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>Social Entrepreneurship and Non-profit Management</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Major themes in the thematic framework used for the coding of data were drawn from variables listed in an article entitled Preparing an Effective Syllabus: Current Best Practices (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, pp. 160-163). Of the various parts of an effective syllabus recommended by the authors, four of these were determined to be relevant to the research question. An additional category entitled ‘Other’ was included on the advice of Hsieh and Shannon (2005) who recommend having a code to capture data that may represent a new category and cannot be identified with the existing coding or labelling framework (p. 1282). Upon analysis and coding of the course outlines, replacement of the preliminary ‘Other’ label with ‘Learning Tools’ (Figure 2) occurred given the need to capture various means, other than readings and assignments, used by course instructors to help achieve learning outcomes (e.g. mentors, field trips, guest speakers).

An exemplar of the synthesized course outline data related to the Learning Tools theme is shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Exemplar of Course Outline Data Associated with Learning Tools Theme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Learning Tools (used to create or deliver learning content/solutions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harvard University</td>
<td>Case studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York University, Stern</td>
<td>Case studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxford University</td>
<td>Cultural immersion practicum in another country. Case studies. Guest speakers. Develop a Global Social Entrepreneurial Portfolio.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American University</td>
<td>Guest speakers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madurai Institute of Social Sciences</td>
<td>Case studies. Design and implement a podcast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of California, Davis</td>
<td>Case studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copenhagen Business School</td>
<td>Case studies. Guest speakers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KAIST</td>
<td>Case studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Alberta</td>
<td>Case studies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the nine thematic charts used to capture and sort the course outline data in the thematic framework, only exemplars of the Learning Tools referenced in each of the SE courses studied, and the descriptive accounts associated with them, are shown and analyzed in this paper. Only the analysis of the course outline data is covered in detail since analysis of this textual content was the leading strategy in support of both the aim and purpose of the inquiry. All data associated with the various themes and sub-themes, however, was analyzed similarly as part of the inquiry and a figure summarizing all the data collected is included in the Summary of Research Findings.

The ‘descriptive accounts’ associated with the Learning Tools theme that emerged from the sorted course outline data include:

**Learning Tools Descriptive Accounts**

- Class mentors
- Case studies
- Guest speakers
- Roundtable discussions
- Social venture rubric diagnostic tool
- Impact Reporting and Investment Standards (IRIS) standards
Due to the significant number of descriptive accounts associated with the Learning Tools theme, the analysis of the course outline data required crystallization into a high order cluster of categories. This served to reduce the amount of to a manageable level and distills the essence of the evidence for presentation (Ritchie, et al., p. 229).

Learning Tools Explanatory Accounts

The investigator actively constructed the cluster of 10 high level categories based on interpretations of meanings that emerged while moving back and forth between the raw data, the descriptive accounts, and a hand-drawn list of abstract terms that would eventually come to represent the high level cluster in Figure 4. An example of combining similar accounts into a broader, high level category exists in Figure 4 where the accounts ‘Class mentors’, ‘Guest speakers’ and ‘Roundtable discussions’ were linked with the new, high order category entitled ‘Collaborative / experiential learning’. Whereas these descriptive accounts could have potentially been linked to the ‘Variety of assessment techniques’ category, focus was placed on the fact that these particular accounts exhibited distinct similarities in that they each required interaction between students and others in order to facilitate learning. This distinction is important given the significance placed on collaboration and ‘learning by doing’ in the areas of education and teamwork (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker & Many, 2006, pp. 1-8).

Another example of a pattern that led to the aggregation of accounts was the presence of a number of sector-specific tools mentioned in several of the course outlines (e.g. ‘social venture rubric diagnostic tool’, ‘impact reporting and assessment standards’). Upon further analysis of the descriptive accounts that flowed from the thematic framework and charts, these Learning Tools would be aggregated and associated with the new category entitled ‘SE tools, practices and standards’. This category captures what SE educators might consider as means to assess social enterprises versus other descriptive accounts deemed more suitable for assessment of learning.

The ten new categories drawn from the 57 descriptive accounts can be considered representative of key ‘SE learning content currently offered at the graduate level’ that emerged from the course outlines in response to the research question (see Figure 4).
Figure 4: Learning Tools descriptive accounts from sorted course outline data clustered into distinct categories as part of abstraction process
Interview Analysis

As with the course outline data, a theme-by-theme review of the interview data was undertaken so that descriptive accounts of key learning content could be detected, categorized and classified using the thematic framework method (Ritchie et al., 2003, p. 220). A final, higher order cluster was actively constructed by the investigator using the same abstraction process as that applied to the course outline data (see Figure 5). Using a colour coding scheme to illustrate similar and dissimilar clusters, several of the interview clusters that shown next to each other in Figure 5 were felt to be sufficiently close in context that they could be further aggregated into a final, high level cluster. For example, it seemed obvious that ‘Ways to learn SE’ and ‘Ways to teach SE’ were sufficiently similar to become one category whereas the ‘Social innovation’ and ‘SE is viable’ clusters were deemed to not possess similarities that would allow them to be aggregated with others.

Figure 5: Clustering of descriptive accounts from interview data into high level categories as part of abstraction process.

The process of inductively forming categories by way of the iterative sorting of descriptive accounts relied upon aggregation and comparison. This ‘clustering’ is a tactic for generating meaning from qualitative data and, as Miles and Huberman (1994) contend, “clustering can be seen as a process of moving to higher levels of abstraction” such that it helps the analyst to see “what goes with what” (pp. 245-250).
**Summary of the Research Findings**

To summarize the various findings, the outcomes of the analysis are presented graphically as part of an overall conceptual framework that includes: (1) SE elements to consider including in tourism programs, and; (2) SE learning content currently offered at the graduate level (see Figure 6).

![Conceptual framework for study of SE elements for inclusion in tourism curricula.](image)

**Figure 6**: Conceptual framework for study of SE elements for inclusion in tourism curricula.

The review of the literature associated with SE proved to be extremely important to the early aspects of the research inquiry in that the patterns, terminology, themes, trends, opportunities and gaps that were unearthed heavily influenced the preparation of the topic guides used in the interviews as well as the thematic framework for coding interview data. The following themes of note emerged from the literature on the topic of social entrepreneurship: (1) social versus commercial entrepreneurship; (2) social entrepreneurship innovators; (3) the creative process of social entrepreneurship; (4) tourism and social entrepreneurship; (5) the academy and social entrepreneurship, and; (6) opportunities and drawbacks.
The content analysis of thirteen graduate-level SE course outlines from universities representing six countries around the world revealed that business schools are the main sources of social entrepreneurship courses today. None of the courses or content analyzed was offered by a faculty or department of tourism suggesting that this field of study is under-serviced by tourism learning institutions. The content analysis of existing SE course outlines was instrumental in providing the investigator with an understanding of what is currently covered in SE courses at the graduate level.

Whereas the literature review offered a global overview of the SE topic, the interviews ensured that both tourism and industry-specific perspectives were captured and considered. The perspectives of the tourism graduates were a particularly important source of data for the inquiry given the dearth of tourism programs currently offering SE at the graduate level. In response to the research question, the salient SE elements for educators to consider including in SE tourism courses are: (1) Future of SE / Opportunities; (2) SE is viable; (3) How SE works; (4) Social innovation; (5) SE challenges; (6) SE literature; (7) Tourism and SE, and; (8) Ways to teach SE.

Conclusion

This exploratory research design aimed to analyze and describe the extent and content of the social entrepreneurship topic in existing graduate-level university programs. A multi-stage, multi-method sequential approach to the research included two leading strategies: a review of the literature, and; a documentary analysis of graduate-level SE course outlines. Secondary strategies included a focus group interview with tourism program graduates and an in-depth interview with an industry practitioner. The use of multiple research gathering methods helped to identify and compare recurring themes thereby serving to maximize data validity and minimize bias.

Reviewing the social entrepreneurship literature revealed that while social entrepreneurship and innovation in the tourism sector may not yet be occurring on a major scale, ample evidence suggests that the growth of community-based tourism is responsible for social value being placed on natural culture and heritage. This trend is especially noticeable in communities that are gateways to protected areas where impacts from visitors can be significant. Voluntourism is another form of tourism involving social entrepreneurs, many of whom are exploiting changing attitudes to attract customers whose interests include reducing the travel industry’s impact on our cultural and physical landscape. The literature also revealed that not only can entrepreneurship be taught, but that existing social entrepreneurs also make ideal candidates for formal education and training.

The thematic framework analysis method helped to yield high-order elements of practitioner and tourism-specific learning content that may help to inform the
administrators of graduate-level tourism programs interested in pursuing SE in their curricula. Additional research could be undertaken to develop instructional strategies and learning outcomes associated with the various course outline elements identified. Ideally, the elements of learning content identified by this inquiry will enable educators to offer engaging courses that combine both tourism and social entrepreneurship.

References


Practitioner Papers

Responsible Tourism and Local Government in South Africa

Heidi van der Watt, EDGE Tourism Solutions, International Centre for Responsible Tourism - South Africa & Global Sustainable Tourism Council

The significance of local areas and local government

Local areas are the proverbial ‘coalface’ of tourism. The ‘tourism experience’ consists of a combination of attractions and activities that draw tourists to an area and tourism and associated products that provided services and goods – accommodation, food, petrol, vehicle repair, mementoes and memorabilia – that tourists need when they visit a local area. The impacts of tourism, negative or positive – income for crafters, farmers; shops and tourism businesses; traffic congestion; adherence to or disrespect for cultural practices and sanctions – are felt within local areas. Various stakeholders are involved in or affected by tourism in a local area. These include accommodation providers, attraction and activity operators, retailers, garages, employees of tourism and other businesses, residents, civil society organisations, schools, colleges and other educational institutions, and officials of local, provincial, national government entities.

South African policy for local government and tourism assign substantial responsibility for tourism to municipalities (local government). Although primary responsibility for the execution of the function of tourism is often allocated to a specific line department within a municipality, the function is affected by the actions of other line departments. By way of example, the following table outlines the various municipal functions needed to host a festival/special event showcasing the culture of the area at a municipally owned sport facility:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipal functions</th>
<th>Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local tourism</td>
<td>Marketing of the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistance to emerging crafters with product development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firefighting services</td>
<td>Overtime payment to emergency personnel on duty for event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reaction in the event of fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billboards /advertisements in public places</td>
<td>Approval for temporary signage advertising the event</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above example is not exhaustive, but rather aims to demonstrate that a range of functions other than tourism influence the successful hosting of an event. Likewise, the tourism line department’s efforts to attract investment in tourist accommodation and attractions will be influenced by decisions related to planning approvals, Environmental Impact Assessments, etc. Or, the municipality’s competency in relation to waste management will directly affect the efforts of the tourism department and local tourism organisation to promote recycling amongst tourism businesses. Clearly, the decisions and actions of the ENTIRE municipal organisation determine whether tourism thrives or flounders in a local area.

The tourism roles of local government

South Africa’s Constitution allocates functions to the different spheres of government, and also obligates local government to take a developmental role (Republic of South Africa, 1996)\(^\text{144}\). Local government is often referred to as the sphere that is closest to the people, and hence viewed as a key facilitator of and actor in local development. The core concept in the 1998 White Paper on Local Government is developmental local government, expressed as follows: “Developmental local government is local government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social economic, and material needs and improve the quality of their live” (DPLG, 1998:38)\(^\text{145}\).

The South African constitution gives all spheres of government responsibility for tourism destination management. While national and provincial tourism departments and organizations are chiefly responsible for the design and implementation of tourism strategies and national and international marketing campaigns, it is local government that shoulder the responsibility for developing and managing tourism in local areas.

The National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) sets out clear roles for national, provincial, regional and local tourism bodies (Department of Tourism, 2010:53-57).\(^\text{146}\) The NTTS specifies that local government should perform the following functions (Department of Tourism, 2010:56-57):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trading regulations</th>
<th>Licensing of food and liquor stall holders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control of undertakings that sell liquor to the public</td>
<td>Permissions for trading by crafters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licensing etc for selling food to the public</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleansing</td>
<td>Refuse removal after the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local sport facilities</td>
<td>Approval for the use of the facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic and parking</td>
<td>Street closures for parade</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Establish, and provide financial support to, the Local Tourism Bureaux (LTB);

Upkeep and development of public tourist attractions (e.g. historical, cultural and environmental);

Provide public infrastructure;

Provide public amenities, such as parking, ablution facilities and public transportation, in support of the tourism industry;

Conduct spatial planning in support of tourism, and allocate land and infrastructure for tourism development;

Plan and provide local road signs;

Maintain the general safety, upkeep, cleanliness and beautification of the local area; and

Assist the LTB in implementing the provincial registration and minimum standards system by providing health and safety inspection services.

The local authority’s line function departments is also responsible for all integrated development matters, and responsible for consulting with the LTB in the planning and implementing phases of local tourism development plans. The wide range of functions in relation to tourism, contrasted with a limited view that the responsibility of local government for tourism begins and ends with funding to local tourism organisations, is worth noting.

The detailing of the tourism role of local government in sector-based policies and plans is set within the overarching responsibility of developmental local government. So, municipalities are required to carry out tourism functions in way that it is consistent with this developmental role. In the context of ‘developmental local government’, the ‘local tourism’ function of municipalities must be interpreted as ‘developmental tourism at a local level’. Developmental tourism is the process through which:

- partners from the public, business, labour and civic sectors work together to identify sustainable ways to utilise and harness location-specific resources;

- to grow and transform the economy in specific local areas; and

- to implement programmes and projects that build on and showcase opportunities and/or address economic empowerment constraints.

The aim of developmental tourism is to increase local incomes and to create job opportunities through enhancing the community’s ability to create enterprises.

Local Tourism Bureaux (LTBs), jointly funded and representing the local government and private business in the local area, are given the following functions (Department of Tourism, 2010:56-57)\(^\text{147}\):

\(^{147}\) Ibid.
- Manage the information office(s) of the local area, and feed into the provincial information system;
- Market specific events, conferences and meetings that occur in the local area;
- Act as a first point of registration for tourism businesses in respect of the provincial registration system, and monitor minimum standards maintained by registered businesses in the local authority area;
- Receive and channel applications for local road signs from members to the municipality;
- Promote tourism awareness, a culture of hospitality, and involvement in tourism among the local population; and
- Keep a general watch over tourism matters, and advise the municipal authority regarding tourism development requirements.

The White Paper on Local Government (DPLG: 1998) requires that a municipality exercises municipal powers and functions in a manner which maximises their impact on social development and economic growth. Where municipal powers and functions are outsourced to delivery agents, those delivery agencies are obliged to also fulfil a developmental role.

