Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management

Anna Farmaki
Levent Altinay
Xavier Font *Editors*

Planning and Managing Sustainability in Tourism

Empirical Studies, Best-practice Cases and Theoretical Insights

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Preface

When we first circulated a call for chapters for this edited book back in late 2019, we never could have possibly imagined that within a few months the world would come to a standstill due to a pandemic. In light of the rapid spread of COVID-19, a virus first detected in China in late 2019, governments all over the world imposed local lockdowns and travel restrictions and, in some cases, closed their borders in an effort to contain the spread of the virus. As a result, the tourism activity was literally put on hold with businesses experiencing tremendous economic losses (Farmaki et al., 2020; Sobaih et al., 2021). Airlines suspended their operations and international flights were canceled as hotels and restaurants shut down and were forced to lay off staff due to a lack of demand (Alonso et al., 2020). COVID-19 remained stubbornly persistent throughout 2020 and 2021 as several waves and variants of the virus emerged, regardless of the establishment of vaccination plans in many parts of the world and the introduction of health "passports." Correspondingly, the COVID-19 pandemic has been credited with exerting tremendous effects on the global tourism and hospitality industries, creating challenges for the sustainability of both businesses and destinations which, in turn, compromise competitiveness (Altinay & Kozak, 2021). For instance, Altinay and Arici (2021) reported that the pandemic led to changing marketing channels for hospitality businesses. Within this context, the topic of sustainability in tourism re-emerged as a focal point of discussion among policymakers, practitioners, and scholars.

In essence, the lack of tourism caused by the COVID-19 pandemic sparked the interest of scholars to discuss the potential sustainability approaches that could be undertaken to reformulate the global tourism industry along a more balanced development path. For instance, Palacios-Florencio et al. (2020) suggested the development of sustainable tourism forms as a means to revive the tourism industry in the post-COVID-19 era. Similarly, Romagosa (2020) posited that the pandemic has offered an opportunity to destination planners and managers to develop tourism more sustainably in order to improve destination resilience and adaptability. Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) in fact argued that the COVID-19 pandemic may not be such an epic disaster for the tourism industry after all, suggesting that the pandemic has brought the opportunity for humans to rethink about their activities in light of climate change and environmental pollution. Even so, concerns were raised over the risk that the tourism industry will fall back into the "business as usual" philosophy (Romagosa, 2020), thus returning to the unsustainable ways of developing and operating the industry. While "degrowth" strategies were previously advocated in order to manage the problems caused in destinations by overtourism (Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019; Mihalic, 2020), it seems unlikely that post-COVID-19 global tourism will undergo the structural changes necessary for achieving sustainable development if there is little willingness on behalf of policymakers and practitioners to transform tourism beyond recovery toward a new sustainable reorientation of the industry (Rastegar et al., 2021).

This recent discourse exemplifies not only the continuing relevance of sustainability in tourism theory and practice but also the need for the concept to be planned and managed reflexively (Hall, 2019). Ever since the introduction of the term "sustainability" in tourism in the 1980s, when it was first presented in the Brundtland Report as a panacea to the negative impact caused by tourism on destinations, academic interest on sustainability increased tremendously (Ruhanen et al., 2019). Several conceptualization attempts were made that defined and redefined sustainability, identifying its dimensions as well as its applicability in tourism (e.g., Farrel & Twinning-Ward, 2005; Hardy et al., 2002; Scheyvens, 2011). Innumerous studies were devoted to understanding the obstacles and the conditions needed to its successful implementation (e.g., Dodds, 2007; Farmaki et al., 2015), while significant insights were drawn from various case studies focusing from small- to large-scale sustainable tourism (e.g., Goffi et al., 2019; Kallmuenzer et al., 2018). Years later, several of the challenges facing destination planners regarding the achievement of sustainability in tourism are still evident, with the applicability of sustainability having been questioned as representing an unrealistic development approach amid the capitalistic tourism system where mass tourism and profit-oriented goals prevail (Bianchi & de Man, 2021).

Nonetheless, the importance of sustainability for destination resilience cannot be undermined (Espiner et al., 2017; Holladay, 2018). The goal of sustainability remains a key priority in the policy agenda of intergovernmental organizations and national bodies, as reflected by the recently revised United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Yet, what the COVID-19 pandemic reminds us is that the sustainability goal is more prominent than ever and the concept needs to be critically reexamined amid the changing environment in which tourism occurs so as to consider how the rhetoric on sustainability in tourism can best be put into practice. Although there is no shortage of books on sustainability in tourism, this edited book aims to contribute to the ongoing discussion on the topic through a collection of 14 conceptual and empirical chapters examining sustainability in different sectors of the tourism industry and at various levels (i.e., national, regional, local). The book embraces the fact that sustainability has become an essential goal, strategy, and practice for policymakers, destination planners, industry suppliers and practitioners, employees, and customers and, as such, hopes to offer thought-provoking insights that will enhance the critical perspectives surrounding sustainability in tourism discourse.

This book begins with an exploration of the paradigm of the circular economy as a way to rethink of sustainability and its implementation, planning, and management in the tourism and hospitality sector. In Chap. 1, Tomassini and Cavagnaro review and discuss the characteristics, potentialities, and challenges of the circular economy and the "circularity" paradigm in light of the current theorizations on sustainability and explore the implications of circularity in a service-oriented sector like tourism and hospitality. Chapter 2, written by Glyptou, Amore, and Adie, focuses on the measurement of sustainability indicators. The authors argue that the first step to redefine sustainable tourism development indicators relies on the ideology, norms, and beliefs of decision-makers. Building from the theory of Le Gales and Lascoumes on the governance of indicators, the chapter sheds light on the ideology and the mechanisms behind established sustainable tourism indicators and questions how indicators can actually support in the fulfillment of the ambitious SDG agenda. Chapter 3 is written by Moscardo who outlines an overall model that identifies places where stories might be used to enhance the sustainability of tourism within destinations. The chapter focuses on the use of stories in tourist experiences to encourage them to engage in more sustainable action both during and beyond the tourist setting and describes a set of principles for the design and use of stories for sustainability in tourism.

The next chapter (Chap. 4) by Arici and Saydam discusses the interface of sustainability and technology from the standpoint of transformative learning theory. The chapter takes a conceptual approach to explain the importance of technology in sustainable development, offering significant theoretical and practical implications. In Chap. 5, Gürlek provides a review of the research on social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality, and events to identify the level of development and current trends in the research, the theoretical perspectives, and research methods used before providing a research agenda for future research. Chapter 6, contributed by Janiszewska, Ossowska, Kurdyś-Kujawska, and Kwiatkowski, aims to deepen understanding of how food festivals enhance relationship building, by identifying which groups of festival stakeholders most often collaborate and how the nature and duration of the relationship is created.

In Chap. 7, Ripoll González, Belén Yanotti, and Lehman explore the connection between farmers' markets and sustainable tourism, conceptualizing local food as a driver of sociocultural, economic, and environmental value. Chapter 8 by Oliva and Colombo draws from a music festival context to understand the social sustainability of events in terms of peacefulness and inclusivity and, as such, discusses associated implications for the planning of specific types of music festivals when seeking to develop sustainable tourism. In the following chapter (Chap. 9), written by Hatipoglu, Ertuna, and Denizci, community capitals framework is used to empower community members by engaging them in a continuous re-creation and transformation process with others for greater community well-being and sustainability. The authors develop guidelines for a community-based tourism project aiming to link project planning and implementation with social capital and to measure and monitor the associated impact, attuned with the sustainable development goals (SDGs).

Chapter 10 by Zouridaki, Apostolakis, da Conceição Silva, and Kourgiantakis, provides a holistic assessment of sustainable cultural routes as a means to revitalize tourist destinations and promote local cultural identity. In Chap. 11, Afouxenidi aims to investigate residents' perceptions of sustainable development as well as their role in sustainability within the cultural tourism context by focusing on an archaeological site located in the heart of an urban setting and is freely accessible by locals and tourists alike. Chapter 12, written by Hassan and Damir, investigates the role of solo female travel in contributing to the agenda and, specifically, Sustainable Development Goal 5 (Gender Equality). In Chap. 13, Dasgupta and Vogelaar explore Bhutan's tourism sector from a political economy viewpoint to articulate the tensions between sustainable tourism and sustainable development. The book concludes with Chap. 14, written by Bachi and Ribeiro, which examines the sustainability of non-timber forest products (NTFPs) and sociobiodiversity in rural Brazil through community-based tourism.

We sincerely thank all the contributors who have trusted us with their chapters and have worked with us patiently during the production of this book. We believe this collection of invaluable contributions presents important issues that will guide researchers, students, policymakers, and practitioners toward a better analysis and understanding of the planning and managing aspects of sustainability in tourism.

Limassol, Cyprus — Anna Farmaki
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Anna Farmaki is Assistant Professor in Tourism Management at the Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus. She holds a doctorate (PhD) in marketing from Nottingham Trent University. She has worked for several years in private institutions of tertiary education in Cyprus and was course leader of the undergraduate hospitality and tourism management program at the University of Central Lancashire (Cyprus). She has published extensively in reputable peer-reviewed academic journals and has presented her work in various international conferences, seminars, and workshops. Anna is a fellow of the Higher Education Academy (UK) and a member of the Management Committee in several COST Actions. She has also been involved and/or led nationally and internationally funded research projects. In addition, she is a member of the editorial board of the *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *Tourism Review*, *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, and the *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*. Her research interests lie primarily in the areas of tourism planning and development, with an emphasis on sustainable tourism and tourist behavior.

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Circular Economy: A Paradigm to Critically Rethink Sustainability in Tourism and Hospitality

Lucia Tomassini and Elena Cavagnaro

1 Introduction

Concerns with regard to unsustainable growth have a long history. They date back, at least, to the early 1970s with the Club of Rome and their report *Limits to growth* (Meadows, 1972), and Hardin's essay *The Tragedy of the Commons* (Hardin, 1968). Hardin (1968) focuses on the problems generated by having limited shared resources—the 'commons'—largely consumed for individualistic purposes. Hence, the tragedy consists of applying technical solutions to problems requiring a change in the moral and ethical approach. Such concerns are rooted in the awareness shared by many members of the scientific and academic community that an economic model based on the search of a constant growth—such as neoliberal economic models—clashes with the limited resources available on the Earth (Kallis et al., 2018). This clash has been resulting in worsening conditions in terms of the effects of the climate crisis, greater socio-economic polarisation and political crises caused by conflicts (Kallis, 2011; Muraca, 2012; Jazairy, 2017). In such a context, the idea of a 'Circular' Economy appears a promising paradigm to rethink the model of an infinite linear growth by prompting the creation of regenerative loops of material, products and services mimicking natural 'closed' systems. In the last decades, the attention and debate raised by the Circular Economy have been intertwined with an enduring critical questioning of the neoliberal economic model grounded in the assumption that infinite market-driven growth is possible, and the availability of raw materials and resources is—to some extent—unlimited.

Responding to the growing interest in the circularity paradigm, in 2015, the European Commission elaborated the first *Circular Economy Action Plan* that was aimed at stimulating Europe's transition towards a Circular Economy (European

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Commission, 2015). In 2020, the European Commission launched the new *Circular Economy Action Plan for a cleaner and more competitive Europe* (European Commission, 2020). As part of this action plan, the European Union legislative framework on waste entered into force in 2018, setting clear targets for the reduction of waste, waste management and recycling. The United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) and the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) identified the *European Circular Economy Action Plan* as best practice for accelerating the achievement of the *Sustainable Development Goals* (SDGs) and the *2030 Agenda.* Despite this institutional attention, however, the business and academic literature on sustainability does not currently seem greatly involved in the discussion of the Circular Economy (Webster, 2013; Murray et al., 2017). Moreover, there is as yet no critical reflection on the alternatives to the (neoliberal) growth-oriented economic paradigm within the tourism and hospitality industry (Burrai et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019). This leaves the implications of the Circular Economy for the tourism and hospitality sector still largely unexplored and under theorised (Boluk et al., 2019), despite this sector being a significant component of the contemporary economy.

The growth of the tourism and hospitality industry is among the key features of contemporary society. Since the second half of the twentieth century, we have witnessed ever greater numbers of people travelling worldwide for tourism. This growing flow of travellers is often articulated in relation to the phenomenon of 'overtourism', which is in turn connected to the concept of unregulated growth (Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019; Milano et al., 2019a, b, c). Indeed, Bauman (2000) speaks of the 'tourism syndrome' as a metaphor of the mobile contemporary lifestyle in neoliberal market-driven societies (Bauman, 2000; Franklin, 2003). Mobility will likely be a key issue for future social and environmental sustainability, prompting a critical reflection on its global growth (Jazairy, 2017; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019), together with the implications of such growth for urban and non-urban areas (Murison, 2017). In this context, we aim at discussing the potential (and challenges) of the Circular Economy for rethinking sustainability and its implementation, planning and management in the tourism and hospitality sector. While acknowledging that the Circular Economy has been predominantly understood in terms of eco-effectiveness and eco-efficiency with benefits at both environmental and economic levels, we aim to extend understanding by shedding light on its social implications in a complex service-oriented sector like tourism and hospitality. In so doing we interweave our critical reflection on the notion of 'circularity' with theorisations of 'degrowth' (Boluk et al., 2019; Fletcher et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019), the Sociology of Space (Lefebvre, 1984; Massey, 2005, 2009) and the potential of tourism as a social force (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006).

The chapter is structured as follows: firstly, it reviews the literature and theorisations on the Circular Economy, with a focus on tourism and hospitality studies. This review explores the paradigm of 'circularity' as an alternative approach to market-driven neoliberal capitalism and other economic systems founded on a growth-oriented approach. The chapter scrutinises the implications of applying the Circular Economy paradigm—originally conceived in terms of product eco-efficiency—into the multidimensional service-oriented industry of tourism and hospitality. Then, it explores the rethinking of sustainability through the lens of the circularity paradigm. Our concluding thoughts aim to open new lines of investigation and discussion by deepening the understanding of circularity in tourism and hospitality studies and the associated implication of the need to rethink the future of this sector. Our chapter contributes to the current debate on the Circular Economy by situating this paradigm within the broader debate on global issues, justice and sustainable development. This implies questioning the societal, political, environmental and economic implications of the Circular Economy, as well as a need to develop a critical framework for interrogating its role in planning and managing sustainability in tourism and hospitality.

2 The Circular Economy and the Paradigm of 'Circularity' in Tourism and Hospitality

The idea of 'circularity' is an ancient archetype that human beings have used through the centuries to make sense of life on Earth, of the biological processes of our ecosystem and of the cyclic nature of material and spiritual life. As Bradley (2012) discusses, the circular archetype has—since prehistoric times—represented an idea of order. The idea of 'circularity' is, indeed a fundamental principle of order and continuity underpinning many rituals, traditions and conceptualisations, for example, the cycle of the seasons, the carbon cycle of organic material and the circularity of many religious theorisations, visions and praying practices. It is also part of the etymological root of the word 'encyclopaedia' meaning—from the ancient Greek '*enkyklios paideia*' (*ἐγκύκλιος παιδεία*)—the pursuit of a 'circular instruction' constructed through a set of doctrines forming a comprehensive education (Dionigi, 2019: 63). Hence, the conception of an economy that can become 'circular' is actually grounded into an ancient understanding of the cyclic patterns of continuous regenerative processes.

The first theorisation of the Circular Economy appeared in the 1970s. This was rooted in the analysis and conceptualisation of non-linear structures imitating living systems to develop models of a 'closed-economy' focusing on the limited resources available on Earth (Pearce & Turner, 1989; Boulding, 1992; Markandya, 2017). The desire to conceive and develop a 'closed loop economy' was driven by the acknowledgement of the urgent need to shift towards a more sustainable—regenerative—economic model (Stahel, 2010, 2019). Since the industrial revolution, (market-oriented) economies have been characterised by a *make–use–dispose* linear approach. In contrast, the Circular Economy proposes the creation of *make–use–up-cycle* loops in which materials, products and services are constantly regenerated. Murray et al. (2017: 369) define a Circular Economy as one that embeds 'the redesign of processes and cycling of materials', while McDonough and Braungart (2003) present it as an eco-effective 'cradle-to-cradle' practice through which materials and products should be conceived and designed to be part of regenerative circular loops mimicking biological systems. Similarly, Geissdoerfer et al. (2017: 759) explain a Circular Economy as 'a regenerative system in which resource input and waste, emission, and energy leakage are minimised by slowing, closing, and narrowing material and energy loops. This can be achieved through long-lasting design, maintenance, repair, reuse, remanufacturing, refurbishing, and recycling'. Moreover, Bocken et al. (2016: 309) describe the key features of a Circular Economy in terms of 'design and business model strategies [that are] slowing, closing, and narrowing resource loops'. The Ellen MacArthur Foundation, a committed proponent of the importance of the transition to Circular Economy—introduces the Circular Economy as 'an industrial economy that is restorative or regenerative by intention and design' (2013: 7).

The Circular Economy is, therefore, commonly understood in terms of a focus on the eco-efficiency of circular systems and on business models optimising the regeneration of materials or products via Life Cycle Assessment (Scheepens et al., 2016), Sustainable Product-Service System (Mylan, 2015), product design (Bocken et al., 2016) and waste management (Pirani & Arafat, 2014). Thus, so far there has been less consideration of how the Circular Economy might apply within service industries such as tourism and hospitality. Indeed, within tourism and hospitality studies, the Circular Economy paradigm and its implications are still largely unexplored and untheorised. This gap in understanding probably arises, in part, because it seems easier envisioning and investigating the Circular Economy in terms of material and product regeneration than to rethink the whole chain of the delivery of a service. Consequently, attempts to apply the Circular Economy paradigm within a multidimensional service-oriented sector like tourism and hospitality remain largely limited to the re-design of the product used in the service, rather than rethinking the whole structure of the service (Webster, 2013).