Responsible Tourism aims to achieve sustainable development through tourism that betters the quality of life of residents, protects and improves natural environments and respects and showcases local cultures. The similarity between the ambitions of developmental government, developmental tourism and Responsible Tourism is obvious. Effectively, local government responsibility for Responsible Tourism is established in the Constitution and local government framework policies and legislation. By implication, government-funded Local Tourism Bureaux should grow tourism in the destination in a way that provides sustainable economic, social and environmental returns to communities.

The reorientation of local government in South Africa from provider of infrastructure and municipal services to facilitator of development has not been easy and is by no means complete. This fact is recognized by various studies of local government capacity. Many municipalities are barely able to deliver basic services, let alone grow their economies (DPLG2009a; DPLG, 2009b)\(^{148,149}\). Difficulties with the delivery of the local economic development and tourism function are part of this challenge. The strengthening of governance, leadership and financial competence in local government is the role of the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.

In recognition of the central role of local government in tourism, the Department of

\(^{148}\) DPLG. 2009. *The State of Local Government in South Africa*

\(^{149}\) DPLG. 2009. *Local Government Turnaround Strategy*
Tourism has developed the *Local Government Tourism Development and Growth Support Programme* in partnership with the South African Local Government Association (SALGA). The programme consists of four components; capacity-building for tourism practitioners and policymakers, provision of technical support for tourism planning and development, facilitation of stakeholder dialogues and peer learning platforms, and facilitation of strategic partnerships for funding opportunities (Department of Tourism, 2012). Given the policy context, Responsible Tourism should feature as key concept in the delivery of the identified components.

**The state of Responsible Tourism in local areas**

The concept of responsible tourism has been a key ingredient in South Africa’s tourism policy since 1996. It is also a cornerstone of both the *NTTS* (Department of Tourism, 2010) and *Tourism Bill* (Department of Tourism, 2012). Local governments have a central role in driving the developmental and responsible tourism agenda in local areas. Some municipalities have done exemplary work on bringing about more responsible practices within the destination’s tourism sector, notably through the creation of information resources and information sessions & training for tourism businesses and citizens.

On the private sector side, various individual tourism businesses have taken up the challenge to become more environmentally, socially and economically responsible, and have reaped the rewards of cost savings and increased market profile. Apex tourism sector organizations, such as the South African Tourism Services Association (SATSA) and Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa (FEDHASA), have galvanized action amongst their members by identifying initiatives to contribute to or offering recognition for outstanding practices, e.g. the Imvelo Awards. Various local tourism organisations have hosted member information sessions and advocate responsible tourism amongst tourists through codes of conduct and highlighting related experiences in marketing materials.

Despite the gains noted above, a close look at the current state of Responsible Tourism in local areas reveals the following main weaknesses:

- local government policies and planning frameworks, e.g. Integrated Development Plans, and strategies have limited reference to responsible tourism as an approach to destination management, or the national Responsible Tourism Guidelines;

- there is a general lack of awareness of Responsible Tourism and its meaning.

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152 Department of Tourism. 2012. *Tourism Bill*.
amongst politicians and public officials outside of tourism line departments, and hence the terminology and associated principles are not widely used in local government;

- local government do not compel tourism businesses providing goods and services to municipalities to demonstrate actions and progress towards responsible tourism;

- publicly-owned and/or managed tourism facilities do not adhere to the principles of Responsible Tourism and no plans to ensure eventual compliance with the National Minimum Standard for Responsible Tourism are in place;

- local tourism organization strategies, plans and activities pay no or little attention to responsible tourism as a responsibility of LTOs, as a differentiator for local area marketing, or the National Minimum Standard as a benchmark for its members;

- local tourism organisations funded by the local government are not required to demonstrate their commitment to and implementation of Responsible Tourism, and hence do not measure their performance in relation to their contribution to economic, social and environmental sustainability;

- although individual tourism businesses and tourism sector organisations are advocating for and working towards the principles of responsible tourism, these individual efforts do not form part of an over-arching strategic approach by destinations;

- many tourism businesses and tourism organisations still see responsible tourism as synonymous with ‘green tourism’, hence focusing actions on environmental sustainability only;

- many government entities and initiatives narrowly focus on the ‘community-beneficiation’ element of Responsible Tourism, to the exclusion of mainstream tourism businesses and the other pillars of responsible tourism;

- a significant portion of the tourism sector are not working towards Responsible Tourism, most likely due to a lack of information about and practical tools and incentives to enable adoption of Responsible Tourism practices;

- residents and citizens are generally not aware of Responsible Tourism, its meaning and benefits, and the responsibilities of the destination at large; and

- existing and potential tourists receive limited information about destination efforts related to responsible tourism and tourism businesses that offer more responsible experiences and products.
Towards Responsible Tourism in local destinations

Achieving Responsible Tourism in local areas in South Africa will require the following:

- drawing local government attention to the fact that the mandate for responsible tourism is rooted in the Constitution and policies that govern local government;
- emphasizing the developmental responsibility of government-funded tourism organisations;
- refocusing attention on the interrelated and interdependent parts of responsible tourism;
- creating more awareness for RT in the sector and the destination at large;
- equipping the different spheres of government, industry bodies and tourism businesses with practical toolkits;
- increased co-operation and more partnerships between different line departments in municipalities, i.e. a joined-up government approach to responsible tourism;
- increased co-operation and more partnerships between local government and local stakeholders;
- creating opportunities for stakeholder dialogues and peer learning platforms;
- sensitizing tourists to a different way of travelling and how their choices can make a difference.

Most importantly, the solution to achieve responsible tourism at a local level is not in more policies, but in planning and undertaking initiatives in collaboration across internal government organisational silos and with destination stakeholders.
The Green Tourism Business Scheme: the First 15 Years

Andrea Nicholas, Managing Director, Green Tourism Business Scheme

Background

The concept of having a green grading programme was devised in 1996 through a collaboration of VisitScotland and an organisation called Tourism and the Environment Forum (TEF). TEF was funded jointly by VisitScotland and Scottish Enterprise, the economic development agency for Scotland. TEF had researched destinations around the world which competed with Scotland, for example, New Zealand, British Columbia and Scandinavia. It was felt that developing a green grading programme to complement the world leading quality standard operated by VisitScotland would give businesses in Scotland a competitive advantage in comparison to these other destinations. In September 1997 Shetland Environmental Agency (SEA) won the tender to deliver the grading assessments for the Green Tourism Business Scheme. SEA comprised of two people the Director Jonathan Proctor and one employee Andrea Nicholas.

Shetland Environmental Agency

Originally from Manchester, Jon Proctor has a BSc (Hons) in Environmental Science from Oxford Brookes University and had worked for 2 years as a countryside ranger before joining the Shetland based environmental consultancy SEA in 1991. After a year as an employee the directors decided to give up the company and Jon took on the role as the main shareholder and owner. Jon has always had a strong interest in animals and nature and as a young boy he was the first person in the UK to successful breed Jackson’s chameleons in captivity. After two extended periods of travelling originally in a group and then independently throughout Africa Jon developed a significant interest and personal commitment to reducing man’s impact on the natural world. This has been a driving passion of his since the early 1990’s and has been fundamental in the success of the Green Tourism Programme.

The main work undertaken by SEA from 1991 to 1997 was energy and environmental auditing and advice for a variety of businesses in Shetland. This included fish farms and processors, quarries, hotels and domestic households. Jon undertook significant training during this period and developed a high level of skills in particular relating to energy efficiency, environmental good practise and building services. He undertook training to

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be an environmental auditor to British Standards, in 1993. Between 1993 and 1996 SEA undertook a range of projects on demand side management for Scottish Hydro Electric to raise awareness of householders in Shetland in energy efficiency and help them reduce their electric bills. As a result the company won the Scottish Energy Saver of the Year award 1995.

In 1995 SEA won a two year contract with the Scottish Office to research in waste minimisation in the Scottish Highlands and Islands. As a result the same year Jon decided to move to Perth and open a second office on the Scottish mainland. The Shetland office closed down in 1999 and SEA is now based in the same offices as Green Tourism.

Although born in South Wales Andrea spent her early years living on a dairy farm in Norfolk and from 11 years old in the Isle of Thanet, Kent. She undertook a BSc (Hons) and MA in Landscape design at Sheffield University and became a chartered Landscape Architect in 1986. During the 11 years before joining SEA, Andrea worked for a number of large environmental consultancies and developed skills in computer aided design, IT and office management. During her time working for RPS Group Andrea had a number of projects designing external areas for hotels, business parks and leisure facilities in the UK and Northern Cyprus. Whilst working for Buro Happold she spent 5 months in Saudia Arabia working on large domestic villas and public buildings. Her last position before moving to Scotland was Office and CAD Manager for David Lloyd Leisure in Hounslow.

Andrea met Jon at a Midsummer’s Night party in Altrincham in 1996 and the relationship developed over the next few months and in March 1997 Andrea moved in with Jon and started working for SEA. With a personal interest in nature Andrea has been significantly influenced by Jon’s passion for the environment over the years. Always looking at things from a practical point of view Andrea has a strong commitment to the environment and a desire to want to help and give advice to businesses on their green journey. Her IT, management and organisational skills have been an essential part of the success of the Green Tourism programme.

Projects undertaken by SEA 1997 – 2013 include providing advice and auditing on the ISO14001 standard for a number of clients including Triodos bank and Framgord Fish Processors. They developed an energy advice guide for Scottish Businesses which formed part of a publication produced by TEF. They were the assessment body for the EU Flower for Tourism Accommodation and Camping Sites from 2003 – 2008 and carried out over 30 assessments in UK and Ireland.

In 2007 SEA provided some consultancy advice to Qualmark, the assessment body for New Zealand Tourism’s Quality Assurance programme. Qualmark wanted to incor-
porate green measures within their quality grading and SEA undertook research with a number of businesses in New Zealand using the Green Tourism criteria as benchmark. Following SEA’s work Qualmark introduced their three tiered Enviro-Mark and Janie Neumann an employee of SEA spent 2 months in New Zealand helping them with its rollout.

In 2010 SEA was approached by West Sweden Tourist Board to help with the development of a new sustainability quality standard for Swedish Tourism businesses. SEA has provided consultancy advice to them over the past three years and has been a key member in the team that is developing the standard which has recently been launched as Swedish Welcome.

The same year SEA was commissioned by Ethos in British Columbia to develop a sustainability programme for Canada. Unfortunately after the initial pilot Ethos lost its funding and had to close. However SEA continued to work with one of Ethos’s staff who voluntarily helped to keep the programme going. As a result of the pilot SEA developed a Canadian version of the Green Tourism criteria and graded 25 businesses. After a visit to British Columbia in September 2012 SEA has now signed a license agreement with a consultancy, GreenStep Solutions Inc for them to deliver the Green Tourism Canada programme. SEA is training their assessors during the summer of 2013 and will provide on-going support and technical advice for them.

Criteria Development

When SEA won the contract in 1997 to deliver the assessments for the Green Tourism Business Scheme it became apparent very quickly that a delivery programme and criteria did not actually exist. There was a concept of a three tiered scheme and a list of 7 sections but no criteria, grading process, programme support materials, website etc. So independently of the contract with VisitScotland to deliver the grading visits SEA developed the programme and its criteria.

The principles behind the Green Tourism programme are based on the ISO14001 standard of implementing an environmental management system in a business. This includes identifying the most significant aspects and ensuring continual improvement. However the criteria and grading process are based on the businesses performance and evidence that the measures are in place and making a difference.

SEA decided that for credibility the businesses had to have an on-site assessment by a qualified Institute of Environmental Management and Assessment (IEMA) registered auditor. Also based on SEA experience it was decided that the process should be as much about providing the advice and support to help business reduce their running costs as it is about assessing their current level of achievement. SEA remains the
owner and Standards Agency for the Green Tourism programme setting the criteria requirements and continues to develop it to maintain its relevance and credibility in a constantly changing world.

**Programme Development**

The assessments were subsidised and administrated for the first three years by VisitScotland and Scottish Enterprise. During this period VisitScotland was responsible for the supporting the membership including collection of fees, printing and distribution of criteria documents and plaques, marketing of the graded businesses and promotion of the programme to the industry. This included the use of the Green Tourism logo in printed literature, inclusion of Green Tourism information in the Quality Assurance literature and some recruitment activities such as mail outs and offers on membership. VisitScotland’ s website at that time was a joint venture with a private company and that company did not want to advertise a competitive website so they did not allow Green Tourism logos to be displayed on the business listings.

During this period SEA was contracted by VisitScotland and paid to carry out the grading visits. However SEA also developed a significant number of support materials and tools independently of the contract and at their cost. These included an annual newsletter, a website, factsheets and templates. The website has been operational since 1998 and has always had a full listing of all Green Tourism members.

The original criteria and programme were tested on a pilot group of 30 accommodation businesses and then rolled out to the rest of the accommodation businesses in Scotland. It was voluntary programme and there was a charge to join of £75 for Bronze, £100 for Silver and £150 for Gold. These fees were set by VisitScotland and based on the perceived amount of time needed on site to assess the businesses. It was assumed it would take longer to do a Gold assessment because there would be more to look at. This did not prove to be the case and often Bronze visits took longer as there was more advice to provide on opportunities for improvements. After a year there was mounting interest from other sectors, the criteria were revised by SEA and made applicable to Visitor Attractions.

When the funding came to an end in 2001 VisitScotland no longer wanted to support the programme and SEA took over all aspects of membership, administration and production of scheme materials. A not-for-profit company, Green Business UK Ltd was set up to be the membership organisation. It was felt that it would be more transparent if membership fee were paid into a company which did not distribute any profits to shareholders and where any profit made would go back into the programme development. It was also hoped that it might assist in any future funding bids or contracts.
Since 2001 Green Business has grown from 1 employee to 12 employees and a turnover of nothing to a turnover in 2012 of £700,000. There are currently over 2300 members across the UK and Ireland representing a wider variety and diversity of business types and locations.

SEA and Green Business have continued to develop the programme and support materials. The 4th update of the website will go live in July 2013 and the 5th version of the criteria will be out for consultation in the autumn of 2013.

**Regional Roll-outs**

In 2000 SEA was approached by South Hams Council in Devon as they were interested in having Green Tourism in their area. They were a progressive destination and had been one of the pioneers of the Green Audit Kit. SEA secured a contract to roll-out the programme in that area. The criteria were revised by SEA to create an English version and over 20 businesses achieved a grading.

Regional pilots in the East of England and North West followed shortly after South Hams and in 2005 Green Business secured a contract to roll out Green Tourism across the South East of England. Over 50 businesses were involved in this pilot which included holding training seminars, advisory visits and networking events. The following year pilots were undertaken in The Broads and Cumbria and in 2007 Green Tourism was made available to any tourism business throughout England. Over the next few years there were numerous other regional projects including North East England, Forest of Bowland, Jersey, London and the North York Moors.