We prompt a critical reflection on the relationship between Circular Economy and sustainability by stressing that in the Brundtland Report (Brundtland, 1987) the sustainability discourse was originally conceived in terms of sustainable 'development'; not sustainable 'growth'. In many sectors, however—including tourism and hospitality—sustainability has in practice largely been conceived and implemented in terms of sustainable 'growth'. Several authors have highlighted how the sustainability discourse in tourism and hospitality appears conditioned by the pro-growth ideology which permeates this sector (Gössling et al., 2005; Saarinen, 2018; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018; Fletcher et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019). Higgins-Desbiolles (2018: 157) observes that tourism 'is addicted to growth' since '[this] is the context enabling tourism's growth addition'. As Saarinen (2018: 338) stresses, however, the growth ideology appears deeply—and ambiguously—interwoven with the sustainability discourse: 'instead of emphasizing sustainable development we are increasingly turned towards terms such as sustainable growth or inclusive growth'. Similarly, Monbiot (2012, June 22) highlights that 'if sustainability means anything, it is surely the opposite of sustained growth. Sustained growth on a finite planet is the essence of unsustainability'. This means that the coexistence between a linear and endless—although controlled—growth and the limited resources on Earth in terms of an enduring equilibrium is still an open challenge. Butler (1999: 15) already observed in the late 1990s that "the key term in this [sustainable development] is the one of 'limits'. However, much proponents of development may ignore the fact, implicit in the concept of sustainable development is the idea of limits"; Higgins-Desbiolles (2010: 125) agreed, stating that: 'sustainable tourism necessitates a clear-eyed engagement with notions of limits that the current culture of consumerism and pro-growth ideology precludes'.

In this context, the theorisations and debate on the Circular Economy are relatively new, and—although there is not yet a consensus on its relationship with sustainability—the Circular Economy appears a promising driver for critically rethinking 'growth', sustainability and the future of the tourism and hospitality sector. McDonald (2011: 805), for example, highlighted how sustainability is one of the six forces redefining the future of modern management and how the adoption of circular processes is crucial to achieving sustainability: 'the organisations of the future will manifest the characteristics of natural ecosystems in which nothing is wasted'. We, therefore, envision circularity as a liminal concept stimulating a deeper reconceptualisation of the linear economic model and its dependence on enduring growth. The Circular Economy, as such, can play a pivotal role in the critical rethinking of sustainability in the future of the tourism and hospitality sector.

3 Rethinking Sustainability Through the Circular Economy Paradigm: Implications and Scenarios

The concept of sustainability gained prominence in the second part of the last century as part of a critical examination of the coexistence between human civilisation and the biosphere. From the beginning, the theorisation of 'sustainability' has been deeply interwoven with a critical reflection on our neoliberal capitalism and its impacts on the societal, environmental and economic dimensions. Several authors have discussed sustainability through its etymology: Jeronen (2013) stressed how it is derived from the Latin word 'sustinere' which means 'to hold up', 'to support', 'to maintain' (Jeronen, 2013); Butler (1999: 11) highlighted that: "it [sustainable] is the adjectival form of the verb 'to sustain' (to maintain or prolong; Collins Concise Dictionary 1995: 1189)", thereby raising the question, 'sustaining what'? (Fletcher et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018). Since the Brundtland Report—Our common future—(Brundtland, 1987) defined sustainable development as a form of development that 'seeks to meet the needs and aspirations of the present without compromising the ability to meet those of the futures' (Brundtland, 1987: 40), many authors have attempted to formulate a clear and univocal definition of sustainability, but this has still not been achieved (Holden et al., 2014). Indeed, according to an estimation made by Santillo (2007), there were at that time already around 300 definitions of sustainability (Geissdoerfer et al., 2017). Nonetheless, there is broad debate on the environmental, societal and economic global emergencies prompting the urgency to rethink the existing development model (Meadows et al., 2004; Banerjee & Duflo, 2011; Klein, 2000, 2007, 2014, 2017). In this context, sustainable development is largely understood as a paradigm able simultaneously to embrace the three dimensions of planet, people and profit at organisational level (Elkington, 1998, 2020) and to create economic, environmental and social value at the level of societies by prompting a multidimensional, holistic and inclusive model of development (Cavagnaro & Curiel, 2012). This approach to development is well represented by The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which offer the most recent and widely supported articulation and operationalisation of sustainable development.

The application of the principles of sustainability and sustainable development is one of the features of the current debate on tourism and hospitality studies (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2010; Saarinen, 2014, 2018). Policy makers and private companies have adopted and operationalised many of the recommendations made in recent academic publications on sustainability in tourism and hospitality (Boluk et al., 2019; Lim, 2016; Hall et al., 2015; Saarinen, 2018; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020b) as well as those in reports from international institutions like the United Nations World Travel Organisation (UNWTO). Despite this interest and debate, however, there is as yet no agreement on a shared definition of sustainable tourism. For instance, Butler (1999) distinguishes between sustainable tourism and sustainability in the context of tourism development; the former focuses on tourism as a single force, the latter sees tourism within a more holistic perspective, as a component among other components contributing to development (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2010). In tourism and hospitality studies, the sustainability discourse—notwithstanding its holistic nature—has been widely understood by the industry in narrow terms of eco-efficiency, such as by decreasing of the environmental impacts of travel, accommodation and leisure activities (Gössling et al., 2005; Huppes & Ishikawa, 2005). In the last decade, however, an increasing number of studies on sustainability have questioned the social and economic fairness of tourism, and the contribution that the tourism and hospitality sector makes to social justice, introducing concepts like responsible tourism and just tourism (Jamal et al., 2013; Jamal & Camargo, 2014; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018; Jamal, 2019).

Even though the discourse of sustainability has broadly permeated tourism and hospitality studies, policies and industry reports in the past decades, many authors have stressed how that discourse has failed both to limit the negative impacts of this fast-growing sector at the environmental, societal and economic levels and to critically question the limitless pro-growth approach of neoliberal capitalism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2010, 2020a, b; Saarinen, 2018; Burrai et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019; Fletcher et al., 2019). Therefore, sustainability—even when it has been understood as a triple bottom line approach creating value simultaneously in the social, environmental and economic dimensions (Elkington, 1998, 2020; Meadows et al., 2004; Cavagnaro & Curiel, 2012)—has not yet realised its full potential with regard to the tourism and hospitality domain.

The clash between a search for sustainable development and economic models based on continual growth prompts critical reflection on the potentialities of the

Circular Economy. For a start, the idea of a Circular Economy chimes with the notion of 'de-growth' as a social theory and social movement that considers the meeting of social needs and well-being as the measure of success instead of the achievement of growth (Boluk et al., 2019; Fletcher et al., 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019). Questioning an unlimited growth of consumption, revenue and global mobility through the lens of 'circularity' means exploring the capacity to conceive and re-design a service sector like tourism and hospitality by adopting a circular 'de-growth' approach that values the creation of value in the social dimension. McDonough and Braungart (2003), who are among the main proponents of the Circular Economy in product-oriented industries, stress how designing loops of materials and product upcycling actually should be paired with the intensification of the consumption of products in order to keep the production-consumption system effective. This understanding of circularity, however, subjugates it again to serving the needs of unlimited economic growth. In contrast, we aim at capitalising on the disruptive potential of the paradigm of circularity vis-à-vis the contemporary linear economic model by discussing circularity in tourism and hospitality in terms of 'de-growth'. The notion of 'de-growth' is here used in the sense of Latouche (2004, vol. 11) that "it might be more accurate and less alarming if we replace the word 'de-growth' with 'non-growth'. We could then start talking about 'a-growthism', as in 'a-theism'". A circular a-growth would then imply the re-design of the tourism and hospitality sector in tandem with planning and managing its sustainability so as to make it a sector well-integrated with other economic activities, social needs and environmental constraints (Saarinen, 2014, 2018). Interweaving the Circular Economy paradigm with 'de-growth' ('a-growth') means envisioning a service-oriented industry conceived beyond the monocultural approach of the growth-oriented neoliberalism. This implies establishing an enduring equilibrium gained through cyclic regenerative processes accessible to local inhabitants, citizens and a range of stakeholders. This, for example, encompasses the capacity to stimulate proximity tourism offers via an integrated green mobility designed by the stakeholders of the territory (see the example of *Alpine Pearls* in the Alps—www.alpinepearls.com); the capacity to involve different segments of the local population, together with key stakeholders, in waste collection and upcycling processes with the aim to re-generate materials and products to be used not only within the tourism and hospitality industry but also within the local community (see the example of the *Wasted Lab* in Amsterdam, www.wastedlab.nl).

The possibility of conceiving and designing circular 'a-growth' regenerative processes through a multiplicity of connections, networks and relationships is driven by notions of the Sociology of Space as discussed by scholars like Lefebvre (1984) and Massey (2005, 2009). Lefebvre in *The Production of Space* (Lefebvre, 1984) broadly examines space as a social product reproducing the social relations of the production system in which it is imbued. Hence, through the centuries, each system of production has produced a certain type of sociological space. Massey (2005, 2009) presents space as the dimension of the social and the result of an ongoing process of multiple connections, relations and networks. Space, therefore, is never static nor finished and it is in itself relational. For Massey (2005, 2009), space is also soaked into power relationships, since power has relational dimensions that Massey names ‘power-geometries’. The Circular Economy, by producing its own space, can be understood in terms of its capacity to take place in the socio-relational ‘space’ of the tourism and hospitality sector. Moreover, it can be valued for its capacity to challenge predefined power-geometries and establish new ones among stakeholders. In this way the ‘circularity’ paradigm tackles the potentialities of tourism as a social force (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006) seeking social and ecological justice (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020a, b) while rethinking the sustainability of the tourism and hospitality sector beyond the growth ideology.

4 Conclusion

In our reasoning, rethinking the planning and management of sustainability in tourism and hospitality through the lens of the Circular Economy, means drawing on the ancient archetype of circularity. This archetype is broadly understood as an ordering principle questioning the growth ideology, prompting the creation of cyclic regenerative processes, and—in so doing—creating value in the environmental, economic and social dimensions of the tourism and hospitality sector. Building on this, we sought to reflect on an idea of circularity that goes beyond a Circular Economy devoted to a product-oriented industry and rooted in the worship of the growth and intensification of production-consumption processes. Rethinking sustainability in terms of circularity implies being able to create value in the social dimension of the space of tourism and hospitality. The creation of circular regenerative processes generates new value in the social dimension by enriching it with a multiplicity of novel relations, connections and networks. It implies the creation of ‘smaller’ more intense regenerative loops prompting the active involvement of stakeholders and re-designing new power-relationship among them. This happens because the ‘space’ of tourism and hospitality is not just a flat surface that people, capital and products transit, but a multidimensional situation within which different types of relationships and connections take place. Hence, embracing the circularity paradigm actually implies questioning the growth ideology that still largely permeates the sustainability discourse in tourism and hospitality. With regard to this point, Boluk et al. (2019: 855) observe: ‘unsurprisingly, degrowth conflicts with the premises of SDGs 12, 8, and 14, which view growth as success’. SDG 12 refers to responsible consumption and production, SDG 8 to decent work and economic growth and SDG 14 to life below water. Further on, Boluk et al. (2019: 856), commenting on the debate and legislative initiatives focusing on the transition to the Circular Economy, continue: ‘attainment of sustainable tourism development will require ongoing critical engagement focused on challenging pro-growth dynamics and advocating for inclusion of multi-stakeholder perspectives’. This is why the circularity discourse in tourism and hospitality should fully embrace the social dimension of that sector, reasoning with it in terms of ‘de-growth’. In response, the sector should re-design its sociological space beyond the worship of the growth ideology to pursue instead the construction of an enduring equilibrium focused on social well-being and environmental conservation.

On a theoretical level, our study contributes to the development of further knowledge within the studies on the Circular Economy. We do so by critically reflecting on the implications of the circularity paradigm on tourism and hospitality studies, and by casting light on a novel perspective to explore the sustainability discourse and its planning and managing in tourism and hospitality. The novelty of our work lies in trying to prepare the ground for a theoretical framework that focuses on circular regenerative processes prioritising the search for an enduring equilibrium and 'a-growth' over an unlimited market-driven growth. Such a theoretical framework has practical implications with regard to the design and implementation of policies around sustainable development and management in the tourism and hospitality sector. Moreover, on a practical level, our study highlights the importance of exploring circular—regenerative—forms of production and consumption within a space permeated by multiple and heterogeneous relationships, networks and connections as the one of tourism and hospitality. In light of this, we recommend future research on the interplay between the Circular Economy and the tourism and hospitality sector via qualitative and quantitative approaches since this will allow further exploration and investigation of the circularity paradigm in tourism studies.

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From Aspirations to Applications: The SDGs and the Role of Indicators in the Measurement of Sustainable Tourism

Kyriaki Glyptou, Alberto Amore, and Bailey Ashton Adie

1 Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) represent "a huge achievement of the UN and of the international community of member states, civic society, private sector and academia" (Meuleman, 2020, p. 4). This is similarly echoed among international organizations like the UNWTO and the UNDP (UNWTO and UNDP, 2017). However, recent advancements in the literature note that sustainable tourism models and frameworks "demonstrate the lack of direct attention to the SDGs" (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2020, p. 1). This is particularly noteworthy given that Target 12.b of the SDGs acknowledges the importance of monitoring in the pursuit of sustainable development. On the one hand, the majority of in-depth sustainability assessment frameworks are predominantly case-context specific and far from being replicable or transferable. On the other hand, it is often unclear whether the notion of sustainability applies to the tourism industry per se or to the overall destination level. The result is a body of research with a myriad of rankings and aggregated indices with ambiguous destination management utility.

The disconnect between aspirations and applications of sustainable development indicators is reflected in the way key international tourism organizations address the issue of monitoring. The UNWTO (2004, 2020) provides lists of comprehensive indicators to assess sustainable development at the destination level, but it has been

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criticized for its overemphasis on market-oriented approaches and functional managerialism (Hall, 2019). Conversely, the WTTC (2020) encourages the travel and tourism industry to measure, monitor, and report on their actions towards sustainability and sustainable growth. Yet, the latter approach overemphasizes the rhetoric of sustainable economic growth whilst downplaying key environmental and social aspects that deserve close monitoring. In addition, the use of sustainable development indicators at the national level raises questions as to which rationale and methodologies lie behind the current policy environment.

This chapter argues that the first step to redefine sustainable tourism development indicators relies on the ideology, norms, and beliefs of decision-makers. Building from the theory of Le Gales and Lascoumes on the governance of indicators, this chapter sheds light on the ideology and the mechanisms behind established sustainable tourism indicators. Moreover, it questions how indicators can actually support in the fulfilment of the ambitious SDGs agenda. Finally, the chapter discusses the transition from ideologies to indicators by suggesting a third-order change to support the aspirations of the SDGs and its application to tourism.

2 The Governance of Instruments

The governance of instruments refers to the operationalization of policies through laws, regulations, guidelines, indicators, and standards. As Le Galès (2011, p. 143) observes, policy instruments are "a fruitful avenue to demonstrate and interpret changing forms of governance" and the rationale behind a set of rules. In particular, policy instruments can be conceived as "non-neutral devices [. . .] which structure public policy according to their own logic" (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007, p. 3). Notwithstanding the availability of evidence in the forms of legislation, white papers, and policy implementation and mentoring models, "the issue of public policy instruments is relatively little explored by academic analysts" (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007, p. 1), with most current policy analysis rooted in functionalist assumptions such as the effectiveness of instruments and their alleged technical accuracy. As Lascoumes and Le Galès (2007, p. 3) further suggest "every instrument constitutes a condensed form of knowledge about social control and ways of exercising it". Instruments are far from being neutral; rather they frame public policy and are oftentimes used to legitimize a given policy agenda (Flyvbjerg, 1998).

The issue of policy instruments as one of the dimensions of power (Lukes, 2005) is further discussed in Majone (1989), who states that it is important to frame the analysis around institutional, social, and moral issues. In particular, Majone (1989, p. 143) argues that:

> the naive faith of some analysts in the fail-safe properties of certain instruments allegedly capable of lifting the entire regulatory process out of the morass of public debate and compromise can only be explained by the constraining hold on their minds of a model of policymaking in which decisions are, in James Buchanan's words, "handed down from on high by omniscient beings who cannot err".

According to Le Galès (2011, p. 153), indicators "are based on a mixed legitimacy that combines a scientific and technical rationality" that ultimately promote normative modes of governance and decision-making. The latter are at the core of a new phase in public policy and management that blends networks, markets, and hierarchies into what Jessop (2011) and Meuleman (2008) refer to as metagovernance. In this changing policy environment, indicators contribute to the proliferation of benchmarking and alleged scientific knowledge in the assessment of policy performance (Lascoumes and Le Galès, 2007, 2009; Le Gales, 2011). This applies, in particular, in the case of the SDGs (Meuleman 2020), with the definition and monitoring of indicators being largely based on a rational approach. The result is a "mode of calculation [...] based more on the availability of hard/numerical/monetizable data, than on the availability of qualitative assessment criteria, which could be adapted to different circumstances" (Meuleman, 2020, p. 115).

The rationalization of policymaking through the use of indicators is an established practice in public policy. As Lorrain (2009) observes, technical expertise and measurements have sidelined political debate and have become the drivers of policy action themselves. In her view, the proliferation and complexity of indicators and instrument for policy action have put the legitimacy of elected politicians as drivers for change into question. Similarly, Pinson (2009) argues that public policy instruments, at large, exacerbate a rhetoric of best practices and benchmarking that ultimately frame the hegemonic discourse of what policy action should be. His commentary on projects as instruments in urban policies stresses how objective setting and the use of indicators is key in driving decentralized policy action among different stakeholders. Finally, Lascoumes (2009) observes that indicators and instruments enable new coalition regimes that define the mobilization of resources and the implementation of policies based on normative measurements, protocols of actions and standards. These instruments can either complement or replace traditional command and control instruments in public policy action.

In the field of tourism, Henderson (2003, p. 98) states that the politics in tourism go "beyond the sphere of formal government structures and processes", with ramifications that are often neglected (Farmaki et al., 2015). Relevant international and national tourism stakeholders develop and legitimize policy goals and objectives through a functionalist rhetoric that exalts the infallibility of instruments and has direct implications in tourism development (Hall & Page, 2014; Le Gales, 2011). Similarly, at the local level, instruments are likely to rationalize and legitimize the building of controversial projects in pristine natural areas (e.g. Higgins-Desbiolles, 2011) or promote practices for the achievement of alleged sustainable urban tourism goals (e.g. Gindl & Wukovitsch, 2003). The argument around the role of indicators within the discourse of sustainable development should be central in tourism scholarship, yet, over the last 30 years or so, we are still far from reaching consensus as to which specific variables, indicators, and criteria we should follow in sustainable destination management and planning. On the contrary, the literature illustrates multiple attempts to systematize the assessment and measurement of tourism sustainability through the aggregation of indicator schemes (e.g. Tanguay et al., 2013; Torres-Delgado & Lopez Palomeque, 2014; UNWTO, 2004) and assessment frameworks (e.g. European Tourism Indicator System, 2016; Global Sustainable Tourism Council, 2019).

Discussion on the importance of indicators in monitoring sustainable tourism development is gaining momentum. A succession of reports commissioned by the United Nations in recent years to introduce the SDGs and the 2030 Agenda (e.g. UNWTO, 2016; UNWTO & UNPD, 2017) suggests that progress towards achieving sustainability in the tourism sector has been slow and in need of monitoring tools. The reasons behind such policy shortcoming echo the underlying causes of unsustainability identified by Bass (2007), namely: (a) economic growth is still a paramount principle, regardless of people's rights, welfare, or environmental thresholds; (b) environmental benefits and costs are externalized; (c) the poor are marginalized and social inequality is ingrained; (d) governance frameworks are not designed to effect sustainable development.

3 Tourism and the SDGs: A Governance Instrument Perspective

The UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were approved in September 2015 in an effort to advance the implementation of sustainability and alleviate the global north-south development disparities (UN, 2015). In this context, the traditional three dimensions of sustainability (economic, socio-cultural, environmental) were recontextualised and extended into: (1) prosperity, fostering fulfilling lives in harmony with nature; (2) people, focusing on poverty reduction and the minimization of inequalities; (3) planet, promoting environmental protection and climate change mitigation; (4) partnership, enforcing solid global cooperation; and, (5) peace, promoting peaceful, fair, and inclusive societies. The SDGs represent a move forward from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and seek to target development objectives that the MGDs fell short in achieving (UN, 2015). Just as for the case of MDGs, however, there are policy implementation issues and challenges that need to be consider in order to develop sound frameworks of governance and metagovernance for the achievement of the SDGs (Meuleman, 2020).

The achievement of the proposed 17 SDGs was translated into 169 targets that the signatory state members committed to achieve within a fifteen-year period. As the UN (2015, p. 16) reports, the SDGs and associated targets "are integrated and indivisible, global in nature and universally applicable, taking into account different national realities, capacities and levels of development and respecting national policies and priorities". However, the targets are, in principle, "aspirational and global" (UN, 2015, p. 16) and leave signatory states with the ability to determine the modalities by which to incorporate such targets in their national and local development agendas. Progress in the achievement of the SDGs and their targets, instead, will be monitored through 232 unique indicators (Meuleman, 2020; UN, 2015; UNWTO and UNDP, 2017). Unlike the MDGs, the measurement of SDGs

Table 1 Explicit reference to tourism in SDGs, targets, and indicators

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG)	Target(s)	Indicator(s)
SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth	***SDG Target 8.9***: By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products	*SDG Indicator 8.9.1*: Tourism direct GDP as a proportion of total GDP and in growth rate
		SDG Indicator 8.9.2: Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs
SDG 12: Responsible Consumption and Production	***SDG Target 12.b***: Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products	*SDG Indicator 12.b.1*: Implementation of standard accounting tools to monitor the economic and environmental aspects of tourism sustainability
SDG 14: Life Below Water	***SDG Target 14.7***: By 2030, increase the economic benefits to small island developing states and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aquaculture, and tourism	*SDG Indicator 14.7.1:* Sustainable fisheries as a proportion of GDP in small island developing states, least developed countries, and all countries *SDSN Indicator 81*: Share of coastal and marine areas that are protected *SDSN Indicator 82*: Percentage of fish tonnage landed within Maximum Sustainable Yield (MSY)

Sources: UN (2020), US National Statistics for the UN Sustainable Development Goals (2020), UNSDSN (2020), and UNSTATS (2020)

follows a global indicator framework set by the United Nations Statistical Commission for the monitoring and dissemination of country-level and global aggregated data (Meuleman, 2020; UN, 2017). However, the legitimization and application of indicators can vary depending on the context. As Meuleman (2020) observes, hierarchical modes of governance are much more likely to frame the implementation of indicators in heavily regulated countries, whilst forms of market-led and network governance are more likely to occur where legislation and regulations are scant.

Notwithstanding the fact that sustainable tourism is explicitly mentioned in only 3 of the SDGs (SDG #8; SDG #12, and SDG #14) and included in only 6 targets, its contribution to the achievement of all the 17 SDGs is widely acknowledged among both academics and practitioners (e.g. Slocum et al., 2019; Font et al., 2019). Moreover, it should be noted that the attainment of sustainable tourism within the SDGs is primarily associated with targets 8.9, 12b, and 14.7 (SDSN, 2020) (Table 1). The associated indicators aim to provide a macroeconomic appraisal of the contribution of tourism to economic growth and job creation (indicators 8.9.1 and 8.9.2) and the monitoring of consumption and production patterns towards sustainable tourism (indicator 12b.1). Conversely, the SDSN and the United Nations do not provide dedicated indicators to ascertain the economic benefits of tourism in Small Island Destination States (SIDs) and Least Developed Countries (LDCs).

Instead, they refer to broader indicators (SDSN indicators 81 and 82) that are marginally associated with tourism.

Overall, the overarching framework of the 239 indicators for the SDGs acknowledges the likely methodological limitations with the gathering and the measurement of data. To this end, the United Nations Statistical Commission further classified the indicators into three tiers. Tier 1 groups indicators that are available internationally, have established methodologies and standards, and are regularly produced by countries. Tier 2, instead, includes indicators that are not regularly produced by countries due to likely operational challenges. Indicators 8.9.1 and 8.9.2 fall under this category, with the latter made available on a regular basis by the United States Statistical Service for the United Nations Sustainable Goals. Finally, Tier 3 encompasses indicators that are still in the process of being operationalized and standardized. In this latter case, the indicators SDSN 81 and SDSN 82 are classified as Tier 3. As per the latest update of 17 July 2020, the classification contains 123 Tier 1 indicators, 106 Tier 2 and 2 indicators with components in different tiers, which only demonstrates that only half of the indicators are fully operational at national level. Needless to say, the rationale behind indicator setting and international standardization of data collection and indicator monitoring raises questions as to whether there is room for bottom-up policy action at the destination level. This is particularly relevant as there are tourism relevant SDGs that have no dedicated targets nor indicators.

One of the peculiarities of the SDGs and the rationale behind the setting of targets and indicators is the possibility for organizations to coalesce in providing guidelines for the achievement of the goals. With respect to tourism, the UNWTO and the UNDP introduced the *Mainstreaming Acceleration and Policy Support* (MAPS) approach to support countries "towards the integration of the SDGs in national and local development policy frameworks, as well as budgets, monitoring and evaluation systems and the identification of measures and programmes" (UNWTO and UNDP, 2017, p. 33). Despite the entailed flexibility in terms of adapting SDGs to country-specific characteristics and sovereignty, this still raises concerns as to the consistency of processes and outcomes, comparability, and the rest of the challenges associated with the measurement of sustainable tourism in the first place. Provided that sustainable tourism is not yet defined through an established framework and standard, the externalization of its operationalization and measurement to national decision-makers exposes the concept to their ideology, agendas, and initiatives, without adequately accounting for governance schemes as the mediating and control factor. This, in turn, exacerbates the fallibility of SDGs indicators and their application both from top-down hierarchy and network governance perspectives.

A further symptom of the discrepancies around the SDGs and the application of indicators in tourism can be seen in the rationale behind established international and national performance indicators. Tourism benefits and impacts are unevenly aggregated within national performance and pressure indicators and neither specifically nor sufficiently accounted for in any of the national territorial statistics, the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), or the Systems of Environmental Economic Accounting (SEEA) (Batista e Silva et al., 2018; Glyptou et al., 2014). The ongoing challenge of harmonizing tourism statistics is widely acknowledged in tourism research (e.g. Page & Hall, 2003). Discrepancies between data collection methodologies, units of analysis, scale and context make the fulfilment of the SDG agenda in destinations extremely challenging (UNWTO, 2016).

Interestingly, the *Measuring Sustainable Tourism* (MST) project launched by the UNWTO and the UNSD in 2015 advocates that all sustainable tourism measurement schemes should integrate the established measurement frameworks of the TSA (TSA: Recommended Methodological Framework), the SEEA (Central Framework), and relevant "location specific (sub-national level) information in decision making on tourism" (UNWTO, 2016; 2). However, the TSA Recommended Methodological Framework (TSA: RMF 2008, 2010) conceives the social dimension of tourism in relation to job creation *tout court*. The methodology, therefore, overlooks aspects dear to the SDGs (e.g. job stability, education, and training) and adopts a macroeconomic indicator that does not take into consideration social indicators such as the actual contribution to the host community, the importance of job creation in specific under-privileged groups (i.e. women and young people), the responsible and ethical generation of income as per destination standards and, mainly, how all these benefits diffuse at all levels of society and contribute to long-term prosperity and wellbeing.

In comparison, SEEA focuses on the operational environmental footprint of the sector attempting to establish its assessment along its life cycle and interconnections with its supply chain. What the SEEA Central Framework often oversees is the quality and availability of resources as well as the capacity of the ecosystem to sustain the provision of these products and services (e.g. land use changes; landscape artificialization). Instead, pure environmental objectives are often considered sustainability initiatives, giving the impression that sustainability is merely achieved through environmental protection, which is often perceived to be at odds with economic development and prosperity.

Undeniably, there is a discrepancy between the aspirations embodied in the SDGs and the applications specific to tourism, both at the international and national level. The achievement of sustainability is usually communicated as an ideal state in the remote future, bearing, expectedly, elements of inherent abstractness and perceptual situational subjectivity (Pulido Fernandez & Rivero, 2009). Hall (2019) clearly conceptualizes the problem when differentiating between "sustainability" and "sustainable development", with the latter referring mainly to the continuous dynamic process of continuous improvements rather than a static outcome goal. Yet, over the years, this very perception further restrained the translation of sustainable tourism into the development of strategies and policy agendas with indicators legitimizing the narrative of short-term visible achievements. The compilation of data on aggregated indices often results in the ranking of countries or regions based on their acquired scores, notwithstanding their individual characteristics, evolution, or management priorities. Needless to say, the ranking of countries in terms of their sustainability or competitiveness supports market-driven ideology that is at odds with more compelling social and environmental principles of sustainability in general, and sustainable development in particular.

In light of what has been observed so far, the problem seems to lie in the ambiguity of the operational interpretation of sustainable tourism (Butler, 1999; Glyptou et al., 2014; Torres-Delgado & Lopez Palomeque, 2014) or at least a lack of agreement over the necessary steps towards its achievement. Traditionally, sustainability assessment schemes are built on the specificities of each case-study destination or tourism product (Cernat & Gourdon, 2012; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018; Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2018; UN, 2012). However, these studies are the result of extensive research in a limited range of destinations and rarely comparative. More interestingly, very little attention has been given to longitudinal research supporting extensive assessment studies. Instead, the current SDG indicators system only provides a glimpse of the complex picture that is sustainable tourism development.

4 What Future for the SDGs and Tourism Indicators?

What, then, is the way forward for indicators in relation to the SDGs and tourism? Whilst indicators clearly have their role to play, particularly within a global goal setting system with defined targets (UN, 2020; UNSTATS, 2020), it is also obvious that the current application of pro-growth, market-dominated logic will only exacerbate existing inequalities whilst green-washing a continuation of the current neo-liberal tourism landscape (Hall, 2015; Hall & Amore, 2016). This is unsurprising given the significant role played by the private sector, particularly large transnational organizations, in the development and realization of the SDGs (Scheyvens et al., 2016). The inclusion of businesses as development actors has only heightened the dilution of the meaning of sustainability, a concept that should be intrinsically at odds with the infinite market growth narrative. This erosion of sustainability discourse into a neo-liberal, growth-driven narrative is particularly apparent in the case of tourism, as noted by Higgins-Desbiolles (2018), and this permeates the tourism-specific indicators.

However, this is not to imply that all indicators are automatically problematic. Indicators can be extremely useful to policymakers who need a broad overview of the impact of structural changes, but their usefulness is limited by their lack of contextual situating and their inherent reliance on measurables. Furthermore, the tourism industry has been noted as being self-serving in that alterations to existing systems will only occur should they provide a tangible benefit (Buckley, 2018). Thus, given the emphasis on pro-growth indicators, it is unlikely that tourism-specific interventions will result in any real change, merely a continuation of “business as usual” (Scheyvens et al., 2016). This, according to Hall (2019), is precisely why global measures like the SDGs are wont to fail. It is proposed, therefore, that these measurement tools should function less as determinants of sustainable development policy and decision-making and more as supplementary materials, alongside context specific data, in particular qualitative assessments, to ensure informed decision-making.

Furthermore, there is a need for a re-orientation towards a degrowth model, which has been recommended in previous research (Boluk et al., 2019), wherein these tourism indicators are assessed in relation to environmental and socio-cultural limits. Development initiatives which start with the assumption that existing local resources are finite would allow for the creation of localized tourism systems which are both sufficient and efficient and minimize the overall impact of proposed tourism activities (Hall, 2009; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019). The use of degrowth principles in a development context is particularly relevant as it does not impede, in and of itself, economic improvements but instead prevents an uneven local tourism environment wherein the cost, both environmentally and socio-culturally, far exceeds the benefits. By providing an ecologically balanced application of existing indicators in tandem with a shift towards more inclusive governance environments (Siakwah et al., 2020), tourism potentially could assist in the achievement of the SDGs, but this requires a significant step-change from the current policy and planning environment.

Arguably, what is necessary is what Hall (2011) refers to as third-order change in sustainable tourism policy and governance issues. Third-order change implies a policy failure resulting in "discrepancies or inconsistencies [...] which cannot be explained within the existing paradigm" (Greener, 2001, p. 135). Third-order change, moreover, is an opportunity for policy learning "to adjust the goals or techniques of policy in response to past experience or new information" (Hall, 1993, p. 278). It is in such a phase of change that the infallibility of policy experts and indicators is questioned in the eyes of public opinion and civic society at large. The ongoing debate around sustainable tourism development suggests we are on the verge of a third-order change that, as Hall (2011) suggests, is highly likely to reframe the policy instruments that have thus far been used to legitimize a neoliberal-infused rhetoric of market-driven sustainability.

A third-order change is already happening, with Meuleman (2020) highlighting how the implementation of the SDGs has met obstacles and issues that can be ascribed to the incapability of policy systems to support the achievement of the goals within ideal-typical governance styles. In his view, the shift from sustainability governance to sustainability metagovernance (Meuleman, 2020):

> can make it possible to "orchestrate" SDG implementation frameworks in ways that take into account the full context, including cultures, history, geography, existing sills, capacity and resources of public authorities, in relation to the type of problems and the feasibility of using certain instruments (p. 279).

5 Conclusions

This chapter provided an appraisal of the SDGs and the relevant tourism indicators from a public policy and instrument governance perspective. Building from the theory of Le Gales and Lascoumes on the governance of indicators, this chapter shed light on the hegemonic rhetoric of tourism development that permeates the mechanisms and parameters behind established sustainable tourism indicators.

Subsequently, the chapter questioned the capability and legitimacy of indicators in supporting the fulfilment of the ambitious SDGs agenda without considering environmental, social, economic, and political peculiarities of destinations. Finally, this chapter discussed the transition from ideologies to indicators by suggesting a third-order change is necessary to support the aspirations of the SDGs and its application to tourism.

Undeniably, more research is needed to reflect the recent shift to sustainability metagovernance and apply it to the current sustainable tourism development debate. Research in public policy illustrates that it is necessary to reconsider and reframe indicators to reflect the holistic vision of the SDG agenda. The current flaws in the monitoring and appraisal of tourism as an effective means for sound sustainable development can be compensated as long as there is a significant third-order change from the current policy and planning environment with an emphasis on the socio-ecological limits of any given destination.