In 2008 VisitEngland introduced a validation system for Sustainable Tourism programmes in England to ensure that any programme they promoted was credible and transparent. The International Centre for Responsible Tourism (ICRT), then housed at Leeds Metropolitan University, developed the validation process and carried out the assessments. Green Tourism was the first programme to be validated in 2008 and was successfully revalidated in 2011.

“Green Tourism provides excellent value for money to a wide range of tourism firms with first class environmental advice and auditing. Satisfaction rates of certified firms are very high and dropout rates low, both for the smallest of tourism firms and increasingly at corporate level.” Xavier Font, ICRT.

In 2009 following projects in Brecon Beacons and Powys the programme was made available to businesses in Wales and it was endorsed by VisitWales. In 2010 Green Business won a contract to deliver Green Tourism in South Kerry and over 60 businesses were involved. Following this project Green Tourism was made available to any business in Southern Ireland and it was endorsed by Faitle Ireland.
Business won a contract to deliver a small rollout in Antrim, Northern Ireland which included 10 businesses. Following this pilot Green Tourism was formally endorsed by the Northern Ireland Tourist Board.

**Sustainable Tourism Assessors**

All Green Tourism members are assessed once every two years by a qualified sustainable tourism assessor. All assessors are employees of Green Business and have an environmental qualification or equivalent experience and a personal commitment to the environment. They are also very good communicators able to explain technical issues to non-technical people.

The assessor’s initial training includes a week of classroom sessions on the principles of environmental auditing, legislation, ISO14001, sustainability and the tourism industry. They shadow a minimum of 30 assessments with the senior assessors and have to reach a defined standard and level of competency before they are able to do visits independently. In order to pass their probationary period of 4 months they are shadowed by the Technical Director on a number of assessments to check they have reached the required standard. All the assessors’ skills and standards on the grading visits are reassessed annually by the Technical Director.

Assessors are trained to be able to assess all types of businesses and there is internal training from those with different specialities to ensure all assessors have a similar knowledge base. They undertake between 200 and 250 assessments a year based on one week of visits followed by a week in the office writing up reports and trip planning. It is important for managing and ensuring a good quality of service that the assessors are in the office regularly to talk to each other and liaise with the membership team.

Additional on-going training is provided to all assessors both internally and via external trainers at least three times a year. Assessors also attend conferences, seminars, workshops on a variety of topics in order to maintain their technical knowledge especially with new and emerging technologies and legislation. Training sessions in the past two years have included – time management, customer care, accessibility, renewable energy, New Scottish Waste regulations, ISO20121, IEMA foundation course and Investors in People.

**Technical Team Meetings & Review Committee**

Assessors attend and contribute to regular technical team meetings at least 4 times a year. At these meetings their share good and bad practise they have seen on their recent assessments and discuss any issues that have arisen. This is an important part of the programme as it ensures a high level of knowledge across the assessment team and
more than any one assessor could gain alone. Also at these meetings they will review
criteria including discussing options for revising or introducing new measures and any
resultant changes to the scoring for any particular measure or for different business
types.

If a business gains a high enough score to achieve Gold this has to go to the review
committee which meets as required. The assessor has to present their report and the
committee of 2-3 assessors will review the scoring and evidence. Additional information
may be requested or time constrained actions imposed on the business before the Gold
award is confirmed. The review committee will also assess any appeals from businesses
that have an issue with their assessment report.

Membership Growth & Trends

The membership numbers in Green Tourism have mainly increased year on year. In
the first 5 years the rate of growth was as much as 30% per year. This was a result of a
number of groups joining the programme in the early years. This included the Scottish
Youth Hostel Association (60 sites) joining in 1998 and Historic Scotland (65 sites) in
1999. The pilots and destination projects have also boosted numbers as indicated in the
figure below.

The introduction of the Climate Change Levy in 2001 raised awareness of the need
for energy efficiency and there was a growth in interest in Green Tourism especially
from hotels and larger businesses. The same year, as a result of foot and mouth, many
of the businesses could not be visited and were given an extension to their assessment period. However it did not result in any decline in membership, in fact the disaster raised awareness of the connection between food and the countryside and farmers. This resulted in an increase in people wanting to have a holiday in the UK and again more interest from businesses wanting to join Green Tourism. Other disasters, including the outbreak of SARS in 2003 and the 2011 eruption of Grimsvötn, the volcano in Iceland encouraged people to holiday in the UK, avoiding international travel and their reliance on air travel, popularising ‘staycations’.

A VisitEngland survey conducted in 2009 found that businesses generally join for 3 main reasons. Over 90% join because they have a personal commitment or interest in the environment, ranging from a ‘deep green’ commitment to wanting to save resources. 84% join because of the marketing advantage of having the green grading and over 80% to reduce their running costs. Typically businesses can reduce their costs by 20% in their first year of membership of green tourism.

There is no doubt that a very high number of the early adopters were in the ‘deep green’ category and for many it was a personal lifestyle decision. However, there was also interest from businesses that wanted to differentiate themselves and add to their quality and other awards. These tended to be the higher quality businesses, those that were very good at marketing and in many cases they were better managed businesses.

However, in the last few years the increased awareness and adoption of Corporate Social Responsibility by government organisations and businesses has had an impact on the growth and membership of Green Tourism. The numbers of hotels, groups and chains have increased significantly since 2007 when Ramada Jarvis was the first large hotel chain to join. Green Tourism has become the recognised as the credible third party certification for these types of businesses that want to green their supply chain and attract the corporate market. In the past 5 years the following brands have joined Green Tourism and all their UK sites are in membership: Chardon Management, De Vere Venues, Hilton; Jury’s Inns, Menzies Hotels, QHotels, Radisson Edwardian, Rezidor and Best Western with 120 of their members in GTBS.

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<th>GTBS membership by sector 2013</th>
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<td>Hotels</td>
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<td>Self-catering</td>
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<td>Visitor Attractions</td>
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<td>B&amp;Bs</td>
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<td>Holiday parks / hostels</td>
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The distribution of grading bands is maybe not what might be expected. It might be assumed that there would be a lot of Bronze businesses, a smaller number of Silver
and the smallest group would be Gold. However this is not the case as most businesses aspire to improve their grading and therefore move up the ratings and retention rates are highest for the Gold members. There is a failure rate of 5% of business that do not achieve the Bronze level. The current grading distribution is as shown in table below.

Membership Services

Businesses have access to a members area on the Green Tourism website which includes case studies, factsheets and lists of useful organisations. They also receive a monthly technical newsletter with information on new technologies, legalisation, green suppliers and events.

When a business makes an initial enquiry they are sent an application pack which includes the criteria, checklist and a list of benefits. Once they return the application they receive an invoice for their fees and once that is paid they become a member. The fees are set to take account of the size or number of employees and there is a one-off joining fee in the first year of £75. When they become a member they receive the awaiting grading logo, a listing on the website, access to the member’s area and eligibility to take up any supplier discount offers.

Within three months of becoming a member the business will be offered a grading visit appointment. The invitations are sent out four to six weeks before the appointment and the business must accept an appointment within twelve months of joining. The grading visit takes approx. two hours and the business will receive the assessment report within four to six weeks of the visit.

The businesses are promoted through the Green Tourism website and a number of partner organisations that receive regular updates of the membership. These include

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public and private sector partners: Book Differently, Booking Services International, Eco Holiday Shop, Failte Ireland, Northern Ireland Tourism Board, Travelocity, VisitEngland, VisitScotland and VisitWales

Press releases are produced regularly and there is a news stream and archive on the website reporting articles that appear on line. Green Tourism’s YouTube channel (GreenTourismGTBS) has a large number of videos of good practise, interviews with members and suppliers. The FaceBook page Green Tourism has over 400 fans and The_GTBS has over 1200 followers on twitter.

Since 2011 Green Tourism has held an annual Green Tourism Week with an award ceremony for their GoldStar Award winners and Best Carbon Performers. The GoldStars are selected from the highest scoring businesses from the previous year and go through a judging process which includes taking up references from customers and suppliers. The Best Carbon Performers are selected from those businesses that have reduced their carbon emissions the most. This year’s award ceremony is going to be held during Green Tourism’s first full day conference on 8th November 2013 in Bristol.

For more information about GTBS

- Facebook: www.facebook.com/green.tourism.gtbs
- Twitter: https://twitter.com/the_GTBS
- Web: www.green-business.co.uk
- YouTube: www.youtube.com/user/GreenTourismGTBS
Working conditions in the UK hotel industry: an overview of the issues

Rebecca Armstrong, International Centre for Responsible Tourism and Responsible Tourism Matters

Since the first Earth Summit in Rio in 1992 the spotlight of sustainability has been focused primarily on the environment. Social and economic issues have not attracted as much attention. However, with increasing focus on the supply chain tour operators and accommodation providers have been raising their expectations of supplier performance just as supermarkets have. Employment conditions are attracting greater attention as a consequence of living wage campaigns and the debates about zero hours contracts.

The issue emerges

London hotel cleaners were paid as little as £15 for an eight-hour shift during the 2012 Olympic Games. Meanwhile, the average price for a single ticket to an athletics event at London 2012 was £171.55.

Across Europe, the issue of working conditions in the hospitality industry is coming to the fore – from those of hotel cleaners in the Spanish resort of Magaluf recently highlighted in a BBC documentary – to Amsterdam, where in May 2013 an inspection of 53 city centre hotels by the Dutch labour inspectorate (Inspectie SZW) found that over 25% were breaking one or more employment laws. Breaches included forcing workers to work long hours, breaking laws relating to payment of the minimum wage and holiday pay and employment of illegal workers.

Further afield, reports include the dismissal of Sheraton hotel workers in Algeria for seeking to unionise; and in Fiji, where hotel workers reportedly earn less than $3 an hour, union officials being put on trial for advising hotel worker members on collective bargaining negotiations with their managers. Tourism Concern reports that staff in a number of hotels in Thailand used by major tour operators were found to have no written contracts, be paid less than the minimum wage and be housed by their hotel employers in sub-standard accommodation; and in Turkey workers even in some hotels which were Travelife-certified reported an absence of written contracts, hours regularly exceeding the 60-hour working week and instances of sexual discrimination.

An analysis of data from the U.S. Labor Department for May 2008 – 2013 identified routine flouting of federal laws by a number of Pennsylvania hotels, including failing 155 www.responsibletourismmatters.com
to pay the minimum age and overtime wages, withholding pay, breaching child labor laws and falsely classifying staff members as independent contractors to avoid paying benefits.

The issue of working conditions and pay in the travel industry in the developed world is coming under growing scrutiny, most recently in the UK through the Staff Wanted initiative\textsuperscript{156}. John Cryer MP reported to a Parliamentary Reception on the issue in January 2013 that “[t]oo many people who work in hotels face exploitation; working long hours over their contracted hours, paid minimum wage or even less, and often being forced to sign contracts to make themselves falsely self-employed. This type of behaviour is totally deplorable and unacceptable”\textsuperscript{157}.

The hospitality industry has made commendable progress in recent years in addressing the environmental impacts of its operations – from reducing energy and water use to responsible waste management. However, a policy of caring for the environment by asking guests to reuse their towels is likely to sound increasingly hollow if the rights of the housekeepers carefully refolding those same towels are not now accorded the same attention. As Walmsley\textsuperscript{158} comments, “we cannot … sit back and ignore employment malpractices in the industry if we are serious about sustainability.”

This paper therefore briefly examines the emerging themes in the UK industry and, drawing on examples from the experience of the USA, highlights areas in which research is needed. There are of course equally important issues in developing country destinations around the world\textsuperscript{159}, but these are outside the scope of this initial study.

There are currently three broad issues under the spotlight in the UK hospitality industry: working arrangements; pay; and working conditions.

**Working arrangements**

There are two main concerns: outsourcing arrangements and zero-hours contracts.

**Outsourcing**

Outsourcing of housekeeping and other operations is becoming increasingly commonplace, from small hotels to corporate establishments such as the London Hilton
Waldorf\textsuperscript{160}. The majority of hotel chains outsource cleaning and housekeeping by hiring through a management company, which in turn contracts agency staff\textsuperscript{161}. In the common scenario where the hotel is also owned by a parent company and/or international corporation\textsuperscript{162}, the worker is even further distanced from those who ultimately pay his wages. This gulf serves to disempower hospitality workers, many of whom are migrant workers already disadvantaged by a lack of language fluency, cultural knowledge, awareness of their rights and any support network\textsuperscript{163} and who are therefore vulnerable in the ways they are both recruited and employed\textsuperscript{164}.

Hotels claim that outsourcing offers flexibility on labour costs and staffing levels in order to compete and meet consumer demand\textsuperscript{165}. One Scottish hotel taken to an employment tribunal by staff claiming that casual working arrangements meant they “scraped minimum wage” defended its policy on the basis that it enabled the business “to meet the peaks and troughs of the hospitality and conferencing business without the ongoing financial costs of permanent staff”\textsuperscript{166}.

In the USA a report into working conditions at the global hotel chain Hyatt\textsuperscript{167} reported that in 2009 the corporation summarily dismissed 98 housekeepers from three hotels in the Boston area. Many were career housekeepers who had worked for Hyatt for more than 20 years. Before they were sacked, many of them were required to train those who would be replacing them – temporary agency staff typically on the minimum wage and with little or no benefits\textsuperscript{168}. It is reported that even directly employed staff in hotels can be adversely affected by the presence of outsourcing through downward pressure on their own wages, unreasonable working targets and understaffing\textsuperscript{169}. As well as the issue of workers’ rights, the practice of outsourcing arguably has an adverse effect on the hotel itself as well as the

\textsuperscript{160} Unite report, Posh hotel under fire for treatment of its housekeeping staff. Accessed at http://www.hotelworkers.org.uk/?q=node/192

\textsuperscript{161} Big Hospitality report: Hotels urged to take heed of staff exploitation claims. Accessed at http://www.bighospitality.co.uk/Business/Hotels-urged-to-take-heed-of-staff-exploitation-claims


\textsuperscript{164} Staff Wanted: accessed at http://www.staff-wanted.org/background.html

\textsuperscript{165} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html


\textsuperscript{168} See also http://www.eturbonews.com/35017/hyatt-workers-launch-protests-against-pritzker-nomination?utm_source=feedburner&utm_medium=twitter&utm_campaign=Feed%3A+Eturbonews+TravelAndTourismIndustryNews+%28EturboNews+-+for+the+global+travel+professional%29

wider industry. Rapid staff turnover leads to a skills and training deficit, and there is an obvious negative reputational impact of being associated with informal or even illegal employment practices\textsuperscript{170}.

The outsourcing model essentially encourages hotels to abdicate responsibility for the welfare of their workers since they do not directly employ them\textsuperscript{171} - claiming that it is for the agencies to comply with the law and the state to ensure that they do\textsuperscript{172}. An advertisement run by the US outsourcing agency Hospitality Staffing Solutions claimed expertise in protecting its client hotels from ‘trailing liability’ – i.e. from responsibility for violations of labour and health and safety legislation\textsuperscript{173}.