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Stories of Sustainability in Tourism

Gianna Moscardo

1 Introduction

Gottschall's (2012) identification of stories as fundamental for human existence is based on extensive evidence gathered from psychology, anthropology, and sociology reflecting a strong story turn in each of these social science disciplines. Psychology was the earliest discipline to recognize the importance of stories in human cognition, especially memory, comprehension, and learning (Schank & Berman, 2002) and individual identity (McAdams, 2018). Anthropology also has a long-standing interest in stories as a way of creating and transmitting culture and maintaining social bonds (McGranahan, 2015). In sociology, the story turn reflects aspects of postmodern societies where social identities and changes in power structures have enhanced the importance of telling the stories of individuals and previously marginalized groups (Polletta et al., 2011). This story turn acknowledges stories as valuable topics for research attention as they are common in everyday practice. Not surprisingly, stories have become an important educational and persuasive strategy in applied areas such as education and marketing (Brakke & Houska, 2015; Spiller, 2018) and in communicating about, and encouraging sustainability action (Leinaweaver, 2015; Robertson, 2019). This chapter is situated within the story turn and argues that stories are both central to much contemporary tourism practice (Moscardo, 2020a) and valuable tools for improving the conduct of tourism especially in the area of sustainability.

Before exploring links between stories and sustainability in tourism it is important to clarify definitions of key terms, especially as many tourism researchers often use the terms stories and narratives interchangeably, and as there are two different ways the term narrative is used. In its common usage in psychology, sociology, and

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anthropology, a narrative is a broad term for "the representation of an event or a series of events" (Abbott, 2021, p. 12). Stories then are a specific type of narrative (Abbott, 2021). Moscardo (2020b, p. 3) defines stories as narratives that "must provoke emotional responses, and have a clear beginning, setting and ending, a primary goal of entertainment and a sequence of causally related events which includes a challenge or unexpected incident, the reaction of characters to that challenge or incident, the consequences of those reactions and some sort of resolution." Narratives in literary analysis are seen quite differently and are usually described as themes or core messages within stories that bind together multiple stories (Moscardo, 2017a). In this sense they are like the master or meta-narratives of psychology and sociology (cf., Causadias et al., 2018).

While there has been a considerable increase in narrative analysis in tourism research, the specific analysis and use of stories in research in tourism has been limited (McCabe & Foster, 2006; Moscardo, 2020b). One exception is the use of stories in futures analysis where they are referred to as futures scenarios (Burnam-Fink, 2015). The creation of future scenarios requires several analytical steps including understanding or mapping the present situation, analysis of the factors and processes that underpin key aspects of this situation and either exploring possible sources of change and disruption to this present state or identifying pathways to desirable futures (Inayatullah, 2008; Jones et al., 2012). See Hughes and Moscardo (2019) and Moscardo (2021a) for examples of this methodology applied to tourism. The present chapter assumes that improving the sustainability of tourism is a desirable future for tourism planners and managers and thus uses this futures methodology to analyze and identify guidelines for using stories to encourage greater sustainability in, and through, tourism. More specifically, it:

- maps out the present situation describing a stories model of tourism which sets out the various roles that stories have within the tourism destination system;
- examines in more detail the use of stories in tourist experience opportunities to encourage sustainability at and beyond the destination;
- identifies the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of stories as persuasive tools and positive experiences based on a review of the relevant literature; and
- identifies pathways to improving the relationships between tourism and sustainability by describing a set of principles for the design and use of stories for sustainability in tourist experiences.

2 A Stories Model of Tourism Destinations

Figure 1 presents a simplified stories model of tourism at the destination level. Within this model there are six main elements and eight interconnections of importance to the present discussion. The thickness of the connecting arrows indicates the strength or importance of the connection. At the center of the model are the tourist experience opportunities (TEOs) that are available to destination visitors and these

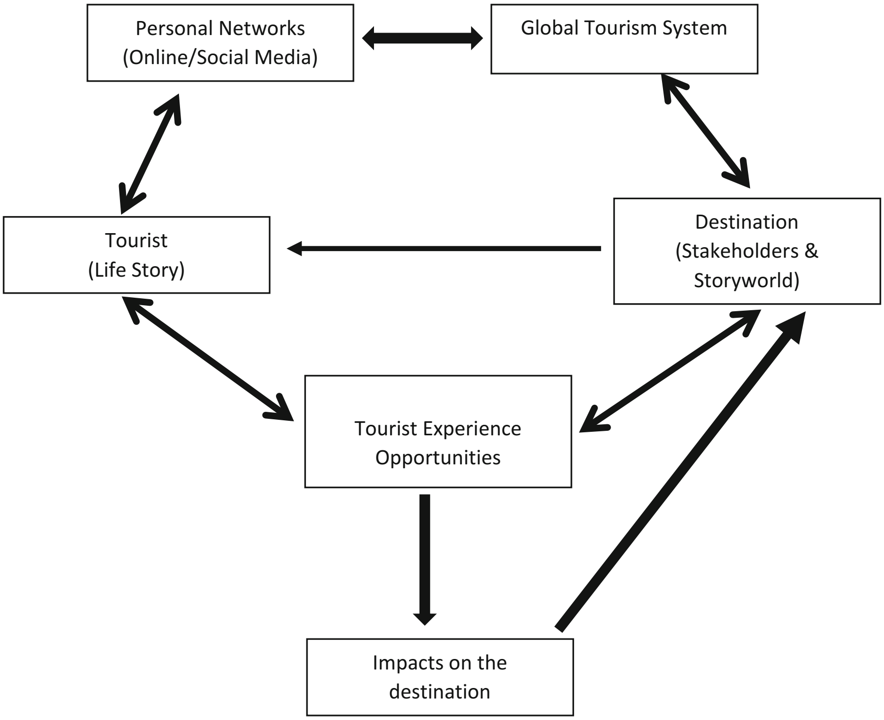

Fig. 1 A stories model of tourism destinations

include the tours, attractions, and activities that are offered to tourists. These are developed and managed by tourism businesses, destination marketing/management organizations (DMOs), government agencies and residents, who are all stakeholders in the destination element in the model. It is these TEOs and the infrastructure and processes that support them that are the main source of tourism impacts, both positive and negative, determining the sustainability of tourism at the destination level. The TEOs are presented in promotional material targeted both directly at tourists and indirectly through the large global tourism system. Put simply DMOs, tourism planners and developers and tourism businesses select which TEOs to offer based on destination resources and perceptions of market demand. These TEOs are promoted widely to potential tourists and then directly to actual tourists on arrival. Tourist choices have always been influenced by advice and recommendations from their personal networks as well as by destination promotion, but in recent years these personal networks are typically connected online through social media making them more pervasive and able to have a more immediate impact on tourists' choices (Narangajavana et al., 2017). What and how tourists engage in TEOs then generates the impacts that are critical to tourism and sustainability at that destination.

2.1 Stories and Tourist Experiences

Stories exist in multiple places within this model. The two most important places for stories are the tourist and the destination. It was noted in the introduction that personal and social identity is built around stories. For tourists each trip offers an opportunity to write a new chapter in the life story that supports their identity (Moscardo, 2017a). Destinations offer tourists a storyworld, or a set of stories linked by a common theme, time, character, or location (Moloney, 2020; Moscardo, 2018). Increasingly destinations select options from their storyworld to tell potential tourists through traditional promotional campaigns but also through the user-generated online and social media content incorporated into their marketing. The destination storyworld includes the personal stories of destination residents, historic and cultural stories of the place and its social groups, the stories of the tourism businesses, activities and attractions on offer, stories of previous tourists and links to fictional stories such as novels, movies, and television shows. In addition, it includes the story of tourism in the destination, how and why it was developed and how it impacts on the destination.

2.2 Stories and Sustainability

Stories can be linked to destination sustainability in multiple ways. The type of story developers and planners tell about tourism can influence the extent to which destination residents are able to leverage tourism as a resource to enhance their well-being (see Moscardo, 2021b, for more detail). The selection of which stories to tell in promotional activities influences the type of tourist attracted, the level of engagement with the destination community, tourist expectations in terms of consumption and action, and power relations between groups within the destination community. For example, promoting an island destination in a protected marine area with stories of full moon dance parties and celebrities enjoying sumptuous luxury encourages a style of tourism that not only excludes residents but also encourages less sustainable tourist behaviors. Similarly telling stories of the colonial history of the island may attract different tourists but excludes already marginalized indigenous groups. Of particular interest to the present chapter are the stories that are told about the destination during and after tourist experiences that are specifically aimed at persuading tourists to be more sustainable both at and beyond the destination, and the personal stories that tourists' create from their destination experiences that can be shared to encourage more sustainable action beyond tourism.

2.3 Stories in Interpretation and Visitor Management

Interpretation is a term that refers to the presentation of information about a destination through activities such as guided tours, on signs on walking trails and in exhibitions and displays. Interpretation plays two important roles in tourism—it is a core element of many TEOs contributing to visitor satisfaction and, building on these positive experiences, informs and encourages minimal impact or sustainable action onsite (Moscardo, 2017b). Stories have long been recognized as a core element of interpretation both because of their effectiveness in education and persuasion and because of their entertainment value (Staiff, 2014). An example of this use of stories can be found in an exhibition about tree kangaroos at the Malanda Falls Visitor Interpretive Centre in the Wet Tropics World Heritage Area in Northern Australia. This display includes panels telling the story of Kimberley, an orphaned baby tree kangaroo who was taken in by a local wildlife carer and who became the model for a virtual reality (VR) experience of life in the rainforest, told from the perspective of Kimberly. The VR story includes incidents with some of the human dangers that tree kangaroos face, reinforcing the list of actions that visitors can take to support tree kangaroo conservation. This story both provides an experience with tree kangaroos and encourages sustainable behavior while in the destination. Sustainability stories can also be told during tourist experiences to encourage sustainable behavior beyond the destination. The New Belgium Brewery offers a very popular tour for visitors in Fort Collins, Colorado, USA. As tourists move through the brewery on the tour there are several places where they must wait for short periods and in these spaces are a series of exhibits that tell the story of the founders of the brewery and especially their personal focus on making boutique beer in a more environmentally responsible way. This story demonstrates that people can make small sustainable changes in their everyday lives and encourages people to both make these small changes and also to make more sustainable choices when it comes to their beverages.

Another option in telling sustainability stories directly to tourists involves telling sustainability success stories after their experiences. These stories explain the sustainability actions the relevant tourism enterprise has taken and how the tourist's actions have contributed to improvements in sustainability. This is an increasingly common strategy for retail brands. The social enterprise Who Gives a Crap, for example, shares sustainability success stories with its customers through social media, providing stories about how their purchases of toilet paper and paper towels contributes to improving the lives and environments of the people in the stories. Feedback on performance has been consistently shown to be a powerful tool for encouraging desirable action in many areas of psychology (Hermsen et al., 2016; Karlin et al., 2015). Such post experience success stories have also been suggested to encourage tourists suffering from eco-pessimism, eco-fatalism, and eco-anxiety to begin to develop more positive approaches to sustainable tourism options (Moscardo and Pearce, 2019).

2.4 Co-creating Stories

The final option to consider are experiences that allow tourists to create or co-create their own stories. Experiences in this category exist on a continuum from those that are highly structured and organized by the activity or attraction managers with tourists making it their own story by playing preset roles through to those that are supported by the activity or attraction managers but the tourists are the writers, directors, and actors guiding the story completely. An example of a highly structured story-based experience opportunity can be found at Green Island in Australia's Great Barrier Reef Marine Park and World Heritage Area. Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, rapidly increasing numbers of package tourists from mainland China began arriving on Green Island to experience the Great Barrier Reef. The large numbers of visitors combined with their low levels of experience in swimming and snorkeling in this type of environment contributed to a number of environmental management issues and to less positive experiences for the tourists. One suggested management strategy was to create a story-based walk around the island that could offer those with limited skills and interest in water-based activities a way to fill in their time and learn more about the heritage of the island. It was also hoped that it would decrease pressure on the beach access areas and move larger numbers of visitors to the already hardened walking trail decreasing damage to vegetation in other places. The walk was supported by a series of QR codes on the interpretive signs that linked the tourists to Chinese podcasts providing clues to a nature-based treasure hunt challenge story. HasleInteractive is an example of a mobile urban drama in which a story is used to encourage participants to engage in a series of activities that takes them through a natural environment seeking clues to help solve a science fiction mystery. The visitors are seeking answers to assist two scientists to understand why large parts of nature of dying. While the basic story premise is provided and the activity is guided by the mobile technology, individuals have choices and options for personalizing the experience and creating their own story (Hansen et al., 2012). While examples directly linked to sustainability of the final more visitor-based story creation are difficult to find, presenting various tours and activities as personal journeys of challenge is not uncommon in tourism (cf., Mathisen, 2013; Nelson, 2015; Pera, 2017). The stories model suggests that another way to encourage more sustainable tourist actions is to develop opportunities for tourists to engage in their own personal sustainability, rather than physical or emotional, challenge or adventure story.

The examples provided thus far are about development of co-created story-based experiences directly focused on sustainability content. It could also be argued that story-based co-created experiences can also support tourism sustainability through links to staycations and slow tourism. Concerns over the sustainability of global tourism focus on the importance of persuading tourists to travel less including holidaying in their home region in what are called staycations, and traveling slower in terms of staying longer in a single destination and using alternative slower forms of transport (Hall, 2011; de Bloom et al., 2017). While the COVID 19 pandemic has made staycations the only form of travel currently available to many tourists it has raised the challenge of finding ways to make local TEOs seem attractive to local residents. Story-based co-creation TEOs offer a way to address this issue with personalized adventures and stories that reveal the exotic beneath the mundane in local areas. As travel restrictions ease there is anecdotal evidence that tourists may seek slow tourism options to limit their exposure to large numbers of other travelers. Story-based co-creation TEOs also offer potential to support slow tourism giving people the chance to create personal stories that can extend over multiple time periods and activities within a single location.

3 Features of Effective Stories

Major reviews reporting the effectiveness of stories in persuasive communication exist in many areas including pro-environmental education (Rhodes et al., 2016), desirable health action (Shen et al., 2015), and pro-social behavior programs (Steinemann et al., 2017). A review of two substantial research areas in psychology, the effectiveness of persuasive communication and enjoyment and learning from popular media and entertainment, provides both a conceptual model to explain the main processes that link stories to effective persuasion and a set of consistent results identifying the factors that influence this effectiveness. Figure 2 sets out a simplified version of this conceptual model developed from the work of Busselle and Bilandzic (2008), Carpenter and Green (2012), and Green and Dill (2013).

At the center of this model are the concepts of narrative engagement and perceived realism. Narrative engagement is a broad term that summarizes keys ways in which stories encourage cognitive elaboration and includes comprehensibility, character connection, and narrative transportation (Quintero Johnson & Sangalang, 2017). Stories are a basic cognitive structure making them generally more easily comprehended than other information structures which allows attention to focus on the content and messages in the story (Green & Dill, 2013). All stories have characters and story audiences can connect to these characters in two ways—identification and parasocial interaction. Identification involves wanting to be like the character; in the words of Cohen (2001), p. 248) “imagining being someone else and imagining behaving like someone else”. Parasocial interaction refers to seeing the character as likeable and a friend (Carpenter & Green, 2012). Perceived realism is where the audience perceives that the plot and the actions of the characters are plausible and consistent within the story (Nera et al., 2018). Perceived realism is about consistency and plausibility and not about whether or not the story is fact, fiction, or fantasy, with no evidence to suggest that factual stories are more effective than fiction. If a story is easily comprehensible and can generate narrative engagement and perceived realism in its audience, then it is more likely to encourage:

- a reduction in counter arguing where people actively seek to evaluate claims made by others (Nabi & Meyer-Guse, 2013);

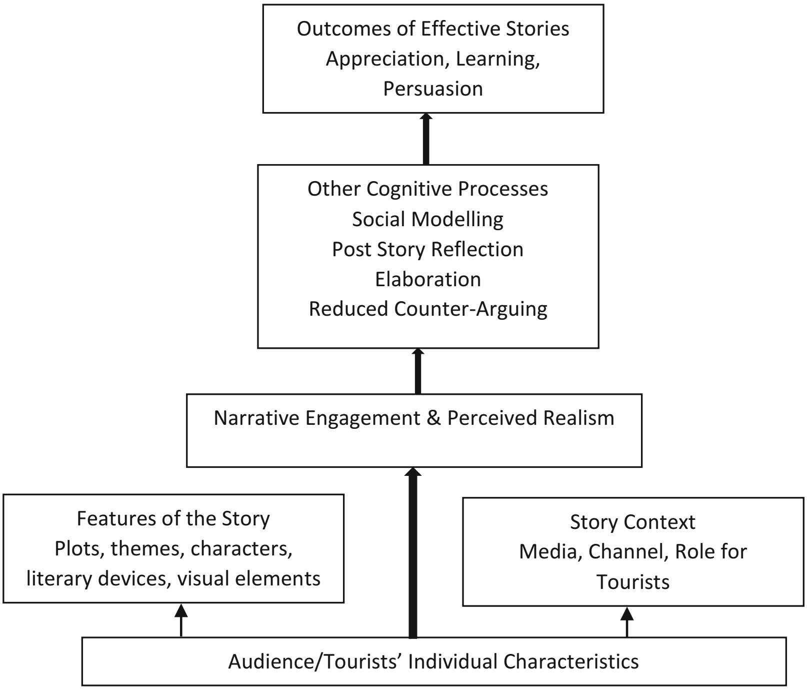

Fig. 2 Simplified model of stories and persuasion

- an increase in elaboration or deeper processing of the issues covered in the story (Nabi & Green, 2015); and
- more post story reflection where the individual remembers the story and shares it with others (Popova, 2015).

When these are combined with clear messages and the social modeling or demonstration of desired action by characters in the story then stories are likely to have positive outcomes including appreciation, learning, and persuasion (Nabi & Meyer-Guse, 2013). The process is influenced by three main sets of variables, features of the story, individual characteristics of the audience, and features of the context. Of particular interest to the present discussion are the features of the story and how these encourage perceived realism and narrative engagement. This discussion does not include research that demonstrates the importance of features related to all forms of communication, not just stories, such as checking on the readability of written text, avoiding technical jargon, and using short sentences and active voice. In terms of story context, we can distinguish between stories that are told to tourists where the tourists are primarily audience members and stories that are co-created with tourists through action and engagement. Tourists can be told stories through written media, such as on interpretive signs and in brochures and guides or they can listen to stories from live story tellers or through audiovisual media. The available research suggests that listening to a story is more effective than reading a story

Table 1 Characteristics of effective stories

Literary devices such as analogies, metaphors, and repetition are effective at gaining and holding audience attention but the use of too many literary devices can make stories more difficult to comprehend and distract attention from the content and messages
Presenting the story in its chronological order (although some storytellers play with timelines to introduce suspense, this is not a universal literary device and again can make comprehension more difficult)
Providing multisensory detail in descriptions
Describing and encouraging emotions
Ensuring that the introduction to the story includes details and information required to understand later incidents and responses, which means identifying necessary knowledge that a storyteller might mistakenly assume the audience has
Starting the story with a surprise, mystery, question or challenge
Presenting clear and explicit causal links between events and consequences and signaling critical information
Having a critical central event where a character must make a decision or meet a challenge using what they have learnt earlier in the story
Creating and describing relatable and authentic characters that audience members can connect to
Using established plots such as the hero's journey
Using universal themes such as survival, love, family and sacrifice, rebirth or discovery of self, overcoming challenges and defeating evil and achieving justice attracts
Telling a story of success

Selected sources: Gabay (2015), Gallo (2016), Graesser et al. (1997), Nabi & Green (2015), Popova (2015), Reed (2013), Richards (2012)

(Matlin, 2013), possibly because reading takes up more cognitive processing resources and takes longer and because storytellers can introduce emotion through their voices and gestures (Gallo, 2016). In co-created experience-based stories tourists have more active roles making choices and engaging in action. Greater engagement and direct experience are associated with more effective persuasive power (Moscardo, 2017c). Emerging research from the realm of trans-media storytelling where stories play out across a range of different media with elements of games typically accessed through mobile online and digital platforms suggests that this use of technology in story-based action is also an effective tool for learning and persuasion (Blumberg et al., 2013). While the choice of context for storytelling has to fit into the nature of the destination, what the destination community is comfortable with, the resources available and the nature of the story, it is clear that story co-creation and active engagement in a story is a more desirable option than simply telling tourists a story. Finally, there are features of the actual story and Table 1 summarizes the major conclusions from research examining the features that contribute to effective experience and persuasion outcomes.

4 Principles for Design and Use of Stories for Sustainability in Tourism Experience Opportunities

This summary of a review of research into stories in psychology and related areas identifies features and processes that enhance stories as a persuasive communication tool especially about sustainability. Combining these with consideration of the ways in which stories might be used to enhance tourism sustainability at the destination level generates a set of principles for improving the planning and management of tourism. Table 2 lists these principles.

5 Notes of Caution

Three areas of caution need to be recognized when considering the use of stories to encourage greater sustainability in tourism—the sustainability of the stories and story-based activities; the need for more tourism specific research, and the need to understand and recognize the deliberative routine action distinction in encouraging tourist to engage in sustainable actions. Although the previous sections have outlined the different ways in which stories can be used effectively to encourage greater sustainability both in and beyond tourism, it is important to remember that every tourism management strategy, process and/or decision can also be examined in terms of its own sustainability. Moscardo (2017a) mentions three challenges for the sustainability of storytelling in the design of tourist experiences. The first is determining whose stories are told, whose are not told, and who has the authority to

Table 2 Principles for sustainability stories in tourist experiences

The experience must be based around a complete story not just a description of an incident or event, it must have characters, a challenge, incident or problem that these characters have to face, their reactions, the consequences of these reactions and some sort of resolution with a clear, lesson, moral, theme, or take-home message.
The story should be created around a universal theme (survival, love, family and sacrifice, rebirth or discovery of self, overcoming challenges and defeating evil and achieving justice) and be a success story.
A co-created story or a story told to tourists that provides them with opportunities to have direct engagement in activities linked to the story is preferable to storytelling where the tourists play a passive role.
The story should have clearly established authentic characters that tourists can connect to and, where possible, tourists should be encouraged to imagine themselves as a character in the story. Where possible local residents could be used to play characters in the story.
The story should begin with a surprise and establish important core knowledge before leading up to a major incident, decision, event or challenge that must be resolved using knowledge learnt in the earlier parts of the story.
The story should be told or created in chronological order and include very clear and explicit causal links.
The story should use multiple senses and highlight emotions whenever possible.

choose, present, and alter stories. These decisions both reflect and influence the nature of power relationships within destination communities and raise ethical issues especially for often marginalized indigenous groups for whom stories may be a special element of their cultures (cf., Belfiore, 2020). The second challenge is to critically assess and manage the environmental and social impacts of the actual activities linked to storytelling and story creating tourist experiences. Moscardo's (2017a) third challenge was to manage the impacts of tourists copying stories circulated through social media. In 2018 Moscardo expanded this latter point to include managing the negative or undesirable stories tourists tell about destinations through social media. This last challenge raises several issues that are not easy to resolve. More specifically, judgments about whose stories are desirable are based on values and power and so are likely to always have some element of conflict. It is also likely that very effective story-based TEOs will be popular and this may create problems with attracting too many visitors, a common dilemma in tourism. Finally, managing stories distributed on social media requires engagement with the wider social media audience and not just the tourists, and management strategies for this context have yet to be fully determined and evaluated.

The principles developed in this chapter are based on considerable evidence from thousands of studies published in psychology and persuasive communication conducted in a wide range of settings including education and training, health, pro-social action, pro-environmental action, politics, business, retail consumption, and media and entertainment consumption. In addition, they are supported by well-established theories that have been tested over extended periods of time. They are not however based on research into stories in the tourism context because there is little such research available. It may be that tourist experiences are too fleeting and singular to generate the same effects or that context variables are stronger in tourism settings than in other more familiar locations. While the limited tourism research available does, however, support the conclusions and principles outlined in this chapter (Buchmann et al., 2010; Kim, 2012; Kim & Youn, 2017; Macionis & Sparks, 2009; Moscardo, 2017c; Ryu et al., 2019), more research is needed.

The final note of caution to be considered lies in the need to be careful when discussing how to encourage tourist to engage in sustainable actions to recognize the difference between habitual repetitive behaviors such as hanging up towels and switching off lights, and deliberative behaviors, such as selecting a sustainable tourism option. One major problem with tourism research into the effectiveness of different strategies to encourage more sustainable tourist or guest behavior is a failure to recognize that these two very different types of behavior operate in two different cognitive processing systems, are explained by different psychological concepts and theories and thus require different sorts of interventions (Moscardo, 2019). Stories are aimed at deliberative behaviors and exist within the deep processing, mindful version of dual processing (Wang et al., 2019) which is a fundamental concept in psychology (Powell et al., 2019).

6 Conclusion: Sustainable Tourism Futures COVID and Beyond

This chapter hopes to contribute to the new story of future tourism through increasing our understanding of how to use stories more effectively in the planning and management of tourism improving the relationships between tourism and sustainability. For tourism practitioners, especially those working in destination planning and management, there are opportunities to use stories to enhance tourism sustainability by creating destination storyworlds that support more sustainable tourist activities, that include more resident stories in tourism, and that explicitly tell stories of sustainability at and beyond the destination. Tourist practitioners can also enhance tourism sustainability by specifically seeking the future tourism stories of residents and using these to guide planning decisions and by encouraging residents to engage in both storytelling and story co-creation. Finally, tourism practitioners can enhance tourism sustainability by assessing sustainability performance and telling success stories to tourists. These practices can be supported by research into how residents think about tourism futures, how to effectively engage residents in storytelling and co-creation, how tourists respond to story-based co-creation experience opportunities, and how to best disseminate sustainability success stories.

The COVID-19 pandemic has seen discussions amongst tourism academics reveal the existence of two different scenarios for the near future of tourism each with its own metaphor. Wicke and Bolognesi (2020) in their analysis of public discourse about the pandemic identify three dominant metaphors—Monster, Storm, and Tsunami. In the tourism academic context one future scenario compares COVID 19 to a monster blocking the road to a promised land where travel is freely available to consumers ready to support the tourism business sector. Once the monster is defeated, tourism can continue its march towards growth. In the alternative scenario the COVID-19 virus is a tsunami sweeping away the present, especially the problems of overtourism and climate change, offering an opportunity to rebuild a better tourism. Some argue that proponents of the first frame ignore many of the sustainability issues that tourism faces (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). Equally, proponents of the second frame could be accused of downplaying the challenge of rebuilding a better tourism in a world where international tourism dependent destinations may have few other options and may need immediate financial relief from the problems encountered during the pandemic (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). The challenge is to find a story of future tourism that acknowledges both the problems of unsustainable growth and the reality of needing some degree of commercial success. Stories might be an answer to this challenge.

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The Interface Between Sustainability and Technology in Tourism: A Transformative Learning Perspective

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1 Introduction

The rise in population and economic growth in recent decades has been astounding, intensifying global resource demand and environmental degradation; it is the most serious challenge facing humanity in the twenty-first century, and the solution lies in sustainability (Asadi et al., 2020; Nasrollahi et al., 2020). Sustainable development necessitates a long-term structural plan for the world's economic and social systems, with the goal of permanently reducing the strain on the environment and natural resources while sustaining economic growth and social cohesion (Sachs et al., 2019). Only long-term growth that successfully balances these aforementioned elements can be sustained. On the other hand, disregarding one of the factors of sustainable development might jeopardize the success of the entire development process.

Recent advancements in technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI), robotics, and biotechnology have demonstrated significant promise for long-term growth (Managi et al., 2021). The driving elements behind a nation's knowledge-driven economic growth and development strategy are access, adoption, and spread of new technology and breakthroughs. Many countries' economic, social, and environmental characteristics—the three main pillars of sustainable development—are now pervaded by technology (Gouvea et al., 2018). There are two ways in which technology and sustainability might be well matched. First, energy-efficient technologies provide greater output with a given input, implying that technology may be used as a catalyst for economic growth, a feature of sustainability (Ayres & Paas,

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2007). Second, energy-efficient technologies maintain environmental quality, which is another facet of sustainability (Nasrollahi et al., 2020). In light of the foregoing facts, technology and industrialization have a variety of possible consequences on sustainability, resulting in divergent perspectives on development plans (Nasrollahi et al., 2020).

The use of technology in the hotel and tourism sectors has risen in recent years on an organizational level. Because of the benefits it provides in terms of cutting labour expenses and improving service efficiency (Go et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021), intelligent technologies have been included in the hospitality and tourism industry, from underlying technologies like the Internet of Things (IoT), big data, cloud computing, speech recognition, and facial recognition to various applications such as social media, virtual reality (VR)/augmented reality (AR), intelligent service desks, and service robots (Chi et al., 2020). Broadly speaking, the influence of technology on the hospitality and tourism sector has grown even more substantial in recent decades as a result of the implementation of new technology services, resulting in the growth of the online travel market and the rising digitalization of the sector. Furthermore, Amadeus' distribution systems business sector, one of the most well-known global distribution systems in the world, produced around US$3.5 billion in revenue in 2019 (Statista, 2021). The 2015 adoption of the '2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development' with its 17 goals and 169 targets addresses the role of technology as a fundamental element in fostering sustainable development, and in promoting the achievement of the sustainable development goals (Gouvea et al., 2018).

The information discussed above indicates the indispensable role of technology in sustainable development. Although many academic studies in the literature have touched on the link between sustainability and technology, to our best knowledge, only a few studies have shown the necessary effort and importance in integrating technology into sustainable development elements. The current chapter takes a conceptual approach to this gap in the literature and explains the importance of technology in sustainable development under the tenet of the transformative learning theory.

2 Transformative Learning Theory

According to transformative theory as proposed by Mezirow (1991), the consistent knowledge acquired and the responses and meanings ascribed to the world by individuals are often a function of various practical life experiences, sense of judgement, assumptions, values, ideas, and relationships over time; otherwise known as frames of reference (Mezirow, 1997). Hence, the theory identifies some factors that influence changes in worldview, belief, perception, and understanding by individuals. Transformative learning theory further suggests that individuals are capable of automatically refusing whatever views, ideas, and opinions that are contradictory to their existing frames of reference. These predispositions constrain

Table 1 Steps of transformative learning theory

Steps	Title	Definition
Step 1	Trigger	'This is best described as a crisis that cannot be resolved through the application of previous problem-solving strategies'
Step 2	Appraisal	'This occurs when the learner begins to come to grips with his or her incompetence in a new contextual experience'
Step 3	Exploration	'This involves examining new and different ways of explaining or accommodating the experience that has led to discomfort for the learner'
Step 4	Alternatives	'This allows for experimenting with a new role, new way of behaving, or a new way of dealing with a problem'
Step 5	Integration	'This takes place as these new ways become part of current behaviours and practices in daily life'

Source: Brookfield (1987)

individuals' knowledge and consequently inform their responses (Mezirow, 1991). However, transformative learning contains new capabilities for individuals to gain more liberal and comprehensive insights into their world (Mezirow, 1991; Pearce & Foster, 2007). Elkins (2003) opines that transformative learning is said to be taking place when individuals abruptly or gradually modify their responses to current dynamics after engaging in critical reflection on their predispositions and recognizing their limitations, which are also at variance with contextual realities. Similarly, Brookfield (1987) unveils a series of steps to transformative learning for individuals or groups in a complementary model (see Table 1). The fluidity of the steps means that it can be operationalized without necessarily following any sequential order, and a step can even be omitted without disrupting the transformative learning process.

With the works of Mezirow (1991) and Brookfield (1987), practitioners have unparalleled advancement to novel and active remedies that meet the transformational needs of contemporary organizations and leaders by following the guidelines provided by the transformative learning theory. The theory of transformative learning gives insights into key traits that can be developed into crucial and valuable managerial competencies necessary for leaders with responsibilities to facilitate organizational change. The salient competencies listed in transformative theory invariably impact on managers' critical and objective thinking capabilities necessary for deep reflection on previous behaviours. Leaders also gain collaborative and consensus abilities for synergizing with others to create effective action plans and pathways for transforming firm resources. While building on the earlier work of Mezirow (1991) on transformative learning, Wolf et al. (2017) came up with a new conceptual model with factors that trigger transformative processes and the subsequent results. These scholars suggest four dimensions of transformative tourism experiences: (1) disorienting dilemma, (2) self-reflection, (3) resolution by exploring new actions, and (4) development of new skills, attitudes, and beliefs' (p. 1664).

Moreover, Wolf et al. (2017) also suggest that individuals can address internal conflict through self-reflection on opportunities their privileged position had conferred on them, which has shaped their perspectives and interpersonal relationship. Companies can also show their enlightenment with firm decisions to act differently through self-reflection methods (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Wolf et al., 2015). Furthermore, the third dimension in the model by Wolf et al. (2015) is exploring new responses to situations in order to find workable solutions to crises, such as adaptation of organizational resources to a new normal. One way practitioners can facilitate this new dimension is through sharing and solidarity with others in critical situations (Robledo & Batle, 2017). These solidarity actions and the lessons learned from the disorienting dilemma and aftermath of self-reflection can trigger the desire in individuals to apply similar techniques to resolve similar situations when necessary (Wolf et al., 2015). Last but not the least of these dimensions is the development of new skills, attitudes, and beliefs. Essentially, a major transformative learning outcome is that practitioners could gain both mental and physical capabilities and opportunities to develop new skills for adapting their scarce resources after a major disorientating situation; also known as long-term attribute-building (Noy, 2004; Reisinger, 2013). This broad spectrum of psychological, mental, and physical capacities includes crisis management, cross-cultural understanding, resilience, managerial proficiency, and endurance (Kirillova et al., 2017; Knollenberg et al., 2014; Noy, 2004).

There is a growing body of evidence where the theory of transformative learning has been extensively used to theorize transformative actions in tourism (Pung et al., 2020; Robledo & Batle, 2017; Soulard et al., 2019; Wolf et al., 2017). Coghlan and Weiler, for instance, describe disorienting dilemmas in tourism as crises or situations that trigger customers to seek new ways to compensate for their loss. Another example is Wolf et al. (2017) who, as explained earlier, developed a four-dimensional conceptual model containing triggers of the transformative process and their outcomes. More recently, Pung et al. (2020) developed a conceptual framework that describes the tourist transformation process in a cross-section of experiences. Similarly, these scholars allude to the fact that transformative theory is useful for justifying customers' experiences of culture shock that often result in the development of a broader worldview and global awareness by tourists. The conceptual framework also indicates that applying new technologies in dealing with chaotic, complex, and critical disorientating circumstances gives customers chances to learn, develop, and improve other critical skills, knowledge, and capabilities mentioned above (Pung et al., 2020).

Explicitly, transformative learning theory includes obtaining a wider sense of the world, triggering new and innovative abilities as well as competences regarding the new circumstances (Soulard et al., 2019). Therefore, consensus reached on this theory adds a theoretical foundation to validate individuals' (e.g. employees, customers, etc.) responses to the new multifaceted and chaotic conditions. To demonstrate, disasters or unexpected negative events and their consequences could be deliberated on as a starting point, which encourages people to question themselves, appraise their current situations and roles, look for options, and change their roles and situations in the new normal. Under the umbrella of transformative learning theory, we argue that individuals experience new challenges (e.g., crises, disasters) and improve required precautions (Pearce & Foster, 2007). That is, such global crises could be conceived of as occasions of transformative learning. In other words, the crisis/disaster leads to individuals' transformative experiences, including conducting new form of relations with others, living in a self-isolated manner, keeping social distancing, avoiding crowded areas (e.g. resort hotels), preferring more isolated destinations or accommodation facilities, and adopting new-generation technologies. Therefore, scholars should specifically consider transformative experiences, which are based on exceptional conditions that compel individuals to reconsider their understanding, expectations, and world beliefs in a long-lasting and life-changing form (Kirillova et al., 2017).