This is made easier in the UK by the present light regulation in the industry; certainly compared to other sectors where agencies and outsourcing are more heavily controlled – for instance the Gangmasters Licensing Authority\textsuperscript{174} set up to protect workers in the agricultural and food and drink processing industries from exploitation. It is reported that a lack of vigorously enforced employment legislation in the hospitality industry “creates a difficult operating arena for business, with law-abiding, efficient business being undercut by unscrupulous and illegal operators”\textsuperscript{175}.

Distancing themselves in the supply chain from their staff therefore presents risks for hotels that go beyond reputation. Walmsley observes that “[t]he consensus seems to be that as long as tourism development provides jobs, all is well. There is no question as to the conditions of employment\textsuperscript{176}. However, fierce competition, particularly in today’s economic climate, leaves hospitality workers open to exploitation\textsuperscript{177}.

Such exploitation can take many forms, from a lack of clear contract terms; requiring workers to be ostensibly self-employed (to avoid their entitlement to benefits); or to accept unacceptable and over-priced accommodation tied to the job; inadequate or non-existent health and safety training and discrimination; excessive working hours and availability requirements; and debt bondage\textsuperscript{178}.

\textsuperscript{170} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html
\textsuperscript{172} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html
\textsuperscript{174} https://www.gov.uk/gangmasters-licensing-authority
\textsuperscript{175} Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.staff-wanted.org/background.html
\textsuperscript{177} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html
The most sinister manifestation of such exploitation is in trafficking for forced labour; of the estimated 5,000 victims of trafficking in the UK at any one time, “many are in industries where workers have been identified as particularly vulnerable, such as in the hospitality sector”\textsuperscript{179}. Hotels turning a blind eye to poor conditions and arrangements of agency workers run the risk of being found to be complicit in the new criminal offence of slavery, servitude or forced labour\textsuperscript{180}.

**Zero hours contracts (ZHCs)**

ZHCs are increasingly commonly used in the hospitality industry. Under the terms of a ZHC, “people agree to be available for work as and when required, but have no guaranteed hours or times of work. [ZHCs] effectively provide employers with a pool of people who are ‘on-call’ and can be used when the need arises\textsuperscript{181}. Since workers are paid only for the hours they work, ZHCs are attractive to hotels wishing to boost staff numbers over busy periods and drop them when bookings are lower without having to pay their wages at those times. However, concerns have led to a Government review of the practice\textsuperscript{182}.

The Work Foundation reports that 26\% of workers on ZHCs would like to have longer hours, 70\% are permanently employed and 80\% are not looking for another job\textsuperscript{183}. ZHCs do suit certain workers – those who do not need a stable or regular income such as students or those with other income sources or responsibilities\textsuperscript{184}. But for workers already on low pay levels, with regular outgoings and bills to pay as well as family and other responsibilities\textsuperscript{185}, the ‘flexibility’ they offer is more often a curse than a blessing. The workers’ union Unison points out that problems with ZHCs from the workers’ perspective include a lack of regular earnings at a guaranteed level; being subject to calls to work at short notice, causing problems for families and others with dependents; and an inability to be available or look for other work even though work obtained under a ZHC is insufficient\textsuperscript{186}. In some cases workers may be subject to excessive demands to be available.

\textsuperscript{179} Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.staff-wanted.org/background.html
\textsuperscript{180} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html; http://www.staff-wanted.org/legal-risk.html
\textsuperscript{183} The Work Foundation: Key facts about zero hours contracts. Accessed at http://www.theworkfoundation.com/Events/Key-facts-about-zero-hours-contracts
\textsuperscript{184} New Start magazine, Flexibility or insecurity? The rise of the zero hours contract. 4 July 2013. Accessed at http://newstartmag.co.uk/your-blogs/flexibility-or-insecurity-the-rise-of-the-zero-hours-contract/
for work\textsuperscript{187}; in others low-paid workers may not realise that they are on a ZHC until their hours are cut\textsuperscript{188}.

As well as insecurity of income, ZHCs create some legal uncertainty over whether the worker is to be deemed an employee and therefore entitled to holiday and sick pay, maternity leave, redundancy compensation and other benefits such as working tax credit due to the irregular hours worked\textsuperscript{189}. Staff are afraid to turn down work and reducing hours may be used as a means of achieving redundancy by the back door or to silence complaints by staff\textsuperscript{190}.

The Office for National Statistics estimates less than 1\% of the workforce are presently on ZHCs, but that this represents a four-fold increase since 2005\textsuperscript{191} and represents 250,000 workers\textsuperscript{192}. However, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development reported in July 2013 that due to a lack of precise measurements and confusion regarding definitions, this figure could be nearer one million UK workers\textsuperscript{193}.

Workplaces in the hotels and restaurants sector are reported to be most likely to use zero-hours contracts; 19\% did so in 2011 (a jump from 4\% in 2004)\textsuperscript{194}. In an industry prone to seasonality, their use in the tourism and hospitality setting is likely to further increase if left unregulated.

Pay

A study by Walmsley\textsuperscript{195} found that “jobs that are typically associated with tourism often belong to those that pay the lowest wages”. In the UK the Joseph Rowntree

\textsuperscript{187} Staff Wanted: Migrant Workers, accessed at http://www.staff-wanted.org/migrant-workers.html
\textsuperscript{188} New Start magazine, Flexibility or insecurity? The rise of the zero hours contract. 4 July 2013. Accessed at http://newstartmag.co.uk/your-blogs/flexibility-or-insecurity-the-rise-of-the-zero-hours-contract/
\textsuperscript{190} New Start magazine, Flexibility or insecurity? The rise of the zero hours contract. 4 July 2013. Accessed at http://newstartmag.co.uk/your-blogs/flexibility-or-insecurity-the-rise-of-the-zero-hours-contract/
\textsuperscript{192} Office for National Statistics ad-hoc table “People and hours worked on zero hours contracts” (April 2013) http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/about-ons/what-we-do/publication-scheme/published-ad-hoc-data/labour-market/april-2013/zero-hours-contracts.xls
Foundation reports that in the UK the majority of these low-paid workers are under 30\(^{196}\). Other unethical practices in this area include late and withheld payments; failure to pay overtime, holiday and sick pay and unexplained or unreasonable / excessive deductions for items such as uniforms, food and transport\(^{197}\).

UK hotel workers purportedly on the minimum wage, a common feature of the hospitality industry, often earn less than this in real terms, for various reasons. For example, the union Unite reports that some hotels require their housekeepers to clean a minimum of 16 rooms per eight-hour shift. They are expected to stay late if necessary to achieve this target, without any extra pay. The British Hospitality Association has warned that unrealistic work targets can effectively drive housekeepers’ hourly earnings below the level of the minimum wage\(^{198}\).

Similarly, being paid only for the hours worked under a ZHC can also have the effect of pushing real earnings below the minimum wage through practices such as paying piece work rates\(^{199}\). For example, a housekeeper on a ZHC might be required to work an initial eight hour shift but then to come back three hours after the end of that shift, for two more hours tidying rooms and turning down beds for the evening. The housekeeper in those circumstances would very probably have to stay at the hotel or in the vicinity for all thirteen hours as it would be too far or expensive to return home in the interim, but would only be paid for the ten hours she was actually working – meaning in real terms she earned less than the minimum wage.

In 2012 the Independent reported the experience of a room cleaner at the Hilton Metropole in London, who receives £6.21 an hour for a 37.5 hour week: “If I pay my rent, £100 a week plus bills, and transport, £32.25 a week, I have little money left over for life; sometimes it’s £30 for two weeks. I can’t afford clothes or books and sometimes I can’t afford dinner. I was sick for six months with depression. All my problems stem from a lack of money.”\(^{200}\)

There are calls for hospitality workers to be paid the Living Wage – currently calculated to be £8.55 per hour in London and £7.45 outside London\(^{201}\). Neil Jameson, Director of London Citizens which launched the Living Wage campaign 12 years ago, describes the London Hotel sector as suffering from ‘widespread poverty pay’\(^{202}\).

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199 IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html
201 Citizens UK: http://www.citizensuk.org/campaigns/living-wage-campaign/
Hotels Group became the first hotel chain in the UK to pay the Living Wage (including to agency staff)\(^{203}\). Many more must now follow suit.

The issue of low pay generally has attracted debate across the political spectrum. Ferdinand Mount, former head of the Downing Street Policy Unit under Margaret Thatcher, has argued\(^{204}\) that low pay results in the estimated 7 million UK ‘workers on benefits’\(^{205}\) – those who are working but who are subsidised by the state through ‘top up’ welfare payments, because their employers fail to pay them a living wage. In other words, taxpayers pick up the bill for the shortfall left by corporate employers – including hotels – choosing to pay their staff poorly to maximise profits.

**Working conditions**

Housekeeping in particular is demanding and physical work, often performed while trying to meet unreasonable work targets. For example the US’ Justice at Hyatt’ campaign\(^{206}\) reported that agency workers typically earning the minimum wage of $8 an hour were required to clean up to 30 rooms a day. That equated to 15 minutes to change linens, make up the bed, scrub the bathroom, empty the rubbish, vacuum and dust. In their rush to meet these daily quotas and in an environment where demand for luxury creates extra tasks, housekeepers often miss breaks and meals and work unpaid overtime\(^{207}\) and frequently suffer injury.

Research reported by US and Canadian hotel workers’ union Unite Here surveying over 600 housekeepers found that injury rates among hotel workers were 25% higher than those of service workers generally. 91% “reported having suffered work-related pain” and for 77% of the housekeepers who participated, the pain caused by their job interfered with routine activities. In the UK, a survey of 100 housekeepers by Unite found that 84 reported taking painkillers before going to work\(^{208}\).

Luxury beds with mattresses need to be lifted to be made up with flat sheets, pushing heavy housekeeping carts down carpeted corridors, bending frequently to clean floors and reaching to clean difficult to reach surfaces all contribute to debilitating back, shoulder,
knee and lower arm injuries requiring surgery, therapy or resulting in permanent disability\textsuperscript{209}. On returning to work it is reported that many workers are not given lighter duties\textsuperscript{210} – meaning that in reality they face the choice of risking further injury or not working (and therefore earning) at all\textsuperscript{211}.

Other practices by hotels include a ban on joining a union; for example a global boycott of Hyatt hotels allegedly involved in intimidating employees who wished to unionise has now resulted in an agreement giving US Hyatt workers the right to do so without opposition\textsuperscript{212}.

\section*{Conclusion}

It is evident that there are major concerns around employment and working conditions in the tourism industry in the UK, in common with other developed country destinations. Hotel supply chain management currently focuses on product procurement and environmental credentials – credible and necessary activities – but the issue of working conditions of their staff must not be sidestepped. For the hospitality industry – after all one which is based on people and experiences – “proper engagement with its responsibilities is the only sustainable option”\textsuperscript{213}.

Some action is already being taken and there is certainly scope for more robust, and better enforced, regulation in this area. However principally it is up to the industry itself\textsuperscript{214} to take swift and firm steps to address business models such as outsourcing arrangements and zero-hours contracts which are damaging to its reputation and which leave staff open to the possibility of exploitation\textsuperscript{215}. Peter Cheese, CEO of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development comments on the use of ZHCs: “There does need to be a closer look at what is meant by a zero hours contract, the different forms that they take, and clearer guidance on what good and bad practice in their use looks like. And this needs to consider both the advantages and disadvantages in practice for businesses and employees … we need to ensure that proper support for

\textsuperscript{209} Unite Here, Hyatt housekeepers in 8 cities file injury complaints with OSHA. Accessed at http://www.unitehere.org/detail.php?ID=3306
\textsuperscript{212} The American Prospect, 1 July 2013. A Good Day For Hotel Workers. Accessed at http://prospect.org/article/good-day-hotel-workers
\textsuperscript{213} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html
\textsuperscript{214} See comments by Joanna Ewart-James of Staff Wanted reported by Big Hospitality: accessed at http://www.bighospitality.co.uk/Business/Hotels-urged-to-take-heed-of-staff-exploitation-claims
employees and their rights are not being compromised through such arrangements. Zero hours contracts cannot be used simply to avoid an employer’s responsibilities to its employees"\textsuperscript{216}.

Specifically, hotels retaining the outsourcing model must carry out due diligence by closely inspecting agency contracts and working conditions to ensure minimum wage and other legal requirements are not being flouted: “[a]gencies operating well below obvious thresholds are not super-efficient; they are exploiting staff”\textsuperscript{217}. They must also be familiar with the indicators of trafficking and how to address them, to ensure that they are not complicit in any such activity. Two comprehensive guides exist to assist hoteliers in this process: Green Hotelier’s ‘Addressing Human Trafficking in the Hospitality Industry’\textsuperscript{218} and Staff Wanted guidance using the ‘SEE’ formula (Scrutinise, Engage, Ensure)\textsuperscript{219}. Hotels should also take steps to address and improve physical working conditions through ensuring room-cleaning allocations are reasonable, breaks are taken and making simple practical changes such as using fitted instead of flat sheets to avoid heavy lifting; and providing long-handled dusters and mops to avoid strain injuries\textsuperscript{220}.

For tour operators and others contracting hotels as part of their own supply chain, Tourism Concern makes a number of recommendations including thoroughly auditing hotel suppliers; ensuring all hotel staff are paid at least the minimum wage; and favouring hotels with collective bargaining agreements with their workers\textsuperscript{221}.

This is a preliminary review of the issues currently surfacing in the hospitality industry. Much of the evidence currently available is anecdotal; research is required to obtain concrete data to inform the debate still further and specifically to improve the working conditions of hospitality workers in the UK and further afield. Arguably a hotel with a long-standing, well-trained and well-rewarded workforce is one more likely to offer an improved guest experience\textsuperscript{222}. Most importantly, Responsible Tourism seeks to make better places to live in as well as to visit; ensuring that hospitality staff are treated as they should be is a significant element of that objective.


\textsuperscript{217} IHRB: Staff Wanted, accessed at http://www.ihrb.org/commentary/staff/staff-wanted-initiative.html


\textsuperscript{220} Unite Here, Hotel Housekeepers are getting hurt. Accessed at http://www.hotelworkersrising.org/media/fact_sheet_housekeepers_are_getting_hurt.pdf


Case study: Fair Hotels Ireland

Fair Hotels Ireland\textsuperscript{10} is a joint initiative of hotel workers and trade union representatives, with the objective of supporting and promoting quality employment in the Irish hospitality industry.