3 An Interface of Technology and Sustainability in Tourism and Hospitality

According to the United Nations General Assembly, sustainable development is a concept that '*meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*' (United Nations General Assembly, 2015, p. 35). According to the UN, '*for sustainable development to be achieved, it is crucial to harmonize three core elements: economic growth, social inclusion and environmental protection*' which are essential for the well-being of communities (United Nations General Assembly, 2015, p. 35). The notion of sustainable development began to receive extensive attention in the last four decades as evidenced by the 'World Conservation Strategy' (IUCN, 1980) and 'Our Common Future' reports (WCED, 1987). Amplifying attention on sustainability mirrors an increasing concern regarding all types of key problems encountered by communities, environments, and economies at a variety of spatial and temporal scales (Jones et al., 2016). These issues include continuous population growth and urbanization, as well as the stresses that they place on natural resource use, climate change, pollution, and the loss of natural ecosystems and water shortage in some parts of the world (Acar & Dincer, 2020; Azam et al., 2018; Iqbal et al., 2020; Ives et al., 2018; Katircioglu, 2014; Khan et al., 2019; Wheeler et al., 2012). Theoretically, sustainability emerges as a concept developed against the problems mentioned above (Jones et al., 2016). Diesendorf (2000, p. 21) underlines that sustainability can be accepted as 'the goal or endpoint of a process called sustainable development'.

Technology includes the development of novel concepts that are useful in order to enhance the quality of individual lives, as well as the health of the natural world (Fennell & Bowyer, 2020). As a result, technology plays a pivotal role in our efforts to achieve sustainability, as sustainable technologies reduce negative environmental impacts (Alvarez-Herranz et al., 2017; Cai et al., 2020). Technology is strongly associated with novelty, which includes the construction of new approaches, concepts, or products. Mutually, technology as well as innovation is determinedly engaged in the core of the sector, as administrations work for the sake of revenue, rivalry, keeping speed with the requirements of community, and unravelling problems (Fennell & Bowyer, 2020). Technology and innovation are vital for the hospitality and tourism sector since they hold solutions for problems and difficulties (Fennell & Bowyer, 2020; Law et al., 2019; Martín-Rios & Ciobanu, 2019). The growth of smart technology, for example, has increased the reach of sustainable tourism information networks' wireless communication, mobile devices, and also IoT (Pan et al., 2018). Pan et al. (2018) elucidate that smart technologies may revolutionize all parts of conventional and sustainable tourism. This is because new technology collects data to fill in gaps and enhances hospitality via efficiency. According to Pan et al. (2018), '*great internet accessibility can bolster connectivity, marketing, distribution and networking … Moreover, the real-time monitoring system based on the WSNs should be installed to allow developing a sustainable and profitable system that can evaluate the relationship between the environment (in terms of natural environment or satisfaction of tourists) and a sustainable tourism'* (p. 461).

Generally, technology and sustainability can coexist in at least two ways (Nasrollahi et al., 2020). Firstly, Ayres and Paas (2007) underline that renewable energy technologies generate more output with a given input, suggesting technology as a forerunner for economic development, which is a dimension of sustainability. Secondly, environmental quality as an additional component of sustainability is protected with energy-efficient technologies (Taghvaee & Hajiani, 2016). Consistent with the aforementioned information, technology has prodigious effects on sustainability (Nasrollahi et al., 2020). In addition, the rapid development of technology has fundamentally transformed the dynamics and business models of the tourism and hospitality industry (Calvaresi et al., 2021). This triggers a novel form of competitiveness among service providers and transforms customer experience through new services. Despite its importance, only a few studies focus on the technology and sustainability nexus in the hospitality literature.

Benckendorff et al. (2014) deliberate on the effects of technology on sustainability in tourism and hospitality in terms of environment, social, and economic terms. As noted by the authors, for tourism to be sustainable, continuous, training, monitoring, and cooperation are needed, which can be accomplished on the foundation of technology. They give several instances of how technology aids in the distribution and accessibility of information, the creation of environmental as well as cultural awareness, the monitoring of environmental resources, and the reduction of energy use. Technology is progressing and developing impressively, and this is altering both the anticipation of consumers and the way in which the hospitality sector conducts its business (Helkkula et al., 2018; Kansakar et al., 2019; Nuryyev et al., 2020). During the last decades, the effect of technology on hospitality has become even more important because of the application of novel technological facilities, which triggered the escalation of the online travel market and a growing digitalization of the tourism and hospitality sector. Among the technology trends affecting travel and tourism is cloud computing, which is utilized to enter, deal with, and store available data. Consistent with past research, over half of the European tourism institutions as well as tour operators bought cloud computing services utilized over the internet, whereas only 29% did the same in 2016 (Statista, 2021). In the meantime, a recent study concentrating on the utilization of chatbots among hospitality organizations worldwide proposed that this kind of software could also play a prodigious role in the upcoming years, with approximately 46% of participants reporting to be functioning with chatbots to allow clients to make reservations. Computer-generated agents and chatbots were also anticipated to be among the key AI services applied or planned by airports by 2022 (Statista, 2021).

Evidently, it can be suggested that technology represents an additional dimension of sustainable development. In particular, since the COVID-19 pandemic, concentration on the utilization of technology to relaunch global tourism has augmented as depicted by the idea of introducing digital COVID-19 travel passports. Indeed, research indicates that tourists perceive technology as essential in lessening human contact during a pandemic (Statista, 2021). Based on the transformative learning approach steps outlined in Table 1, the following sections discuss the interface between technology and sustainability.

3.1 Trigger

Technology has re-engineered the operational and strategic administration of the hospitality sectors in recent years, as technology has transformed our society (Law et al., 2019). Despite the fact that the hospitality and tourism industries are known for being very human-intensive, self-service and robotic technologies are rapidly being used at airports, hotels, and restaurants (Murphy et al., 2017). Because technological advancements have continued and will continue to enable tourism players to create new markets, operational methods, and strategic practices, Xiang (2018) believes that technologies can assign new meanings to the tourism domain. In addition, technology has triggered the transformation in tourism. Today, all stakeholders need to adopt technology and digitalization to be able to survive in the market. However, such adaptation must rely on the concept of sustainability. In other words, technological evolution and transformation must consider the socio-cultural development of local communities and the protection of the natural environment and contribute to the organizations’ and destinations’ financial success at the micro level and countries’ GDP at the macro level. Simply stated, a sustainable technological transformation must be achieved in tourism and hospitality.

3.2 Appraisal

Fundamental sustainability requirements have been greatly influenced by the advancement in technology and digitalization. The extant literature has failed to capture the impact of technology on sustainability. Over the past decade, technology has made every aspect of human existence tourism-inclusive. For example, social media platforms such as TripAdvisor and Twitter have enhanced positive future behavioural intentions of tourists in destinations with positive feedback, which has led to immense economical gain, increase in destination traffic, and increase in destination social capital, among other aspects. Issues such as overcrowding have plagued sustainability growth; this phenomenon has been labelled a ripple effect increase in destination traffic (Kuščer & Mihalič, 2019). Another technological advancement which enables destinations to recycle products and reduce carbon emissions has fostered sustainability (Li & Lin, 2019). Technologically driven visitor management systems have also been adopted in the tourism and hospitality sector to solve one of many issues affecting sustainable development (Pérez Guilarte & Lois González, 2018). The need to drive sustainable growth in a new way has been instigated by rapid technological advancement, digitalization, industrial unsustainable practices, and crises, among many other factors (Ordieres-Meré et al., 2020).

Extant literature has identified the infusion of technology into the sustainability model. This is a logical inclusion because technology greatly influences sustainability (Nasrollahi et al., 2020). Therefore, to bolster sustainability development, it is essential to incorporate all the factors that influence it. Subsequently, all stakeholders must understand while evaluating new technology that sustainable development cannot be taken into account only when the finished technology has been introduced. The technological dimension will not only assess technological solutions and their impact on the economical, environment, and societal sustainable development, but also focus on innovation techniques to bolster sustainability and the deployment of technology advancements in a sustainable way.

3.3 Exploration

Sustainable development necessitates a long-term structural plan for the world's economic and social systems, with the goal of permanently reducing the strain on the environment and natural resources while sustaining economic growth and social cohesion. Only long-term growth that successfully balances these three elements can be sustained. On the other hand, disregarding one of the aforementioned factors of sustainable development might jeopardize the success of the entire development process. Contemporary progress and improvements in technologies, containing AI, robotics, and biotechnology, have shown tremendous potential for sustainable development. However, they risk aggravating and establishing new digital gaps between the technological haves and have-nots, hence expanding disparities. Although technology has shown to be an effective tool in combating the spread of the disease, not everyone has equal access to its benefits. It is time to consider how we might fully benefit from the present technology revolution in order to close the gaps that prevent truly inclusive and long-term growth. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2021) reported the possibility of frontier technology exacerbating and generating new disparities. It also looks at the national and international policies, tools, and institutional reforms that are needed to make the world a more equitable place for everyone, with no one left behind. Frontier technologies are presently worth US$350 billion and may be worth US$3.2 trillion by 2025 (UNCTAD, 2021), offering a great opportunity for individuals who are willing to ride the technology wave. However, many nations, particularly the least developed and those in sub-Saharan Africa, are ill-equipped to use, embrace, and adapt to the technology revolution in an equitable manner. This could have serious implications for achieving the sustainable development goals (UNCTAD, 2021).

We live in an era of quick change whereby the vibrant, highly competitive business environment, along with ever-changing customer preferences and the constant emergence of new technologies, force organizations to continuously reorganize and reinvent themselves (Tuomi et al., 2021). Research by the McKinsey Global Institute estimates that 375 million workers (14%) worldwide will need to be retrained for new roles as the automation of labour progresses in the coming decades (Manyika et al., 2017). Therefore, organizations must assess and explore their own technological situations and keep up with today's undeniable technological changes.

3.4 Alternatives

Technology has offered a new pathway to sustainable growth if properly implemented. A classic example is organizations focusing on ecologically sustainable manufacturing and consumption methods, in contrast to the traditional environment threatening process. The concept of smart tourism, which promotes cutting-edge technology and techniques to improve resource management and sustainability, while boosting a firm's corporate performance, is another alternative strategy to cope with the negative anti-sustainability development issues. Another pathway is to adopt the ethos of digital sustainability into tourism. Digital sustainability integrates determinants and concepts that pertain to the long-term vision for economic and social growth that are environmentally safe and secure. These projects are implemented via the use of a variety of digital technologies. These alternatives foster the protection of climate and energy system change apart from the social and economic benefit. The progeny of such pathways has given rise to innovation such as cheap energy storage, carbon capture and storage, and the usage of LED light efficiency in the hospitality sector.

3.5 Integration

The numerous issues that beset sustainability development have triggered the need for a new development approach. Technological advancement, digitalization, industrial unsustainable practices, and crises among many other issues have called for an appraisal and the implementation of new practices. Technological adoption in today's economy is among the sine qua non of businesses. Technologically driven innovative processes have greatly contributed to the sustainable power of organizations. Organizations especially within the tourism sector have evolved through a transformational learning process and have integrated technological-based strategies to overcome anti-sustainability issues. From the organizational point of view, technology has an impact on the change of existing innovation theories and influences the innovation work of organizations. In the twenty-first century, hospitality institutions perceive the usage of cutting-edge technology as a major differentiator from their competitor (Sun et al., 2020). Also, technology has become a must-have for travellers on their holidays, and its uses (e.g. in-room amenities) may enhance visitor experiences while also contributing to room-derived income for organizations (Lee & Singh, 2016). Furthermore, technology may be used for a variety of internal purposes, including staff training and day-to-day operations (Sun et al., 2020). Staff at several hotels, for example, engage with visitors using messaging applications like Glowing rather than face-to-face/in-person conversation (Peltier, 2015). Much of the everyday work of hotel workers is supported by technology, and the quality of employee job performance (i.e. the hotel's services) is dependent on successful technology use. For example, AI is becoming increasingly popular in the hotel sector. With the use of AI chatbots, the hotel sector has recently used AI technology to improve the guest experience (Koo et al., 2021). To develop service procedures, these chatbots may have interaction with guests using oral or written techniques. In addition, the utilization of service robots, such as the concierge robot and the room service robot, has been redesigned to further enhance guests' onsite experience (Ivanov & Webster, 2017). In the United States, over 30 hotels have embraced and used AI in service delivery (Koo et al., 2021). By 2021, it is expected that 39.5 million service robots will be supplied for domestic use alone, with a market value of US$11.1 billion and a growth rate of 30–35% per year (International Federation of Robotics, 2017). By combining data from numerous sources (such as transactions, reservations, and history), AI technology has helped hotels to better understand their guests' specific interests and preferences (Koo et al., 2021). This technological adoption has both influenced sustainability practices positively and negatively, consequently necessitating the integration of technology into the sustainability bottom line.

From the destination point of view, the economic importance of the hospitality industry, as well as its great potential for producing wealth for hosting communities, is increasingly marked by severe rivalry among tourist destinations, which are continually concerned with their market position's sustainability and development (Crouch, 2011). Beside the growing significance of the hospitality industry to many national and regional economies, society's increasing reliance on technology is worth noting (Kandampully et al., 2016). Indeed, technology has become a key determinant of economic, social, and human growth and is therefore becoming a key tool for boosting tourist destination competitiveness (Cavalheiro et al., 2020). With the increased usage of technology for personal and corporate purposes, the term 'smart' has emerged as a new buzzword to characterize everything that is embedded in or improved by technology (Cavalheiro et al., 2021). Gretzel et al. (2015) describe smart tourism as 'tourism supported by integrated efforts at a destination to collect and aggregate/harness data derived from physical infrastructure, social connections, government/organizational sources and human bodies/minds in combination with the use of advanced technologies to transform that data into on-site experiences and business value propositions with a clear focus on efficiency, sustainability and experience enrichment' (p. 181). Broadly speaking, in the hospitality domain, technology has already established itself as a fundamental engine of change (Neuhofer et al., 2014). A study conducted by Jeong and Shin (2020) suggests that smart tourism technologies offer informativeness, interactivity, and personalization which are key factors affecting tourists' experience, satisfaction, and revisit intentions. In addition, global competitiveness creates demand for smart tourist cities from a macroeconomic standpoint, and it is critical to acknowledge that the scope of significant global forces is continually driving the convergence of smart cities and tourism. The fastest-growing, technology-powered online travel agents and global data corporations like 'Google', 'TripAdvisor', 'Uber', and 'Airbnb' have been the most important forces in recent years, shaping the market sphere, socialization, and consumer behaviour.

To achieve sustainable economic, environment, and social growth, adjustments will be needed in processes, resources management, product and service, consumer behaviour, and so on. These concepts are largely driven by technology; consequently, an integrative process is indispensable in sustainability development.

4 Conclusion

This chapter has sought to discuss the interface of sustainability and technology from the standpoint of transformative learning theory, suggesting that technology can be considered as an additional component of sustainable tourism development to achieve sustainable transformation in tourism. At the individual, organizational, and destination levels, the proposed conceptual framework and recommendations might assist both academics and practitioners in better understanding the significance of integrating sustainability and technology. It is important to address the limitations of the chapter, which emphasize the need for further research. First, our interpretations and conceptualization of resources' transformation led to subjective outcomes, which could constrain the chapter's generalizability. However, in addition to using empirical research, this chapter goes into detail on inter-disciplinary methods and theories regarding an interface of technology and sustainability, and transformative learning theory. In terms of future research, in-depth interviews from the viewpoint of managers and senior executives can be conducted to better understand the interface of technology as well as sustainability in the hospitality sector. In addition, prospective research might focus on the particular consequences of altered resources in the hospitality industry as a whole or in its many subsectors (i.e., cruise, restaurant, and airline). These efforts might be holistic and beneficial, particularly in terms of offering theoretical and practical implications to key actors of the hospitality sector.

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Social Entrepreneurship in Tourism, Hospitality and Events: A State of the Art

Mert Gürlek

1 Introduction

Sustainability is one of the main issues in the field of Tourism, Hospitality and Events (Tölkes, 2018; Memili et al., 2018; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019). Social entrepreneurship (SE) plays a critical role in achieving sustainability (Aquino et al., 2018). In brief, social entrepreneurship is a kind of entrepreneurship primarily motivated by the provided social benefit to handle social problems or needs (Brooks, 2009). Social entrepreneurship focuses on issues such as reducing social and environmental problems and eliminating injustices in income distribution. In this aspect, it is very closely related to sustainability (De Lange & Dodds, 2017; Wu & Si, 2018).

The COVID-19 pandemic has become a major challenge that has created many social, health and economic problems around the world. These problems have made existing health care and government organizations ineffective, and thus have highlighted the need for social entrepreneurship more intensely. For this reason, social entrepreneurship has become an important theme of investigation among researchers (Bacq et al., 2020). Under the interest in social entrepreneurship lies its influence on social and economic development. Social entrepreneurship adds value to societies, provides solutions to social problems and increases social well-being (Rey-Martí et al., 2016). The potential of tourism to support economic growth makes it a feasible industry for developing the welfare of social groups with low income which do not benefit from social services. Many social groups experience social problems such as lack of education, poverty, unemployment and poor public health (Aquino et al., 2018). Social entrepreneurship, implemented within the scope of tourism, hospitality and events, contributes to the solution of such problems, encouraging social transformation. Essentially, social entrepreneurship in the tourism, hospitality and events industry is important in two respects. First, social

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entrepreneurship plays a crucial role in supporting sustainable development. Second, tourism social entrepreneurship can lead to social change to handle social issues such as unemployment and inequality of opportunity (Sigala, 2016).