Fair Hotels respect their employees’ rights to a ‘voice at work’, committing to treat and pay their staff fairly and value their work. They recognise that this is key to providing excellent customer service, attracting and retaining a committed and skilled workforce and protecting quality jobs which will secure the viability of their hotels.
Project Management for Sustainable Tourism Development

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Introduction

Tourism is a key policy area for sustainable development both at the EU and member state level, as well as in countries worldwide. Governments have attempted to influence more sustainable production of consumption through numerous policies, programmes and projects. Yet we know relatively little about the success of these projects in changing the behaviour of either consumers, suppliers or other stakeholders. How do we support funders to improve the success rate of projects? Success is defined as achieving the project’s goals and objectives, in time, cost and quality and in the context of the project’s terms of reference [1]. Success factors are the variables that affect the likelihood of success, although all too often they are expected to explain success without taking into consideration the complex and dynamic relationships between the objectives, the interventions and the social and economic context in which the intervention occurs.

This article focuses on one aspect of improving project success, the professionalisation of sustainable tourism project managers. We present the Project Management for European Sustainable Development qualification, which aims to support project managers and aspiring project managers in developing and refining the skills necessary to plan and manage tourism projects effectively, and ensure they provide long-term benefits. It has been designed to meet the needs of four target groups: public and private tourism organisations, training organisations, professionals and students. PM4ESD® is based on PRINCE2® (Projects in Controlled Environments), a structured method of effective project management, the ‘de facto’ standard used extensively by the UK Government and widely recognised and used in the public and private sector, both in the UK and Internationally. The PM4ESD® methodology recognizes the multi-stakeholder structure present in most tourism projects and provides a systematic process of identifying and engaging with each of these groups which make up the various levels of management that are responsible for designing, planning, implementing and managing a project and its benefits. Beneficiaries, in whose name the project is being delivered, are rarely included as empowered stakeholders in the projects and they can rarely act as clients because they lack the organisational structures and experience to validate the project outputs, despite participative approaches to project delivery and evaluation [2]. By applying the PRINCE2® method of project management
to sustainable tourism, PM4ESD® has created a system of components and processes that can be applied to tourism projects that vary in size, destination and duration. However, by following these processes and recognizing the challenges that can be created by internal and external variables, project managers can ensure that they are able to achieve the outcomes, outputs and benefits through controlled and efficient project management.

**Components**

PM4ESD® is made up of a series of components. Besides the Sustainable Tourism component, outlined in the introduction and the basis for contextualising PM4ESD® for our sector, there are six components: business case, risk issue and change management, organisation, quality, planning, and progress control.

The Business Case component ensures that the resources used in the project will deliver justifiable benefits arising from the outputs and outcomes. Unfortunately this does not happen in many projects. There is evidence of donors partly choosing aid recipients based on potential trade benefits [3] or because of historic ties with former colonies. Donor performance goes beyond allocation, to include the amount of aid that is tied or the share of aid spent on administrative costs. For good project management, an express link between these benefits, and the daily focus on products (outputs) is essential- both are central to PM4ESD® methodology. All resources (costs, but also additional resources) are quantified, benefits and dis-benefits are measured, beneficiaries are identified and these accept a future handover of the benefits so there is a continued benefit from the project’s outputs. The Business Case is planned at the beginning (Project Initiation) and needs to be maintained throughout the life of the project, by making the necessary changes to the documentation as the project evolves, and when these changes are beyond established tolerance levels, referring it to the Project Board. The Business Case is central to the Benefits Realisation Plan, including a Benefits Map showing the link between the various benefits, and the Benefit Profiles describing the interdependencies and details of each benefit.

The problem comes from the limited research on the benefits of sustainable tourism projects. Weaver and Lawton [4] assessed ecotourism as still being in a “state of adolescence”, and Buckley says they “specifically excluded any attempt to evaluate its practical achievements or outcomes” [5:643]. World Bank employee Agnes Kiss wrote in 2004 on how projects often promoted as successful rely on external funding for long periods of time, or have little impact to show for themselves, and that such investments cannot be generally justified based on the value for money achieved for those communities and conservation [6]. Of 116 community-based tourism initiatives recommended by experts and practitioners, Goodwin and Santilli [7] identified only six which could be considered economically successful.
Hence the emphasis in PM4ESD® in identifying and managing risks- this is the role of the Risk, Issue and Change Management Component. Risks are managed through a procedure that helps identify, assess, control and respond to risks. It helps identify risks and apply appropriate risk responses for both threats and opportunities, in a reactive or proactive way. Risk owners are identified as the person responsible for managing the risk, while the risk actionee is the person best placed to deal with the risk. The Issue Management procedure helps deal with unforeseen events, which are captured, assessed, decided upon and rectified. These events are classified as change request, off-specification or other problem/questions. Risks and Issues are recorded in their Risk Log and Issue Log. When exceptions to the plan occur, and they go beyond tolerance levels, these are identified, assessed, reported and a Plan Exception Stage is developed.

The Organisation Component provides a clear definition of roles and responsibilities. There are four project interests that need to be represented: the business, user, supplier and sustainability. There are also four organisation levels: Strategy/Policy Making (in the Corporate or Project Management), Direction (Project Board), Management (Project Management), and Delivery (Team Management). A Project Assurance role is necessary to make sure that relevant standards are applied, and a Project Support provides technical and administrative support. In small teams, the same people can take more than one role, but the Project Manager can never also have the Project Assurance role. Because projects are not undertaken in a vacuum, and benefits will be accrued for a wider number of stakeholders, both a Stakeholder Analysis and a Communication Plan are necessary to ensure continuous two way engagement. This is central to the success of the project and eventual Benefits Realisation. The problem comes from the donor management of funds. Mosley, Harrigan and Toye [8] found that staff are under pressure to meet disbursement targets and spending the budget is a primary management objective. Failure to disburse funds may be seen as an indicator that there are problems in a department which reflects badly on staff [9]. Budgets are committed to interventions based on pledges, not performance, or when the latter is taken into account, it relates to procedural due diligence and not impact [10]. Funders therefore ought to take a more active role in the Organisation Component.

While the purpose of the project is the benefits, to deliver these the Quality Component follows the Focus on Products principle. It is therefore essential that the link between outputs, outcomes and benefits agreed in the Business Case Component was well defined. The Quality Component makes sure the products are fit for purpose, complying with the senior user quality expectations, making the senior supplier accountable for the resources and processes, monitored by the Project Manager, and delivered by the Team Managers. Quality management relies on using appropriate standards, identifying quality aspects of all products, planning and checking performance through tests, and ensuring a quality assurance role is
undertaken. A Quality Plan will establish these requirements, and a Quality Log is used to record deviations. Unfortunately too often we don’t have Quality Plans, and these rarely include a user quality expectations. Briendenann [11] argues that projects tend to be supply-driven despite commercial sustainability and market access being critical. Simpson [12] has argued that the development of community-based tourism initiatives, a typical donor funded project type, suffer from a lack of understanding of the requirements of both the market and the distribution channels, which continue to impact competitiveness by controlling the flow of visitors, and the knowledge of what these visitors need.

Quality is closely related to the Planning Component. There are four levels of a plan; Programme, Project, Stage and Team levels. Additionally an Exception Plan can replace a Stage plan when acceptable tolerances have been exceeded, and the Project Board has allowed the Project Manager to continue with the project, but under a modified plan. The Product Based Planning Technique is used to create the Product Description for the Final Product, the product breakdown structure, additional product descriptions for each newly identified product, and a product flow diagram that shows their development.

It is of concern that coordinators perceive success of their own projects based on the management performance (as commonly defined, by time, cost and quality) and on the project’s profile (visibility/ reputation/ image). Khang and Moe [13:82] found that “despite the conventional wisdom that the competence of the project designers, planners and the project management team is most related to success”, the empirical evidence shows that effective consultations are far more important in influencing the project success, at least for the international development projects. Diallo and Thuillier [14] found that project impact (understood as performance against objectives in the logical framework) was not an important criteria for coordinators of projects. Instead it was all about getting the job done on time, on budget and on spec, and being seen as having done a good job. This is in part because aid managers judge the implementers by criteria that focus on the process of outputs and outcomes. There is little or no focus or accountability for impacts. It is at least for this reason that the PM4ESD® Progress Control Component reinforces the lines of authority outlined in the Organization Component. The concept of tolerance has been mentioned in several occasions. This results from the principle of management by exception, establishing that each management level will be allowed to undertake its role within certain parameters established for the six project variables (timescales, costs, quality, scope, risks and benefits). Tolerance is the acceptable deviation from the plan, and it needs to be set for each type of plan. Monitoring and Control measures are needed for progress, risk and issue monitoring, achievements, work package, stage plan, project plan, go/no-go assessment, and problem solving activities. These controls are defined in more detail in the processes described below.
Processes

PM4ESD® is designed both as a set of components and processes. In this section we outline key aspects of the processes: project direction, project initiation, stage definition and planning, stage control and product delivery, and project closure.

The Project Direction process runs across the entire project, making sure the Project Board takes the directive role. The Project Board appoints a Project Manager, signs contracts, organises stakeholder meetings, until it is satisfied that it can authorise the project initiation. Unfortunately donors tend to not be sufficiently active during the project delivery, only at allocation and somewhat at monitoring. There is a lack of transparency in decision-making [15, 16], often assumed to be apolitical, although in reality practice has been closer to enlightened self-interest - the emphasis not on the difference the project makes, but on having a presence on that location or topic [17]. Hawkins and Mann [18] have argued that the World Bank has made tourism development decisions that were data-poor. Funded interventions have not been monitored sufficiently to identify the impact of the interventions, particularly in relation to poverty reduction. This is why in PM4ESD® the Project Manager will gather information under the Project Initiation Documentation to the satisfaction of the Project Board, who then give the mandate to authorise project delivery. The Project Board remain in control of the project yet delegate its management based on agreed plans for the delivery of each stage. As stages get completed they review and approve the End of Stage Reports, and review and approve the Stage Plan for the following stage. The Project Board also authorises Project Closure, gives general direction and support when needed, and keeps stakeholders informed. Finally, the Project Board is responsible for performing the Benefit Realisation Review, to ensure that the correct benefits are identified and being measured. They then approve the Benefits Realisation Plan and prepare for the Benefits Realisation Reviews.

The Project Initiation Stage will develop the plans (communication, risk and issue management, quality, project), all of which inform the business case and together form the Project Initiation Documentation. This is an essential phase, and is often rushed. A solid Project Initiation Stage, as outlined in the PM4ESD® methodology, would solve some of the problems occurring later of not measuring success [2] or of focusing on outputs and outcomes, rather than impacts [19]. Without clearly setting out the project at this stage there is a risk in keeping costs close to the designated budgets rather than focusing on the impact of these interventions [20].

At the Stage Definition and Planning phase, we start to deliver the project in manageable stages, and based on the plans detailed in the Project Initiation Documentation. This can be in the form of a Next-Stage Plan, or if the project is deviating beyond tolerance from the Project Initiation Documentation, the Project Manager does an Exception Plan. At each stage the Project Manager writes a Lessons Report and an End Stage Report, both of
which inform the Project Board, and allow them to authorise the next Management Stage. The different plans designed in the Project Initiation Stage will be reviewed regularly in line with changing management and external influences. When changes are beyond established levels of tolerance, the Project Board in their Project Direction role will be required to authorise the continuation of the project.

Once a Stage has been defined and planned, the delivery of that stage takes place within the Stage Control and Product Delivery Process. The different tasks within one stage are grouped into work packages: these are agreed, assigned, and accepted by the Team Manager responsible for delivering it. To record these possible deviations, the plans from the Project Initiation Documentation need a series of logs (risk, quality, issue, daily logs). Products are delivered, logs are updated and action is taken to deal with deviations. Progress is reported in the form of Progress Reports or, if more regular and specific information is needed, through Checkpoint Reports. Few Project Managers will spend the sufficient time at this stage, and there has to be a greater incentive for the recipient to use aid effectively [21]. Svensson [16] identifies rent-seeking behaviour arising from aid dependency as one of the reasons for project failure as donors and intermediaries seek to ensure the sustainability of intermediaries and consultants (implementers), in going from project to project, rather than concerning themselves with the sustainability of the initiatives, or the long term impacts for the intended beneficiaries [22]. The underfunding of intermediary agencies, consequent lack of professional capacity and high staff turnover, means that often the implementers have the institutional memory [23].

Every project comes to an end, and the aim is to have a fixed and controlled Project Closure. Project plans (communication, risk and issue management, quality, project) will be reviewed to assess performance against them and records are archived for future audits. Maintaining a business case throughout the project is essential: at this stage, this requires having completed the Benefits Realisation Plan by handing over the products to the appropriate parties, identified as Benefit Owners who accept their benefit responsibilities. At this stage, the project is evaluated (via a Lessons Learned Report) and a project closure is requested from the Project Board (by submitting an End of Project Report).

Conclusions

Ten characteristics are important in explaining success and failure in the implementation of sustainable tourism projects according to Armstrong [24]: a cohesive and resilient community; genuine community participation, ownership and control; adoption of a commercial mind-set, planning for financial viability from the outset; engagement with the private sector; initiatives based on market research and demand-driven product development; providing attractive, quality products based on natural and cultural assets and which are more accessible to tourists; time; engagement, support and collaboration
in the enterprise by stakeholders with key areas of expertise; transparent and accountable governance, leadership and decision-making structures as well as sound, skilled financial management; and monitoring and evaluation so that communities and others can share and learn from experience and ensure continued success. It is good news that many of the aspects found by Armstrong are central to the design of the PM4ESD® methodology. Clearly, a qualification for project managers can only partly help improve the gap between the expectations of donor funded projects and the current performance. More prepared project managers, and better donor management of projects are both essential elements of improved success rates on sustainable tourism projects.

References


Community-based eco-tourism: innovative models in Latin America

Felipe Zalamea, Founder and Director of Sumak Sustainable Travel

Mass tourism can be an incredibly destructive activity with far-reaching consequences. In Latin America, local communities have set up eco-tourism projects that are becoming a truly viable solution to some of the most urgent problems faced by human kind today, such as global warming, deforestation and land speculation.

By local community we mean a group of people living in the same place and having something in common, be it culture, economic activity or simply the land and its ecosystems. In most cases they are farmers, fishermen, indigenous peoples, artisans or quilombolas, living in remote, beautiful and well-preserved rural areas. For many of these communities, the tourism potential of their land and traditions was so evident that they decided to build infrastructures to host visitors and set up community-led projects to improve their standard of living and preserve the environment.

These initiatives offer services such as accommodation, guided tours, traditional gastronomy and cultural activities. A fair-trade logic is applied, so tourists are paying a fair price in exchange for high quality and often unique products and services, within a context of transparency and equality. For tourists it is a genuine and rich experience; they get to know the local traditions, take part in authentic cultural activities and have the opportunity to see unspoilt nature and eco-systems.

The case study: Prainha do Canto Verde

One good example is the Prainha do Canto Verde, a community of fishermen located in Ceara state, on the North-East coast of Brazil. In the early 1990s, the local community – about 200 families – started suffering from a fall in fish stocks, while the

223 www.sumak-travel.org/
224 A Quilombo is a Brazilian hinterland settlement founded by people of African origin ; a quilombola is a resident of such a settlement
226 http://prainhadocantoverde.org/
price of land started rising because of property speculation. The threat of mass tourism was becoming a reality. In response, they decided to mobilise to find a way to protect their territory and improve their quality of life.

Prainha do Canto Verde was the first community-based eco-tourism (CBET) project on the Brazilian coast. From the outset, its main focus was on income redistribution and cultural and environmental conservation. Most of the products and services offered to tourists – food, handicrafts, guided treks, etc. – are locally sourced and provided by community members, and because of the income redistribution system, there is no sense of competition between the inns (pousadas). According to Antonio Aires, one of the project leaders, CBET must continue to be a complementary source of income -it currently represents 15% of the total- thus enabling improved living standards for the community’s inhabitants without endangering their cultural traditions or the environment.

Along with other organised communities and following this line of thinking, Prainha do Canto Verde founded the Network of Community-based Tourism of Ceara (Tucum)\textsuperscript{227} in 2008. Today, 11 coastal communities and two civil society organisations in Fortaleza (capital city of Ceara state) are part of the network. Their main aims are to increase the visibility of community-based tourism and to apply strategies that lead to greater political awareness within the communities, in particular regarding systematic violations of their rights.

The Tucum model can easily be replicated in any other group of local communities with a moderate to high potential for tourism. It offers effective protection against the harmful effects of mass tourism, such as property speculation, destruction of the environment and exploitation of workers.

The innovative models

After more than a year conducting research on the ground, we found several models being implemented by local communities all across Latin America. Parallels between them are astonishing: without being aware of each other’s existence, they have been following a similar set of principles and values, notably income redistribution, operational transparency and capacity building. They all consider themselves to be cultural and environmental conservationists. In a sentence, they do the polar opposite of mass tourism.

A straightforward way of classifying these innovative models is by their legal structure. The Tucum model is the simplest one: a network of small local projects, supported by like-minded NGOs and grass-root movements so they are able to commercialise

\textsuperscript{227} http://www.tucum.org/
their services, get visibility and operate at national level. Another good example for this model is the Central de Turismo Comunitario da Amazonia, which regroups five small CBET initiatives near Manaus, in the heart of the Brazilian Amazon rainforest.

Then there is the co-operative model, where several local communities and/or CBET projects centralise their operations under this democratic legal structure, obtaining more independence and visibility as a group. This model works well at local and regional levels, the best examples being the Rural Tourism Network in Salta228 (Argentina) and Cocla Tours229 near Cusco (Peru).

Associations work best at a national level and when there are other driving forces besides tourism. This is the model followed by the Solidarity and Community-based Tourism Network230 (Tusoco) of Bolivia, which started 10 years ago with the aim of defending the culture and improving the living conditions of rural communities across the country, in particular those formed by indigenous peoples and farmers. In 2008 they set up their own travel agency in La Paz, a democratically managed social enterprise whose mission is not to maximise profit but to commercialise tourism services offered by the 26 local communities in the network.

Finally, there are responsible tour operators, organisations that are not managed directly by local communities but adhere to the social enterprise model. They work at national and international levels, have full operational independence and deal with other major stakeholders such as Governments, NGOs and Foundations. Some examples are Aoka231 in Brazil, Mambe Travel232 in Colombia and Travolution233 in Chile.

It is essential to understand that, regardless of the model they work under, the local communities involved are not becoming tourism entrepreneurs. Farmers still want to grow vegetables and breed animals, indigenous peoples still want to live their culture and preserve their traditions, fishermen still want to fish, and so on. CBET is a source of complementary income that they use to improve their standard of living and to preserve their culture and eco-systems.

The lack of visibility

Are you aware that you can spend your holiday with fishing communities in Brazil, farmers in Argentina or indigenous peoples in Bolivia? Thousands of similar CBET initiatives have been flourishing in recent decades all over Latin America and the

228 http://turismocampesino.org/
229 http://coclatours.com/
230 www.tucum.org/
231 http://aoka.com.br/
232 http://mambe.org/
233 www.travolution.org/
developing world, but are still suffering from a lack of visibility. For travellers it is difficult to find them and virtually impossible to book any of their trips directly.

Although local communities are excellent hosts, farmers, cooks, guides, fishermen, etc., they do not have marketing skills, which makes things difficult in particular when they have to price their products and services or need to attract new customers. On the other hand, mainstream tour operators systematically misunderstand the concept of CBET and rather than being part of the solution, are part of the problem.

CBET initiatives are strengthened by the creation of local, national and international networks, while the support of sister institutions (charities, universities, NGOs, social and grass-root movements) has proven to be essential. Efforts need to be focussed on a plan of action to improve the services offered by communities already operating and to create structures to support communities looking to start their own projects.

You know it is truly rural community tourism if it:

1. Combines natural beauty and the daily life of rural communities;
2. Promotes productive and sustainable practices;
3. Adapts to rural life and preserves the welcoming, relaxed, and rustic atmosphere of the countryside;
4. Is kept going by local initiatives and local people and strengthens local organisations;
5. Employs local people, distributes benefits even-handedly and supplements farming income;
6. Promotes land ownership by the local population

Source: Adapted from the Costa Rican Association of Community-based Rural Tourism

International progress

The gap between CBET initiatives (supply) and potential foreign tourists (demand) is not only a matter of visibility. At different levels, CBET faces a shortage of market channels to effectively commercialise products and services abroad. In 2012, Sumak Sustainable Travel[^234] was launched in London to tackle this problem. As a tour operator and social enterprise, Sumak works directly with CBET initiatives all across Latin America, creating standard and tailor-made tours for discerning travellers worldwide.

CBET is acquiring global visibility as a group of connected local initiatives following similar principles. Today they belong to the same network and are starting to create

[^234]: www.sumak-travel.org/
multinational trips. In time, the CBET network will also effectively act as an exchange system of knowledge and best practice techniques; a model that could easily be implemented throughout the developing world. The demand for ethical and responsible holidays is growing, and so the main challenge is to make CBET affordable and accessible to everyone.
Addressing the Social Side of Sustainability: Guidelines for the Hospitality Industry

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In recent years, sustainability has been widely perceived and practiced in forms of greenification. The hospitality industry has made significant development in the ‘green’ department by driving towards more sustainable technologies and processes that help both the environment and the bottom line. However, sustainable development should encompass the three elements of people, planet and profit (the 3Ps) – implying long-term considerations for all stakeholders.

With planet and profit already the focal point of the industry’s sustainability efforts, the issue of people, and the pursuit of their basic human rights is crucial, and requires an unflinching focus on the communities our industry operates in.

Now it is easy to point the finger at other industries whose shortcomings are widely covered by the media, most notably with regards to manufacturing – ranging from child workers producing our sneakers and tablets, to factories installing suicide nets in a delusional attempt to minimize a horrific symptom instead of fixing the problem. However, before we judge and move on, we need to take a step back and observe our industry. When we look closer to home it becomes evident that the areas to be addressed are vast and human rights in hospitality remain shrouded by the obscurity of idealism. A mass of work needs to be done to address complicated issues including but certainly not limited to: gaps in wages between men and women in the same positions; withholding of passports and wages by hotel developers in the Middle East, forcing employees to work until they have paid off an ambiguous debt; the polluting of local water sources by hotel companies in tourist hot spots like Tanzania; or the uncompensated redistribution of land occupied by the world’s poorest communities by local governments to build a foreign-owned all-inclusive resort in Africa and Southeast Asia.

The Brundtland Commission of the United Nations states “sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” Ultimately, present and future needs comprise a plethora of rights to be addressed, and the small sample covered in this article is neither meant to be viewed as exclusive, nor as indicative of a hierarchy of rights, for that in itself would violate the fundamentals of human rights. Instead, view this article as a challenge to the industry’s most innovative leaders to change the status quo of this evolving industry. Here are some guidelines to help you factor these rights into strategic decision-making.

235 This article was first published in HOTELS magazine.
Incorporate a social element into your vision

Whether setting up a new business or updating an existing one, it is critical that you operate in an entirely transparent and sustainable manner. This means standing clear of any form of discrimination, corruption, exploitation and unlawful practice, even in areas where the local law is poorly enforced. This can best be accomplished by organizing a series of workshops with employees, customers, and authoritative figures from the local community (trade unions, local government, activist groups, etc.). Start by (re) evaluating your vision and mission, taking on board input, criticism and advice from all your stakeholders before communicating these through your entire organization. Your vision and mission must run through the veins of your organization whilst tailored to the community in question.

One example is the conception of Nairobi’s luxury boutique hotel, Tribe Hotel, which was built with a strong consideration to helping locals overcome a turbulent reality caused by tribalism in the region. According to Mark Somen, former General Manager of the property and Director at sustainability-oriented consulting firm Craft House LLC, “by creating one culture among employees originating from once feuding tribes, what has been accomplished is remarkable and is best reflected by the hotel’s vision, or Tribe Philosophy: ‘There is only One Planet and there is only One Tribe that matters… humankind.’”

Set realistic, measurable and customized goals

Selected human rights initiatives need to be realistic, clearly defined and measurable. A clear set of goals allows a company to introduce measurable key performance indicators that will set the foundation for your employees to both monitor progression and provide timely feedback. Moreover, the ability to track progress allows for your achievements to be laid out for your customers and the media, as well as other key stakeholders. “The different players in our industry need to work together to ensure that the entire tourism supply chain is considerate and respectful of human rights,” explains Simon Pickup, Sustainable Tourism Manager at UK-based ABTA – the Travel Association and proprietor of the Travelife Sustainability System certification for tourism businesses – “the real challenge relates to how we identify the risks associated with human rights in tourism for each different place around the world, and then how to address concerns in a proactive and reactive way keeping in mind the differences in social and political cultures.”

Spanish hotel chain Riu Hotels and Resorts recently included a ‘Social’ section on their website as a platform to outline their human rights initiatives. Each initiative is then subdivided into four parts: Commitments, Objectives, Measures, and Achievements. According to Catalina Alemany, Corporate Sustainability Manager at RIU, “we know that our impact will not be huge, but structuring our efforts the way we have in collaboration
with ABTA will allow us to maximize the impact we do have on social sustainability and human rights.”

Travel service provider Kuoni has taken human rights inclusion and tracking to the next level across its vertically integrated supply chain. Through the development of its Human Rights Impact Assessment, impact is defined, its progress tracked, and results analyzed across the entire supply chain, from which sustainable and scalable solutions may be subsequently implemented.

**Continue to update and implement sustainability standards across your entire value chain**

Social and environmental standards need to form an integral part of your company’s standard operating procedures (SOPs). The Rezidor Hotel Group has set up a Responsible Business (RB) organization with a RB coordinator on each property. Their main remit is to both coordinate compliance with RB related SOPs and head up a property-based RB committee that is tasked with coming up with local environmental, community and ethics initiatives - all within Rezidor’s award winning RB framework: *Think Planet, Think People and Think Together*.

“Standards should be clear and concise so that employees may immediately understand them, and they should be mandatory for all employees to learn and become part of daily operations,” explains Inge Huijbrechts, VP Responsible Business for the company. “That’s why we train all our employees on Living and Leading Responsible Business, including on topics like our Code of Business Ethics and Child Protection. We maintain open lines of communication across all departments companywide - a key to ensuring our RB values and Code of Business Ethics are lived by.” Rezidor has secured this line of communication by setting up a website available in 11 languages where employees can address any concerns. Top management then follows up on each case, taking corrective and disciplinary action as needed.

**Commit to the development of infrastructure & education in communities you are operating in**

It is vital that you help local communities implement and manage their own infrastructure when updating your own. In doing so, not only are you leading the drive towards more sustainable technologies and processes and hence being branded as a sustainability champion within the industry, but you are also assisting in subsequent community development that will increase the attractiveness of the destination you are operating in.

One paradigm was highlighted by Mark Watson, Director of UK-based non-profit Tourism Concern, as follows: “in many tourist hot spots situated in coastal regions like
Goa or on islands like Zanzibar, access to clean water and sanitation is a key ingredient to advancing health in the region and will result in a higher life expectancy and larger participation from the poorest individuals in host communities. “A prerequisite for tourists, clean and safe water and sanitation infrastructure also raises the level of destination attractiveness. In many communities, a small investment in the implementation or improvement of basic water and sanitation has the potential of advancing both social equality and economic growth.

Improved health alongside time saved from no longer being ill or having to make long, dangerous journeys to go and fetch water give more people basic access and time for education, opening the door to a wealth of opportunities. Whether through the sponsorship of a local school, the participation in an international training partnership, or through an in-house traineeship program, taking initiative in this regard will help develop a more suitable and sustainable workforce for your business to source its talent from. The consequential decrease in outsourcing professional labour from abroad will promote organic and continuous development of locals within your organization.

**Take a zero tolerance approach to sub-standard working conditions**

As a standard, it is critical that all employees are working in a safe and just environment, free of abuse, fairly compensated for the work they are conducting, and with easy and affordable access to such things as healthcare, hygiene and education – whether through the company or a government programme. Any substandard working conditions or human rights violations within the industry should be firmly rejected and swiftly corrected.

As emphasized by Stephen Farrant, Director of the International Tourism Partnership (ITP), “all hotel and tourism businesses, no matter where they operate, should employ a strategy of conscious vigilance towards human trafficking and sexual exploitation; while instances are relatively rare given the scale of the industry, they do arise from time to time – as they do in all industry sectors – in spite of the best corporate policies, so there is no room for complacency.” The Youth Career Initiative, one of ITP’s flagship programs, works with international hotel companies to train disadvantaged youth around the world and has an 85% success rate with regards to participants going on to either be recruited by the service industry or continuing in their education. In cooperation with the US State Department, the YCI programme now includes survivors of human trafficking who account for up to 20% of the total mix of participants in certain markets. It also makes sure that these individuals are not identified as one of the victims to their peers in the programme, but rather ‘just one of the intake’, while also providing them access to the kinds of additional support that trafficking survivors need as they continue their process of re-integration into mainstream society.
Include your human rights approach and community development initiatives in marketing efforts

By operating in a completely transparent and socially sustainable manner you are reducing potentially expensive legal, operational and reputational risks, and thus giving your organization the opportunity to attract and retain better talent that will drive your bottom line.

By successfully leading sustainable change in the industry, you are setting your organization up to become a best practice example that its marketing team can then take to the bank. While this should not be your main motivation, it is a great reward for doing what is right, and makes complete business sense.

“Good hospitality is about profit, great hospitality is about being a good neighbour” – words spoken by my former colleague Ritu Primlani (HVS Sustainable Services, New Delhi). This message should be central to each and every decision made across all sectors of the hospitality industry, for at the end of the day your business is only as sustainable as the community it operates in.
From mass tourism towards responsible tourism: A survey for participatory governance of the tourist destination

Prof. Rossanno Pazzagli, University of Molise.