Despite the benefits stated above, social entrepreneurship research in the field of tourism, hospitality and events does not have a long history. The field of social entrepreneurship in the tourism, hospitality and events is still in the embryonic stage (Mottiar, 2016). The studies on social entrepreneurship have mainly focused on the micro-finance, education and health industries (Gupta et al., 2020). However, recently social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events has begun to attract more attention (Altinay et al., 2016; Dahles et al., 2020; Jørgensen et al., 2021). Nonetheless, no comprehensive literature review research on social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events has been conducted yet. Therefore, it is time to conduct a detailed analysis to present a holistic picture of past research on the topic. As a result, the purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on social entrepreneurship associated with tourism, hospitality and events, map this developing field and make suggestions for future research. In order to achieve these goals, the current chapter looks for answers to the following research questions:

- What are the main characteristics and current trends of social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
- What are the theoretical perspectives and research methods used in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
- What are the research gaps and recommendations for future research in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?

To answer these questions, first the articles on social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events (which are also available in Scopus and the Web of Science database) have been identified. Second, a detailed review of the relevant literature has been conducted. Third, significant trends and research gaps in the reviewed literature have been identified. Finally, a research agenda has been developed with the aim of guiding future research.

2 Literature Review

There is no fixed definition of social entrepreneurship on which researchers could agree (Nicholls, 2010). However, it is clear that solving social problems and meeting social needs is a common theme in most available definitions (Canestrino et al., 2020). In this study, we use the following definition that is compatible with this common theme. Social entrepreneurship is defined as “a process that creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources and social agreements required for this sustainable social transformation” (Alvord et al., 2004, p. 262).

What are the characteristics that distinguish social entrepreneurship from traditional entrepreneurship? For an entrepreneur to be considered as a social entrepreneur, he/she must handle and try to solve relevant social problems (Mair & Marti, 2006). In other words, social entrepreneurship differs from traditional entrepreneurship in two aspects. The first is that the main mission of social entrepreneurship is to create social value. Second, income earned through social entrepreneurship is spent on the realization of the social mission (Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Certo & Miller, 2008; Dacin et al., 2010).

Social entrepreneurs are similar to traditional entrepreneurs in identifying and pursuing opportunities and meeting demands. However, it is the conscious social purpose that reveals the nature of social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurs pursue both economic and social goals at the same time, but the social goal is the priority (Kimbu & Ngoasong, 2016). Unlike traditional entrepreneurship understanding, which aims to create personal or shareholder profit, SE focuses on handling a social need and creating a social value. Social entrepreneurs reinvest their profits to create further social value for communities or disadvantaged groups and thus aim for bidirectional output, focusing on both financial and social performance (Kalargyrou et al., 2020). In this regard, social entrepreneurs can operate in the form of profit-making, nonprofit-making, public or mixed social entrepreneurs with a clear social purpose, and they aim to create a social value (Jørgensen et al., 2021).

Social entrepreneurship is one of the main drivers of sustainable development. Therefore, it is useful to highlight the relationship between social entrepreneurship and sustainable development. Social entrepreneurship practices promote environmentally friendly and sustainable business practices (Ergül & Johnson, 2011). Social entrepreneurship creates innovative solutions to the environmental, economic and social problems of destinations by arousing the resources necessary for sustainable social change (Sheldon et al., 2017). Social entrepreneurship provides sustainable tourism services to tourists, puts pressures on conventional tourism, hospitality and events firms to adopt responsible tourism practices and promotes local development (De Lange & Dodds, 2017; Aquino et al., 2018).

3 Method

This study used a systematic literature review method to achieve its aim. A systematic literature review has been usually used as a synthesis method in various fields, including management and tourism, hospitality and events (Fu et al., 2019). Two databases (Web of Science and Scopus) were used to search for relevant articles. The keywords “tourism”, “event”, “hotel” and “hospitality” were used together with social entrepreneurship. No date was set as the start date in the article search. However, the research included the articles published until March 2021. Moreover, the article search was not restricted to only tourism, hospitality and events journals, and all of the articles focusing on social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events published in the English language were considered in the study. Overall, 92 articles were obtained with this search.

To decide whether the obtained articles were relevant to the research topic, the abstract of each article was read and coded. As a result, 30 articles were finally included in the research sample. In accordance with the previous research conducted in the field (Köseoglu, 2020; Hofer & Knight, 2020; Gürlek & Köseoglu, 2021), a coding book was created consisting of factors such as journal's name, year of publication, methods, theories, topics, research design and research country. The obtained information regarding these factors was manually encoded by the researcher.

4 Findings

4.1 Publication Channels

The 30 articles included in the research were published in 17 different journals. The average number of the article per journal was 1.7. This is a very low average. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM) was found to be the journal publishing the most relevant studies with eight articles, whereas seven articles published in this journal were found to have been published in the special issue of titled Social Entrepreneurship in Hospitality (e.g. Wang et al., 2016). This indicates that the increase in the number of articles in IJCHM did not develop naturally. IJCHM is followed by the Journal of Sustainable Tourism with four articles and Annals of Tourism Research with three articles. In Table 1, the number of journals and publications in these journals is presented.

The analysis indicated that the first research on tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship was published in the Journal of Sustainable Tourism in 2012 (von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012) whereas an average of 3.3 articles was published between 2012 and 2021. The year in which the highest number of articles were published was 2016. Figure 1 summarizes the evolution of publications on the topic.

4.2 Articles by Region

It was found that most research was conducted in Asia with 11 articles (see Fig. 2). South Africa was found to be the second most researched region with six articles, followed by Europe with five articles. The average number of articles per region was four. Some research studies involved cases from two different countries. Therefore, it is important to highlight that the regional distribution may not be consistent with the number of articles.

Table 1 List of journals and number of articles published

Journals	Number of articles
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	8
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	4
Annals of Tourism Research	3
Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	2
Anatolia	1
Chinese Journal of Population Resources and Environment	1
Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management	1
Current Issues in Tourism	1
International Journal of Hospitality Management	1
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research	1
Journal of Ecotourism	1
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	1
Marketing Theory	1
Social Enterprise Journal	1
Tourism Geographies	1
Tourism Management	1
International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	1

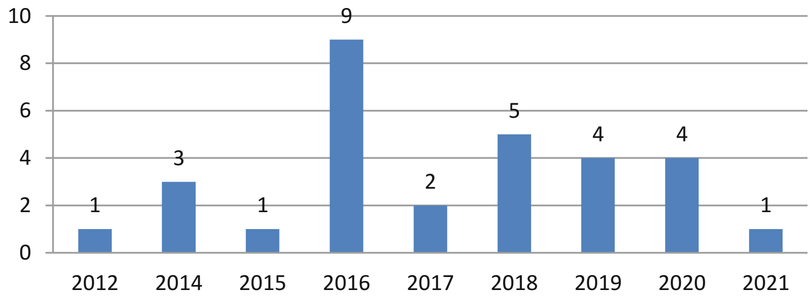

Fig. 1 Evolution of tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship literature

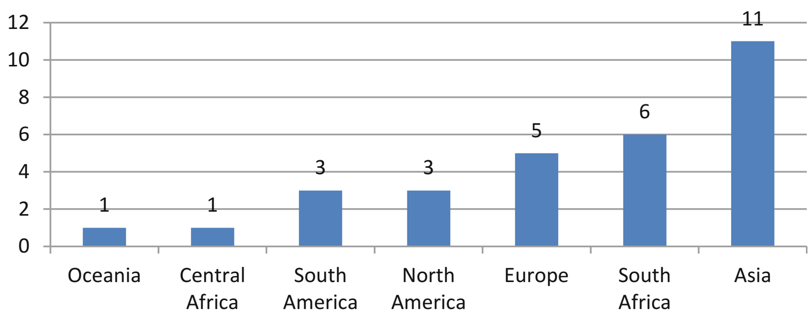

Fig. 2 Regions with the highest production

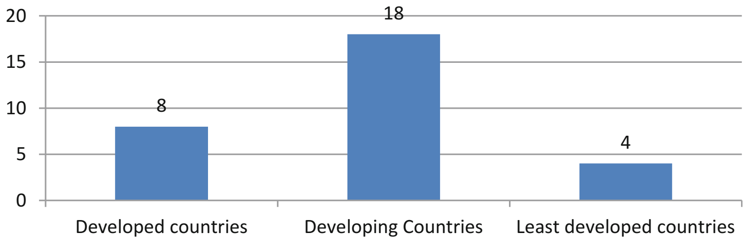

Fig. 3 Distribution of articles based on the developmental level of countries

When the distribution of the articles was examined based on the developmental level of the countries, developing countries were found to have produced most articles, and they were followed by the developed and then least developed countries, respectively (Fig. 3).

4.3 Theoretical Perspectives

When the theoretical perspectives used by previous studies were examined, it was found that there is not any dominantly used theoretical perspective. Service-dominant-logic and stakeholder theory were found to be the most commonly used frameworks. A total of 16 articles were found to have used a theoretical perspective. The remaining 14 articles were found not to have used any theoretical perspective at all; rather, only the definitions of concepts are presented in the literature review sections of relevant studies. However, a few studies have developed theoretical frameworks themselves. For example, Sigala (2016, 2019) developed a theoretical framework based on "learning with the market" for social entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality. Similarly, Aquino et al. (2018) developed the conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development (Table 2).

4.4 Research Methods

Table 3 presents the types of research methods used in extant literature. The majority of the examined research was found to be qualitative research, and the most commonly used method of data collection was case studies, followed by interviews and multiple methods (e.g. secondary data, interviews and participant observation). Interestingly, most research was conducted in the tourism industry.

Table 2 Theoretical perspectives

Theoretical perspective	Number of articles
Service-dominant-logic	2
Stakeholder theory	2
Learning with the market approach	2
Bricolage	2
Business model innovation	1
Community participation	1
Feminist ethic of care	1
Conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship	1
Resource-Based and Blue Ocean	1
Structuration theory	1
Sustainable livelihoods approach	1
Weber's Typology of Rationality	1

Table 3 Research methods and industries

Research type	Number of articles	Data collection methods	Number of articles	Industry	Number of articles
Qualitative	28	Case	12	Tourism	16
Conceptual	2	Interviews	6	Hospitality and tourism	4
		Multiple methods	10	Lodging	1
				Camp	1
				Event	1
				Hotel	1
				Park	1
				Restaurant	1
				Tour operator	1
				Hostel	1

4.5 *Thematic Areas*

Previous research in the literature was classified into 6 main themes and 27 sub-themes (Table 4). The most preferred key theme was "regional development". The second most preferred theme was "models of social entrepreneurs" while the third was "social value creation". The most preferred sub-themes were "tourism social entrepreneurship model" and "employment of disabled people".

Table 4 Thematic areas and industries of study

Main theme	Sub themes	Number of articles
Social value creation	Improving dining experience of mobility-impaired people	1
	Employment of disabled people	2
	Employment of poor and marginalized people	1
	Training disadvantaged people with psychological, social or physical disabilities for work	1
	Reducing poverty and environmental degradation	1
	Educating and recruiting homeless and disadvantaged people	1
Models of social entrepreneurs	Nonprofit organizations	1
	Operational models of social enterprises	1
	Inclusive social tourism management model	1
	Model of collective tourism social entrepreneurship	1
	Impact-based model of business	1
	Tourism social entrepreneurship model	2
Marketing	Collaborative marketing for community-based tourism enterprises	2
Regional development	Community engagement in social enterprises to reduce poverty	1
	Pro-poor tourism	1
	Rural destination development	1
	Rural tourism	1
	Sustainable community development	1
	Ecotourism planning and development	1
	Employing local indigenous people	1
	Sustainable livelihood	1
	Sustainable tourism	1
Barriers to social entrepreneurship	Institutional barriers	1
	Barriers to women entrepreneurs	1
Drivers to social entrepreneurship	Formal and substantive rationalities	1
	National tourism policy	1
	Drivers for women entrepreneurs	1

5 Discussion

In this chapter, social entrepreneurship articles published in tourism, hospitality and events field were reviewed. Overall, the most commonly used theoretical perspectives, methods, thematic areas and regions investigated were identified. This chapter indicates that tourism, hospitality and events researchers are not paying enough attention to the issue of social entrepreneurship. To increase academic interest, top tourism, hospitality and events journals should publish special issues. In addition, the review of the literature identified a limited number of thematic areas. This suggests that the tourism, hospitality and events field of social entrepreneurship has not developed sufficiently yet. Previous research has largely neglected the least developed countries which are considered to face problems such as poverty, illiteracy and unemployment intensively (Chen & Ravallion, 2010). Therefore, tourism, hospitality and events researchers should examine SE in such contexts as findings can create value and contribute to the sustainable development of the destinations. The review also showed that almost half of the articles have not used any theoretical perspective at all whereas the articles using theoretical perspectives have used theories and models adapted from other disciplines. This indicates that SE research in the tourism, hospitality and events field has not come a long way, highlighting the need for the development of unique theoretical perspectives in the context of tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship.

Since the tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship literature is still at infancy stage, qualitative research design seems to be a logical approach to follow. However, at this early stage, it is necessary to pay more attention to conceptual research that supports the development of theories, models and perspectives which would form the basis for future empirical studies (Hofer & Knight, 2020; Gürlek & Köseoglu, 2021). Exploratory research should be used to identify and explain basic concepts and fundamental phenomena (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). In addition, there has been no research measuring social entrepreneurship, demonstrating the need to develop a social entrepreneurship scale specific to the tourism, hospitality and events field.

Sustainability and social entrepreneurship terms are closely linked. However, few tourism, hospitality and events researchers have highlighted this link (e.g. Aquino et al., 2018). Therefore, the link between the two structures could be discussed further in this section. The main purpose of SE is to solve social problems, ranging from environmental and social challenges to economic problems. Social entrepreneurship targets the drivers of transformation and unfair and unsustainable structures in society and transforms them into fully sustainable structures (Rahdari et al., 2016). Sustainability consists of three dimensions: society, economy and environment (Gürlek & Köseoğlu, 2021). Social entrepreneurship, on the other hand, plays a key role in maintaining these dimensions. Social entrepreneurship contributes to the realization of the social dimension of sustainability aiming to solve or alleviate social problems (Zhang & Swanson, 2014). Social entrepreneurship has a positive impact on sustainable development, facilitates job creation for disadvantaged and poor people in the society and thus increases the overall demand in the economy, which will then promote economic sustainability (Méndez-Picazo et al., 2021). In addition, social entrepreneurship contributes to the achievement of environmental sustainability facilitating the implementation of environmental and social regulations (De Lange & Dodds, 2017).

6 Research Agenda

The findings reveal that tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship literature has not reached an adequate level of development. For this reason, the next section will focus on the research gaps and propose relevant recommendations for future research.

6.1 Thematic Domain

As can be seen in Table 4, six thematic areas have been identified in the review of the literature: social value creation, models of social enterprises, marketing, regional development, barriers to social entrepreneurship and drivers to social entrepreneurship. Some basic SE research themes such as sustainable development, innovation and SE, business strategy, networks and systems, SE typology, cross-sectoral partnerships, social change and social culture (Phillips et al., 2015; Gupta et al., 2020) have been largely neglected. The following topics are recommended for future research in these fields.

Social entrepreneurship contributes to the development of the local economy and presents a solution to social and environmental problems (Rahdari et al., 2016). However, apart from a few studies (De Lange & Dodds, 2017; Aquino et al., 2018), the relationship between social entrepreneurship and sustainable development has not been examined. Future research could, hence, integrate sustainability into tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research. Moreover, social innovation and social entrepreneurship are in a reciprocal relationship. A successful social entrepreneur is usually based on well-designed social innovation, or social innovations can create a new social entrepreneur (Dwivedi & Weerawardena, 2018). The relationships between these two structures could set an agenda for future tourism, hospitality and events research. Social enterprises also need income to maintain their social missions. Therefore, they must stick to appropriate business strategies to achieve their social and economic goals (Beckmann & Zeyen, 2014). Social mission, goal and strategy alignment is critical to the success of such attempts (Ormiston & Seymour, 2011). This raises the issue of integrating business strategies into the research on social entrepreneurship. Tourism, hospitality and events researchers could develop theoretical perspectives to achieve this integration.

Social enterprises are established by the social system (Butkevičiene, 2009). That is, social entrepreneurship arises as a consequence of the interactions between different actors of the social system (Neumeier, 2012). To find financial support, especially in social entrepreneurship, it is necessary to identify and get connected with appropriate networks (Lettice & Parekh, 2010). For this reason, future research could examine how social enterprises use networks. Zahra et al. (2009) suggest that social enterprises differ in how they define opportunities, perform their tasks, obtain resources and handle social problems. Such differences raise the need to develop an

SE typology specific to the field of tourism, hospitality and events. Future research could develop a tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship typology using previous qualitative research. Social enterprises experience a lot of resource-related shortages. Enterprises cannot have all the resources they may need to carry out their activities (Montgomery et al., 2012). Therefore, different industries need cooperation. Cross-sector partnerships usually happen in four areas: business-government, business-nonprofit, government-nonprofit and tri-sector (Selsky & Parker, 2005). Future research in the field of tourism, hospitality and events may examine cross-industry collaboration to understand how enterprises handle social issues.