Dr Igor Vegni, IRTA “Leonardo” - Research Institute on Territory and Environment, Pisa.

Dr Alexandra Schmidt, East Asia Onlus.

Tourism has undergone some very important changes in recent years. This is demonstrated by the fact that individuals who travel these days on holiday have much higher expectations than ever before. Nowadays not only do pricing strategies determine the choice of a holiday retreat, but also other essential factors such as cultural offerings, environmental standards and the promotion of eco-friendly practices promoted by the political elite are more and more decisive. The success of a tourism region depends on a set of elements, including a more sustainable and holistic approach to local environmental management problems by government and the active participation of civil society.

Despite facing serious political and economic problems, Italy is still one of the most popular travel destinations for international travelers. Tuscany is one of the most visited regions of Italy. Besides the renowned cities of art, quaint medieval villages and the rural landscape, Tuscany features some of the most beautiful beach resorts making it a sought-after destination for many tourists. Lately however, this popular location, like many other tourist destinations, is having to deal with the new demands of holidaymakers. In this historical phase, marked by a transition from mass tourism towards a more authentic tourism experience, the concept of territorial competitiveness is more complex and depends no longer only on the privileged geographical location, but more and more on the ability to provide an environment where the quality of life is high and the risk of congestion is low. In a community where the encounter between global models and local identities returns to be feasible, the promotion of responsible tourism could make a significant contribution to support the area and, if used properly, provide a

239 UNWTO (2013) UNWTO World Tourism Barometer vol.11 January 2013 (http://www.unwto.org)
241 The current crises of the prevailing models of development implies an encounter between global models and local identity. A glocal approach allows to overcome the contradictions and shortcomings of the global model, without being trapped in localism (see also Pazzagli, R. (2010) Analisi e critica dell identità. Note metodologiche per una glocal history. Glocale, 1, 57-86.)
new development opportunity to the tourist industry. In order to achieve this important goal, the Region Toscana (administrative headquarters of the region) joined the European project NECs Tour\textsuperscript{242} a few years ago (Carta di Firenze, November 2007). This important project aims to support local stakeholders in implementing sustainable environmental management and in addressing cultural and social issues on the territory.

In support of local governance the IRTA ‘Leonardo’ – Research Institute on Territory and Environment, a department of interdisciplinary studies at the University of Pisa, is carrying out an empirical study on the current state of coastal and maritime tourism in the province of Livorno. San Vincenzo, in the 70s also called the ‘Pearl of the Tyrrhenian Sea’ was chosen as the location for the pilot study largely because of its favorable geographical position and the fact that the first tourism movements were recorded between 18th and 19th, tourism grew rapidly from the 20s of the 20th century\textsuperscript{243}. This picturesque town is situated directly on the seafront overlooking an important archipelago of islands and offers beautiful sandy beaches and fertile hills, which are home to very attractive wines and many culinary specialties, as well as a natural heritage of great value, characterized by agriculture and ancient mining works. Despite these resources, San Vincenzo is currently caught in a worrisome economic crisis which has a negative impact also on social and cultural aspects. Similar to other seaside location in this area the private and public tourism entrepreneurs failed to take into account the importance of a strategy designed to support the steady development of tourism. Furthermore, urban planning as well as economic planning implemented by public entrepreneurs was carried out without any real participation by the community. Excessive development compromised the natural environment of the area undermining for tourism. The final result was an over urbanized area, unable to meet neither the needs of its potential visitors nor the needs of the local community.

The optimal encounter between host and guest only happens if the relationship between tourists’ expectations and local opportunities offered by the community is well balanced\textsuperscript{244}. Leading marketing agencies often focus only on semiotic analysis without assessing the effective human resources present in the field\textsuperscript{245}. This can cause an improper balance in the encounter between host and guest. During the first phase, the pilot research IRTA ‘Leonardo’ – Pisa (which is already involved in the reconstruction of the historical events of local tourism)\textsuperscript{246} was introduced through an ethnographic methodological

\textsuperscript{242} See \url{http://www.necstour.eu/necstour/home.page}
\textsuperscript{246} In addition to the previously mentioned volume “Terra di Mare” (land of sea), there is a current research going on concerning the phase of mass tourism from 1950’s to about 1980’s.
approach\textsuperscript{247}, increasingly used even in industrialized countries\textsuperscript{248}. The qualitative analyses obtained through semi-structured interviews and focus groups, allows the more direct engagement of the local community and promotes participation. After this first phase, the collected data will be available for further investigations. Following the opinions emerged during this ethnographic study about the development of the territory and the tourism industry, a choice modeling\textsuperscript{249} questionnaire will be formulated and then applied for interviews to tourists.

In an age of charter flights, low cost offers and the jungle of internet marketing the ‘Life Cycle’\textsuperscript{250} of many seaside towns came to a fork in the road. Either there will be found some appropriate renewal strategy or otherwise decline is inexorable. Responsible tourism proposed in these locations represents a valuable resource, able to respond to requests for changes within the tourism market. Locations such as San Vincenzo are very privileged with regard to quality of life, widespread prosperity, and the promotion of a cultural product based on integration of genuine resources by combining nature and culture, traditions and landscape as well as gastronomy and leisure. In order to take advantage of these strengths it requires the activation of processes supporting the “typicality” of the location, and the prevention of counterproductive transformations that makes a place anonymous and without character. The use of these strengths cannot be imposed from above on the community, but must come from the community itself by selecting endogenous tools of intervention. The goal of the research conducted by IRTA ‘Leonardo’ – Pisa is to assist the community to understand itself, its historical and social, and especially its tourism potential. Finally, it must be considered that the ‘typicality’ of a place cannot be pre-established, but derives from a continuous process of modeling affected by external forces, especially such as the management capacity of the community, seen not only as a public service, but as a set of entities that form the governance of the territory and the local society.


World Responsible Tourism Day case study: encouraging environmental awareness in children through ecotourism interpretation

Christopher Warren\textsuperscript{251}, Jane Gripper and Lara Claringbould\textsuperscript{252}

The authors have permission from the headmaster of the school to use these photographs. The album of the day is available on line at \url{www.crystalcreekmeadows.com.au/sites/default/files/Getting%20Connected%20To%20Nature.pdf}.

Introduction

The annual World Responsible Tourism Day (WRTD) demonstrates sustainable tourism in action around the world by independent and trans-national tourism providers. While the event is growing, there has been little review of the outcomes and the sharing of information gleaned from activities. For these reasons this report explains an Australian WRTD activity in 2012 and outlines how the findings are being used to further the Responsible Tourism campaign.

\textsuperscript{251} Director of the International Centre for Responsible Tourism - Australia
\textsuperscript{252} Authors’ Declaration of Conflicting Interests: Christopher Warren is a partner in Crystal Creek Meadows. Jane Gripper was previously a teacher at Kangaroo Valley Public School.
The aim of the WRTD activity was to measure the influence of three ecotourism activities on children’s nature connectedness and their environmental concern.

There were four reasons for this focus.

1. Education was seen as a core pillar of the Cape Town Declaration (2002); the principle to positively contribute to environmental conservation and promoting education awareness for sustainable development. This is particularly poignant when faced with continued human behaviour causing climate change and biodiversity loss, (Scott and Gossling, 2011). This directly affects the long-term sustainability of tourism and the natural environment, (Simpson et al, 2008) and subsequently must make it a priority for Responsible Tourism. In fact the call for education was emphasised back in 1987 by Brundtland who suggested that the “concept of sustainable development depends on a vast campaign of public education and re-education....changing the attitude of people everywhere is a fundamental prerequisite”, (World Commissions on Environment and Development, 1987, p.7).

2. Ecotourism has been identified as a conduit for change. It improves tourism’s standing and is recognised as a key to achieve environmental conservation, (National Geographic, 2013; UNWTO, 1999; UNWTO, 2013). This is a sector that is clearly exposed to the impacts of climate change whilst growing at 10% per annum, (Ecotourism Australia, 2013). Ecotourism is defined as “ecologically sustainable tourism with a primary focus on experiencing nature areas that foster environmental and cultural understanding and conservation”, (Ecotourism Australia, n.d.). For Australia this encompasses Aboriginal cultural heritage which binds together humans, the living world and the geology. Their belief system has successfully enabled this sophisticated civilisation to survive alongside the natural world for thousands of years. By integrating Aboriginal culture into the WRTD activity it also met the social principles of the Cape Town Declaration, (WTM World Responsible Tourism Day, 2013).

3. The project sought to measure the effectiveness of a tourism operator’s ability to influence connection to nature and environmental concern, on a broad level rather than a localised programme. This was considered a necessary goal because changing an individual’s world view is essential if we are going to protect the environment. Making the right choice, in part, depends on our connection to the environment (Mayer & Frantz, 2004; Schultz & Zelezny, 1999).

4. Children are the next generation who will need to positively tackle climate change and take appropriate environmentally- responsible action, it is important that they have a connection with nature, hold environmental concerns and are able to take positive pro-environmental action.
Review

In preparation for the activity, a literature review was completed. Whilst Responsible Tourism is practical action rather than theoretical, it was important to measure the activity using peer assessed methods and build on academic studies.

Connection and concern for the environment

Understanding individuals’ beliefs and attitudes towards the environment have been widely researched, (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Schultz, 2002; Sneglar, 2006; Hansla et al, 2007; Lee, 2011). Results suggest that individuals have different environmental beliefs and attitudes based on their level of connection with nature. Sneglar identified that there were four value orientations that individuals tended to comply with; Egoistic (one self), Altruistic (family, friends & humans) and Biospheric either animal life or plant life, (Sneglar, 2006). The closer an individual is to Biospheric values the closer their connection with nature. Life experiences which expose an individual to nature in a memorable way, can build a pro-environmental connection, (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002).

An individual’s environmental concern relates to an awareness of the consequences of actions. The stronger an individual’s association with a place or subject the greater the motivation to act, (Hansla et al, 2008) and (Lee, 2011). Therefore the more connected an individual is with nature, and the greater their empathy for an issue, the higher their level of capacity to take pro-environmental action.

Experience led interpretation

Building an individual’s experience of nature can be through ecotourism interpretation which seeks to foster greater understanding of the natural world through interpretation. Studies have shown that interpretation is a complex process requiring crafted communication by the host to the guest, (Warren, 2012). Two case studies aptly demonstrate that visitor actions can be challenges through belief-based communication and reflection and that leaflets and signs are insufficient to change behaviour, (Kim et al, 2011; Ballantyne et al, 2011).

This suggests that Responsible Tourism interpretation needs to:

a) Have a high degree of personalisation targeting an individual’s beliefs,

b) Include time for reflection to encourage connection

c) Provide opportunities for individuals to develop an awareness of the wider consequences of human action
d) Offer experiences which influence beliefs, to stimulate long-term behaviour change.

The reflection period and the ability to think through the consequences appear to be essential to encourage pro-environmental behaviour in the long-term.

Without the components of reflection and personalisation as demonstrated in the above two case studies, it may be harder for the individual to connect ‘self’ with nature, connect concern with awareness of consequences and to motivate action. The interpretation should be an unforgettable experience.

Crafting an experience

Tourism is part of the experience economy where visitors seek real authenticity, (Goodwin, 2011). Pine & Gillmore’s ‘experience economy model’ shows that experiences are created from passive or active participation, absorption or immersion approaches to create engaging education, escapist, entertaining and aesthetic experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Successful tourism experiences also focus on the visitor’s need for self-expression, meaning the tourism provider must personalise the experience. Therefore to be ‘successful’, environmental education interpretations experiences must deliver a fully engaging active experience to establish a stronger connection to nature and therefore encourage pro-environmental behaviour.

Aboriginal Cultural Heritage

Ecotourism’s definition includes fostering an understanding of culture. A review of the local aboriginal cultural belief systems was undertaken not through academic literature but by meeting an elder and learning of local communities values. This was done over a long period to build trust.

What makes Aboriginal cultural heritage such an important resource is that its belief systems binds plants, animals, earth and humans into a close connected bond. Aboriginal people bestow moogengals, ‘guardian friends’, on their children by way of their parents, family, tribe and nation. These moogengals can be birds, fish, mammals, plants and trees. Each individual grows up with a unique set of moogengals depending on their area of inhabitants, family line, tribe and other relationships (Freeman, 2012; Australian Government, 2008).

Moogengals appear in Dreamtime stories, the formal way that law, history and survival guidance has been communicated for thousands of years (Aboriginal Australia Art & Cultural Centre, n.d.). These stories are also presented as tourist entertainment which should only be authentically told by respected elders (Galamban, n.d). Children are told these stories which form part of their education. They learn about their local
terrain and *moogengal* characteristics. This cultural system could therefore provide a way to build interest and connection with nature for children. There is also the additional benefit, of utilising Aboriginal cultural heritage as an educational method, as it may contribute to the conservation of bio-cultural diversity, (Maiero and Shen, 2004).

**Observations**

The review identified that individuals had different levels of connection with nature and that stronger Biospheric attitudes were achieved through memorable experiences that had built beliefs, (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). Moreover, the level of egoistic, altruistic and biospheric environmental concerns are linked to corresponding levels of awareness of environmental consequences, (Hansla et al, 2008). Using interpretation during an ecotourism experience must include *active participation* and *absorption*. The visitor must have time for reflection and the ability to think through consequences.

**The Activity on World Responsible Tourism Day**

Crystal Creek Meadows in Kangaroo Valley, Australia, a responsible tourism accommodation provider, was the venue for an ecotourism fieldtrip for the local school children on WRTD. The aim was to measure the influence of three ecotourism activities on children’s connection to nature connectedness and their environmental concern. Figure 1 shows the activity plan:

1. **56 School children from Kangaroo Valley Public School finished a self-completion questionnaire which indicated their connection with nature value type (Egoistic, Altruistic and Biospheric)**

2. **On November 6th the children arrived at the property with their teachers**

3. **The project team explained the day’s activities. They were first briefed on the background of the Aboriginal term *moogengal*, and they were given three of these *Moogengals* as their guardian friends; (one of their own, one for their father and one for their mother) in an attempt to establish a bond between the children and these animals and plants.**

4. **The children were then put into three teams and in rotation participated in three activities:**
   a. *Aboriginal story telling* (which linked with their *moogengals*),
   b. *Learning about tree characteristics then planting a tree each*
   c. *A physical activity which demonstrated food miles*. They were then asked to think about a scenario whereby they were trapped in Kangaroo Valley and had to source local food in order to survive.
5 After completing the three activities the children relaxed and were asked to listen to the sounds of nature around them, feel the breeze and then reflect on their day.

6 The children were asked to either write a story or draw a picture about their *Moogengals*, or to make them a habitat using the natural materials from the garden.

7 During the day the Researcher conducted an assessment based on observation.

8 Something missing?

9 Two days later the children finished a second self-completion survey, to compare with the first. The Researcher talked to the children and conducted interviews.

10 The final stories, pictures and photographs of the habitats made by the children, were then displayed at a local restaurant with an explanation of the project and its findings. Patrons could vote for their preferred creative material and two winners were selected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre-test NR questionnaire 2 days prior to event (4th November)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Activity conducted on World Responsible Tourism Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Picked their ‘moogengals’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4     | Aboriginal story telling activity  
|       | Food miles activity  
|       | Tree planting activity |
| 5     | Sensory reflection (as a group) |
| 6     | Creative reflective time activity |
| 7     | Field observations |
| 8     | Post event NR test 2 days after event (8th November)  
|       | and ELOS interviews |
| 9     | Promotion (judged at local restaurant) |

**Figure 1:** Study Plan

**Measuring Nature Connection**

There were three research instruments used:

1 Self-Competition Survey: to assess the children before and after the activities the Nature Relatedness method was used, (Nisbet et al, 2009; 2010). There were adjustments to the number of questions and four categories of questions were asked each with five questions: Egoistic, Altruistic and Bisphere, animal life and plant life.
Each question had a 10 point Likert scale ‘Strongly Agree’ score 1 and ‘Strongly Disagree’ score 10. Therefore the lower the number the stronger respondents agreed with the statement.

2 Action Research: to observe the students during the creative reflection time, we used a student observation schedule – “Engagement in Learning behaviours” adapted from (Griffin, 1999.) This scores frequency of engagement across an evaluation criteria for students (Sharing, making Links, Initiating. Manipulating objects and ideas, showing Confidence, Actively involved, Responding and Disengagement).

3 Researcher Completed Survey: after the activity an Environmental Learning Outcomes Survey (ELOS) was used following the concept devised and tested by (Ballantyne et al, 2005).

The surveys and action research method combined self-completion and observational assessment of children during the learning process as well as measuring the outcomes. The ELOS was designed to fill the gap in environmental sustainability research between existing instruments that measure knowledge and attitudes and the additional study dimensions of behaviour and skills.

**Sample**

Kangaroo Valley Public School children attended the venue for World Responsible Tourism Day. There were 26 pupils in years 6 and 5 and 30 years 4 and 3.

**Results**

**NR Findings**

There were 20 questions, 5 in each connectedness value (Egoistic, Altruistic, Biospheric: animal life/plant life).

Each question was scored out of 10 (1 = strongly agreed 10+ strongly disagreed).

With five questions in each category the maximum ‘strongly agree’ score was 5 and maximum ‘strongly disagree’ score was 50.

Averaging the results per year group Year 5 & 6 children were more Egoistic (22.34) than Years 3 & 4 (26.79), Table 1.

Years 3 &4 were slightly more Altruistic (15.23) than Years 5&6 (15.23).

Year 3 & 4 were more Bipheric Animal Life (13.07) and Biospheric Plant Life (13.59), than Year 5 & 6 Bispheric Animal Life (16.16) and Biopsheric Plant Life (16.99)
Table 1: Nature Connectedness Comparison between Years 5 & 6 and 3 & 4

This suggests that the younger children had a stronger level of connection to nature.

By averaging the score for each question, a mean score for each of the four value orientations was calculated. This enabled us to examine the difference between those people who had strong egoistic scores and those that had lower ones.

Cross tabulation was then conducted to determine the attitudes of children who scored ‘Above Average’, ‘Below Average Egoistic’ and a group who scored ‘Low Egoistic’. This indicated a marked difference in their attitude.

As expected ‘Low Egoistic’ children in Year 5 & 6 were more Altruistic (13.37) and Biospheric (Animal Life 13.08 and Plant Life 13.36) than either the ‘Above Average Egoistic’ or the ‘Below Average Egoistic’, Table 2.

The Year 3 & 4 also recorded a similar result indicating that children who held less Egoistic values held more Altruistic and Biospheric values.

The findings match the results for previous nature connectedness studies with adults (Nisbet et al, 2009; Hansla et al, 2008; WWF, 2008).

Table 2: Egoistic Connection to Nature: Years 5 & 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Above Average Egoistic</th>
<th>Below Average Egoistic</th>
<th>Low Egoistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>13.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Life</td>
<td>19.60</td>
<td>18.80</td>
<td>13.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant Life</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>13.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To measure the influence of the ecotourism activities the children undertook the same survey a few days later.

Overall the children recorded marked changes in the environmental concern scores, Table 4. Noticeably the Year 5 & 6 children’s post-test average score (2.84) indicated more ‘Strongly Agreed’ with the statement “The pollution that I cause is bad for people all over the world” than in the pre-test (7.13). The positive swing to increased environmental concern was recorded with both Years 5 & 6 and Year 3 & 4 against questions the represented all four nature connectedness value orientations, Tables 4 and 5.

**Table 4: Environmental Concern Measure: Years 5 & 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Number of Children who recorded an increase in environmental concern (total sample 26)</th>
<th>Pre-test average score</th>
<th>Post-test average score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egoistic</td>
<td>“The pollution that I cause is bad for people all over the world”</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic</td>
<td>“We should all change our lives to help protect the environment”</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic</td>
<td>“Looking after the environment is good for everyone”</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biospheric</td>
<td>“I don’t see the point in protecting the bush as there is so much of it”</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Environmental Concern Measure: Years 3 & 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Number of Children who recorded an increase in environmental concern (total sample 32)</th>
<th>Pre-test average score</th>
<th>Post-test average score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egoistic</td>
<td>“The pollution that I cause is bad for people all over the world”</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>4.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic</td>
<td>“We should all change our lives to help protect the environment”</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic</td>
<td>“Looking after the environment is good for everyone”</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biospheric</td>
<td>“I don’t see the point in protecting the bush as there is so much of it”</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appraisal of Reflection and Personal Experiences**

To observe the students during the creative reflection time, we used a student observation schedule – “Engagement in Learning behaviours“(adapted from Griffin, 1999.)

It should be noted that the level of participation in this activity was about 96%, which, from the Researcher’s previous experience with students on field-work activities, is an excellent participation rate, and included students with special learning needs. In addition, almost all students were motivated to “create”.

In the creative reflective time 31 students chose to draw, 19 chose to create habitats from found objects and 4 chose to write stories. Two children did not complete their work.

The children displayed a high frequency of *Sharing* ideas ‘most of the time’ with each other and with facilitators. The students made *Links* between what they had learned, especially in the drawings ‘all of the time’. In most cases this was primarily from the Aboriginal dreamtime stories as a catalyst for their creative reflections.

They *Initiated* responsibility ‘all of the time’ for transferring their experiences into their creative work. The habitat creation very strongly showed the children’s purposeful *Manipulation* of materials using great care ‘all of the time’ while the drawing and writing was ‘most of the time’.

By selecting the media of choice (writing, drawing or habitat creation) the children showed *Confidence* ‘most of the time’ in talking about their experiences, although this was primarily a personal reflection time so observations on this value were as a consequence more limited.

During the creative reflection time, the children were on task and ‘all of the time’ *Actively* involved, in fact, almost all of the students were disappointed that they did not have more time to spend on their work, again reflecting high levels of motivation.
Importantly the children *Responded* ‘most of the time’ by developing creative work that was a new direction for them. This was stimulated by the moderator requesting that they develop work from the *Moogengals* experience, a new concept to the children. The creative work strongly demonstrated nature connection with their particular *Moogengals*.

This provides evidence that the concept was motivating and that they had absorbed it. The habitats were also a unique method of expression for the children. 19 out of 56 choose this form while only 4 children chose writing.

There was ‘rarely’ any *Disengagement* during the structured actives and none during the reflective time, when the children were fully absorbed.

Whilst observations during this activity were insufficient to assume any long-term environmental attitudinal changes, they supported previous studies (Ballantyne et al 2011), which found that engaging in a reflective experience made a significant contribution to short-term learning.

**ELOS Findings**

A structured ‘Environmental Learning Outcome Survey’ interview schedule was used with 10 students from years 3-6, after WRTD day.

The students reported learning about caring for the environment during their visit. Specifically they learned “animals care for their environment”, “the environment is important for moodgee”, “don’t use too much if you don’t need to” and “I understand
how important the environment is for the animals”. When the students were asked “how did you feel when you learned this?” Students overwhelmingly reported feeling “excited”.

100% of the students reported being with the Aboriginal story teller (Julie Freeman) when they learned about caring for the environment.

When asked “What was it that helped you learn? Some of the responses were: “I understood the stories cause Julie told them in not adult language” (sic), “Julie cared for the environment, she cried when she was telling the stories”, “Julie told the stories to make you feel for the animals.”

Julie Freeman’s stories helped create a connection between the students and the environment (plants and animals). The stories also changed the way the students ‘felt’ about the environment. “I didn’t understand how much people could help the environment” one student reflected and another “Julie’s stories made me realize that we share the environment.”

The third part of the survey involved behavioural intentions. Again Julie Freeman’s stories had a major impact on whether the students would change their behaviour as a result of the WRT day activities. “I want to plant more trees for the animals.” “I’m not going to get mum to drive me to school any more, I can walk”. One student reported feeling “sad” about the environment “because the animals will have nowhere to go.”

This was an exploratory study and the sample size of the ELOS was small. Therefore it is difficult to assess real changes in knowledge, attitude and behavioural intentions, but results do support the idea that authentic Aboriginal Cultural Belief Systems as expressed through story-telling are a viable and effective way to encourage a connection with the environment in children. This has very positive implications for Responsible Tourism and the conservation of the world’s bio-cultural diversity.

**Implications**

Environmental educational fieldtrips do represent an opportunity “to educate and re-educate … and changing the attitude of people”. They could form an important pillar of the Responsible Tourism campaign to make the world a better place.

Aboriginal tourism experiences tend to be commercialised for international visitors to Australia and so may have become trivialised, and their environmental educational values ignored by tourism for the domestic market. This study demonstrates that Aboriginal cultural heritage offers a valuable contribution to children’s connection to the environment whilst offering economic life changes for the Indigenous community members (a Cape Town Declaration principle).
Responsible Tourism providers should consider encouraging nature connectedness through personalised interpretation and including reflection time. Where possible the inclusion of Indigenous culture should be encouraged to conserve bio-cultural diversity and economic opportunities.

To stimulate children’s long-term connection with nature will require on-going participation in structured activities. This suggests commercial opportunities for Responsible Tourism businesses using loyalty communication methods. For example children who plant a tree can be kept up to date with its growth and the insects, birds and animals which visit it.

Our natural heritage assets are a central core to the appeal of tourism. Tourism therefore must develop long-term strategies beyond mitigation to protect the environment. Educational environmental tourism experiences harnessed with appropriate cultural heritage could contribute to this long-term strategy, provide local economic development for marginalised communities and deliver memorable experiences.

**Recommendations**

Responsible Tourism providers seeking to encourage connection to nature should consider:

1. Using local indigenous cultural heritage, whose stories are often compelling visitor experiences and could help to conserve the world’s rich diversity and bio-cultural heritage.

2. Include reflection time within interpretive experiences

3. Consider eco art activities as a way for visitors to ‘realise’ and make sense of their feelings of connection
4 Investigate the national school syllabus and identify opportunities for ecotourism educational field trips

5 Integrate environmental educational activity experiences into loyalty marketing strategies by updating visitors on conservation progress

6 Involve students in your WRTD projects so that there is shared learning. In this project Lara Claringbould was a Surrey University (UK) work experience staying at Crystal Creek Meadows and Jane Gripper is a mature student studying environmental education. The WRTD activity also gave them the opportunity to conduct a real world experiment

7 Share WRTD findings with RT practitioners to educated and re-educated

How these findings are being used for education

The authors have shared the project’s report with:

- all the other local tourism stakeholders who participated in the project
- all Kangaroo Valley tourism providers through the local community tourist association
- the Kangaroo Valley Public School
- patrons at Jing Jo Restaurant where the children’s creative work was been exhibited
- the organisers of WTM/WRTD

These findings are being utilised by Crystal Creek Meadows to:

- develop a new guest experiences involving eco art
- producing a book for guests to read about the project with photographs and examples of their children’s art
- offer guests an Aboriginal experience which includes storytelling and a booklet about the Indigenous people of the South Coast NSW region

The ICRT – Australia is now:

- Submitting a paper for the Global Eco Asia Pacific Tourism Conference
- To have a short report published by the International Ecotourism Society (2013) to its membership
- Providing a full academic report with references available online at www.icrtourism.com.au and distributed to the Department of Education
Limitations

This study used a small sample base of 56 children who live in a rural area.

It is likely they would be more aware from the outset of this nature project than children from an urban environment.

However, the impact of the programme could in fact more positively influence urban respondents who may well start with a lower level of connection.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank:

- Kangaroo Valley Public School staff and pupils who participated on World Responsible Tourism Day 2012.
- Galamban for Aboriginal storytelling
- Jing Jo for exhibiting the children’s creative work for a month
- Kangaroo Valley Safaris who provided the children’s incentive prizes
- Becky Pinniger, trainer and therapist with the UK charity Thrive, for advice on activities with children in nature

References


Moogengals’ Freeman, J. (personal communication, October and November 2012)


Footnotes
3 ‘The Truth about Magaluf’ broadcast on BBC3, 7.1.2013
6 Destination Fifi campaign – accessed at http://destinationfifi.org/about/
10 www.fairhotels.ie
Contributions are welcome in three categories

Practitioner Papers
Written by those actively engaged in managing tourism or implementing Responsible Tourism approaches – 2,000 to 4,000 words with references primarily to grey literature.

Academic Papers
Traditional papers with full academic referencing 5,000-8,000 words

Work in Progress - Notes from the Field
Reports on new initiatives, work underway or brief comment pieces. Limited referencing, 400-1,500 words.

We anticipate that there will be a section listing new publications and sources relevant to Responsible Tourism.

Progress in Responsible Tourism also carries each November a report on the winners and the highly commended in the annual Virgin Holiday Responsible Tourism Awards.

Progress in Responsible Tourism will be published annually in November to coincide with World Travel Market, this reflects our intention that the journal should be of interest to the industry, academics and policymakers. Referencing: traditional footnotes, not Harvard, this is to make the papers more accessible to a non-academic readership.

Practitioner Papers will be reviewed by the editors. Academic Papers will be peer reviewed. Work in Progress and Notes from the Field will be reviewed by the editors. The Journal has an advisory board which has the same composition as the ICRT’s Advisory Committee.

If you would like to contribute to the next edition to be published in summer 2013 please write with a brief abstract to Harold Goodwin or Xavier Font.

Harold@haroldgoodwin.info
X.Font@leedsmet.ac.uk