Social change is at the centre of the definitions regarding social entrepreneurship. However, we know very little about how social enterprises achieve social change (Haugh & Talwar, 2016). Social change is not something that could be achieved in a short time and it needs a process (Calás et al., 2009). Tourism, hospitality and events researchers could model this process of social change. It is highlighted that social entrepreneurship is also about cultural values (Canestrino et al., 2020). However, it remains unclear which organizational and national cultural values may trigger or limit SE (Short et al., 2009). Future tourism, hospitality and events research may link cultural values such as avoidance from uncertainty and collectivism to social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, as can be seen in Table 4, previous research has focused on social enterprises for people with disabilities, poor and left-out people, disadvantaged people, homeless people, as well as enterprises aiming to reduce poverty and environmental degradation. Future research can thus focus on social enterprises looking for solutions of social problems such as elderly care, ignorance, deforestation and diseases, child protection, public education, refugee employment and unemployment (Bozhikin et al., 2019).

Specifically, social enterprises can take more active roles in the solution of social problems caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. A pandemic can create new models of social entrepreneurship. In this dramatic process, deficiencies in health care, finance, housing and so on can highlight SE's importance (Bacq & Lumpkin, 2020). Future research may, therefore, focus on what roles tourism, hospitality and events social enterprises may play in the pandemic process. In addition, a social value co-creation perspective can be a research area to examine the issues triggered by the COVID-19, involving contributions from multiple organizations and including profit-making and nonprofit-making organizations (Ratten, 2020). The pandemic may have had a shock effect on social enterprises due to the financial difficulties that it caused (Gürlek & Kılıç, 2021). For this reason, crisis management strategies which social enterprises implemented during the pandemic could be examined to delve into how social enterprises exploited opportunities and dealt with problems.

6.2 Theoretical Domain

Nearly half of the relevant articles were found not to have used any theoretical perspective. The theoretical frameworks of these articles are based solely on the definition of SE. Thirteen articles were found to have used theories and approaches adapted from other fields. Only three papers were found to have focused on field-specific theoretical frameworks. Considering that the field is still in its infancy stage research-wise, this result is not surprising. However, for tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research to develop, it is necessary to create SE typologies and develop definitions and perspectives. Tourism, hospitality and events researchers are advised to advance field-specific theories and models as each industry has specific conditions. For this reason, theories and models taken from other disciplines should be used with caution by adapting to the field of tourism, hospitality and events (Gürlek & Uygur, 2021; Gürlek & Çemberci, 2020). The use of resource-based view, institutional theory, actor-network theory and leadership theory are used as a basis for explaining entrepreneurial activities (Short et al., 2009); yet, future research should advance theorizing related to the field.

6.3 Contextual Domain

The majority of the articles were conducted in Asia and South Africa, drawing mostly from developing countries. Future research could continue to focus on these regions, but they could focus on other regions as well such as the Middle East, the Caucasus and Central Africa that have experienced various social problems. As can be seen in Table 3, there is a concentration of research on the tourism sector. Future research may focus on other sub-sectors of the tourism, hospitality and events industry such as travel agencies, restaurants, airlines and parks. Previous research has also largely ignored the types of businesses and how ownership structure affects social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship practices of small and medium sized family enterprises (SMEs) and non-governmental organizations can be examined. Apart from a few studies (von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012; Sloan et al., 2014; Mottiar et al., 2018), the majority of research has focused on a specific region. Therefore, there is a need for further cross-cultural research on social entrepreneurship in the field. Future research should also consider the economic systems of countries and their effect on SE. For example, American capitalism focuses on individual success and short-term financial gain, while the Rhineland model, widely used in Western Europe and Japan, values social success and long-term vision (Albert, 1992). These two different types of capitalism are likely to bring with them different understandings of social entrepreneurship (Bacq & Janssen, 2011).

6.4 Methodological Domain

The majority of past research is qualitative research, and the case study strategy has been mostly used as a data collection method. Considering that tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research is at the nascent stage, the choice of qualitative research makes sense (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). However, because of the richness of the data obtained from case studies, it could be very complex, and such efforts may be generalized (Short et al., 2009). Therefore, the studies involving more than one case should be used to develop a theoretical framework and then test this draft with validating methods. The grounded theory methodology could, for instance, be used to develop models or approaches specific to the field of tourism, hospitality and events. This methodology uses inductive logic, which involves the development of hypotheses, models and theories through the collection and classification of the collected data (Martin & Turner, 1986; Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). In addition, to increase the validity of the research findings, researchers could use mixed methods that combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Hesse-Biber, 2010). There is also not enough research defining the concept of social entrepreneurship and identifying its typologies. Considering that conceptual research aims to provide a logical explanation of concepts and analysis of the concept use (Xin et al., 2013), it could be concluded that more conceptual research is needed in the relevant field to continue theoretical development.

7 Conclusion

Social entrepreneurship is a critical tool for the solution of social problems and the achievement of sustainable development. Although social entrepreneurship is not a new topic, tourism, hospitality and events has experienced considerable growth in the last 10 years (Bozhikin et al., 2019). Tourism, hospitality and events industry has favourable conditions for social entrepreneurship due to its high income-generating characteristic. However, it is difficult to claim that the intense interest in social entrepreneurship research in other industries (Rey-Martí et al., 2016) is also true for the tourism, hospitality and events industry. According to this review, the first tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research was published in 2012. From 2012 to 2021, only 30 research papers were published on the topic.

Based on the findings, we can draw the following conclusions. First, the research has focused only on six thematic areas. This means that the previous research provided a very narrow insight. For social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events to advance, there is a need for the scientific community to produce research on the subject. Second, there is a need to develop theories and models that explain social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events. Almost half of extant research was found to have used no theoretical framework. Third, the majority of the articles were found to have been conducted in Asia and South Africa. This indicates that the regional distribution of the research is not homogenous and so research in other regions is needed. Fourth, research has largely neglected other sub-sectors of the tourism, hospitality and events industry. Fifth, there is little research on the drivers and barriers to social entrepreneurship. It would be wise to examine the barriers to social entrepreneurship in particular. Sixth, although the majority of research is qualitative research, the main data collection method used is cases, which provide limited insight into the topic. Researchers are advised to use mixed methods that include both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In addition, there is not enough research defining SE and identifying its typologies. This highlights the need for conceptual research to explain the nature of SE in the tourism and hospitality domain. Based on the conclusions stated above, Table 5 presents possible research questions for future research.

As with any research, this research has some limitations. First, the Scopus and Web of Science databases were used in the sampling of articles. Research not available in these databases is not included in the review. Second, this review includes the articles on tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship published in the English language. The search for the article is limited to title, abstract and subject. As a result, some research on social entrepreneurship may have been missed out. Third, only the articles on social entrepreneurship are included in the research. Book chapters, proceedings, books and book chapters are not included in the review. Despite these limitations, this chapter contributes to the relevant literature by revealing research gaps in the field and offering possible research questions that may guide future research.

Table 5 Future research questions

Type of gap	Research questions
Context	What is the nature of SE practices in underdeveloped countries in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	Do social entrepreneurship practices differ from the other sub-sectors of the tourism, hospitality and events industry?
	How are social entrepreneurship practices guided in SMEs and family businesses in the tourism, hospitality and events industry?
	What cultural values promote tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship?
	Is the nature of social entrepreneurship different in Eastern and Western countries?
	Do the rich countries support social enterprises in poor countries?
	Do the USA and Europe differ in terms of social entrepreneurship?
Theoretical perspective	What theories and models should be developed to explain social entrepreneurship specific to the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	How resource-based view can be adapted to tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research?
	How Actor-network Theory can be integrated into the tourism, hospitality and events collective social entrepreneurship research?
	What theoretical basis does Institutional Theory provide in the tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship research?
	What are the types of tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship?
	How is social entrepreneurship defined in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What are the dimensions of social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	Is a unifying paradigm possible in the field of social entrepreneurship?
Research content	What is the relationship between social entrepreneurship and sustainable development in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What roles can tourism, hospitality and events social enterprises play during the Covid-19 pandemic?
	What are the crisis management strategies that tourism, hospitality and events social enterprises implemented during the Covid-19 pandemic?
	Which new tourism, hospitality and events social entrepreneurship models can the Covid-19 pandemic create?
	Which social enterprises have been established to overcome the challenges caused by Covid-19?
	Is it possible to turn the Covid-19 crisis into an opportunity for social entrepreneurship?
	What are the institutional and organizational barriers to social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What social enterprises can be established to create social value for refugees and asylum seekers?
	What factors drive social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Type of gap	Research questions
	What are the tourism social enterprises for disabled and disadvantaged individuals?
	What are the performance indicators of social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What is the role of government policies in the spread of social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What is the role of change factors in social value creation in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What strategies do social enterprises follow in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What is the role of women social enterprises in the creation of social change and social value?
	What are SE's contributions towards women's empowerment in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	How does inter-organizational and inter-industrial cooperation contribute to social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What marketing strategies do social enterprises follow?
	What are the relationships between social innovation and social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What is the structure of SE business models in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What is the contribution of international projects in supporting social enterprises in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	Does the level of risk-taking differ depending on the type of entrepreneur (traditional or social)?
	What are the social enterprises that create social change in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What factors affect the spread of social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	How do social enterprises obtain financial resources in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What factors are involved in the value chain of social enterprises in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	Can a marketing mix specific to social enterprises be created in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	How do social enterprises in the field of tourism, hospitality and events contribute to the solution of environmental problems?
	How do the business world and business people support social entrepreneurship in the field of tourism, hospitality and events?
	What actors does the social entrepreneurship ecosystem in tourism, hospitality and events consist of?

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Relational Food Festivals: Building Space for Multidimensional Collaboration Among Food Producers

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1 Introduction

Most socioeconomic activities require a partnership or relationship, which is described as a situation where two or more participants have common goals, doing something together that might not be possible alone (Nicholls, 2005). Partnerships and relationships are discussed as a variety of concepts and practices (McQuaid, 2000). Food festivals are planned events with a common goal and many participants that can contribute to building relationships (Derrett, 2003). Festivals include different groups of stakeholders such as groups and individuals committed to achieving a common goal (Freeman & Mc Vea, 2001) with a stake in the event and its outcomes (Getz, 1997). The main groups of food festival stakeholders are organisers, exhibitors (vendors, food producers), residents, and visitors (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014; Einarsen & Mykletun, 2009; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). The stakeholders' group may also include suppliers, volunteers, sponsors, media, and guests (Alves et al., 2010; Booth, 2016; de Jong & Varley, 2018; Lau & Li, 2019; McDonnell et al., 1999).

In terms of broadly understood partnership at festivals, it should be emphasised that interactions take place between all groups of stakeholders. These relationships can have a different characteristic (social or economic), different diverse directions

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(positive or negative), and various intensities (occasional or regular). Most studies focus on researching visitors' attitudes and opinions such as their motivation to participate, consumption behaviour, satisfaction, or tendency to recommend (Andersson et al., 2012). McKitterick et al. (2016) indicated that the relations between producers (exhibitor) and consumers have gained considerable attention from researchers, while the relationship between various producers (exhibitors) remains underestimated.

Despite this, the relations between exhibitors are undoubtedly a relevant topic. However, the literature lacks a multifaceted approach to the festival relationship. These problems have not been the subject of in-depth analysis in relevant research; therefore, this chapter represents a novel contribution in this field. The current study includes relationships among exhibitors and visitors and between exhibitors and organisers. This research attempts to answer the following questions:

Q1: Do food festivals help build relationships?
Q2: Which groups of festival participants most often collaborate with others?
Q3: What is the duration of the relationship created?

To answer these questions, a literature review and empirical research were carried out. Based on the research results, a discussion is proposed, and conclusions are drawn.

2 Literature Review

2.1 The Importance of Food Festivals in Building Relationships and Partnerships

Recently, research on relationships and partnerships at festivals has become more common (Richards, 2020). Previous research has focused on the relationship between festival stakeholders or between events and their regional and local contexts (Einarsen & Mykletun, 2009; Getz et al., 2007; Misener & Mason, 2006; Todd et al., 2017). According to Adongo and Kim (2018), a partnership offers many benefits including improving decision quality, reducing the impulsive tendencies, and strengthening the attachment between stakeholders. In addition, the partnership provides a platform for future relationships. The multiplicity of stakeholders makes the partnership complex and challenging to achieve (Paskaleva-Shapira, 2001). Therefore, success in partnership largely depends on identifying the involved stakeholders and determining what they want to achieve. The partnership includes communication, trust and respect, incentives and values, and knowledge sharing (Harley & Blismas, 2010).

Food festivals offer the opportunity to build relationships and partnerships between diverse groups. There are also associated with the possibility of building social sustainability. For example, De Jong and Varley (2018) argue that local food festivals can enhance social sustainability by offering an opportunity to bridge relations across certain diverse groups and foster an environment conducive to cohabitation. The temporally confined characteristics of food festivals, however, generate difficulties in achieving social sustainability. In the same vein, Bakas et al. (2019) explain how creative tourism activities, of which food festivals are a notable example, foster social connections among festival participants and with the local community.

The role of participants in partnership development can be considered in terms of combining three elements: increasing involvement, the emergence of new economic activities, and the presence of strategic competitiveness factors (Esparcia, 2014; Young, 2010). Getz et al. (2007) proposed a model presenting festivals in relation to stakeholders. This model encompasses owners, investors, directors, employees, volunteers, partners, and advisers. This approach adds another dimension to understanding the relationship between stakeholders, since the group includes private, corporate, and management entities whose interests relate to the goals, assumptions, and ultimate success of the festival.

2.2 The Nature and Benefits of Cooperation

Relationships taking place at food festivals can be both economic and social. Hjalager and Kwiatkowski (2018) emphasised that business and commercial goals often have a lower priority than those related to passion, hobby, or mission. According to Moscardo (2007), research on social relations created during the event could increase festivals' capacity to support regional and local development. Social networks can be defined as the ways in which people are connected by a variety of social relationships, from casual to close family ties. Strong personal relationships contribute to creating trust and social capital. Trust is also seen as the main feature of business networks, shaped by individual parties (McKitterick et al., 2016).

According to Vesci and Botti (2019), positive relations at a festival favour visitors' loyalty. Research on visitors' consumer behaviour showed that the festival's relationship (through involvement) became the most decisive factor in purchasing local products after the festival (Organ et al., 2015). Similarly, in the opinion of Kim et al. (2015), greater involvement in the event results in a higher level of interest in returning to the festival. Additionally, according to the research by Kim et al. (2010), satisfaction with the festival affects visitors' loyalty towards the festival. Folgado-Fernández et al. (2019) showed a positive relationship between the attractiveness of a culinary celebration and visitors' loyalty towards the festival. Zeithaml et al. (1996) emphasised that loyalty is a key goal of product suppliers (therefore, for exhibitors), as high customer retention or low absenteeism determine long-term profit levels. Partnerships should be the key to cooperation between exhibitors (producers). Alonso and Bressan (2014) and Tregear (2005) analysed dependencies in studies of craft manufacturers, who often participate in festivals as exhibitors, and showed that craft manufacturers conduct activities related mainly to their lifestyle and development ambitions. As a result, they are rarely interested in working with other manufacturers.

2.3 Managing a Food Festival as a Factor in Building Cooperation

Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014) pointed to the importance of festival guests' interaction with local businesses (accommodations, restaurants, and shops) and residents. Such relationships influence the experiences of festival guests. Festival organisers can only get people to come to their destination. What they experience on the spot depends on the experience provided local stakeholders involved in the function of a festival. An interesting approach was presented by Choo and Park (2018) in their research on cooperation for "exchange" and retaining visitors. Farm food festival organisers and agritourism communities should consider marketing collaborations to attract and retain visitors.

Adongo and Kim (2018) noted that festivals demonstrate structures in which one central participant is the organiser (high centrality). Similarly, literature analysis by Izzo et al. (2012) indicates that the creation and effective management of a network depends on the main participant called the "network orchestrator". To make additional profits (relational rents), the main participant is endowed with several relational abilities such as partner selection, creating a climate of trust, and integrating and leveraging multiple resources, knowledge, and capabilities. Thus, food festival stakeholders create a complex network of relationships covering the community, commune, viewers, and media (Anderson & Getz, 2007). A festival's organisation requires building or maintaining existing partnerships for lasting relationships that allow for continued cooperation (Castells, 2011).

Gursoy et al. (2004) indicated that a festival's success largely depends on local communities' support. Similarly, Einarsen and Mykletun (2009) suggested that a festival's success depends, among other things, on embedding the festival in a network of local partners. Additionally, festivals have a more complex governance structure than different event types and require additional stakeholder relationships and partnerships (Booth, 2016). According to Einarsen and Mykletun (2009), networks open up and facilitate the flow of various resources, workforce, competencies, and support and learning opportunities, bringing together main and remote partners in a mutually beneficial symbiosis. Vestrum and Rasmussen (2013) showed that local entrepreneurs' origin including their knowledge and networks influenced the strategy of mobilising resources.

2.4 Study Context

Considering the diverse food at festivals, three events were selected for empirical probing: the Festival of Edible Flowers in Dobrzyca, the Festival of Good Taste in Poznań, and the Festival of Pomerania Taste in Gdańsk. These festivals differ in terms of themes, place of organisation, size, reach, and duration. Festival selection was also determined by the COVID-19 pandemic, because the organisation of many planned events for 2020 has been cancelled. The Festival of Edible Flowers presents an alternative trend in nutrition, as well as searching for and including novelties. It is a festival dedicated to a specific group of participants. It is a small festival as measured by the number of exhibitors and visitors and organised in a small village next to gardens related to the event's theme. The festival takes place every year during a weekend in the summer. The Festival of Pomerania Taste is dominated by traditional flavours and regional products made of the best quality ingredients. This event is part of the St. Dominic's Fair which has been organised for several hundred years. The festival lasts quite a long time, over 3 weeks. The St. Dominic's Fair is a popular festival among participants who come to Gdańsk in large numbers. The Festival of Good Taste in Poznań combines various culinary trends such as traditional, modern, and alternative trends. It is a mainstream culinary event that is prevalent among visitors. It is not only attended by the residents of Poznań but also by numerous tourists visiting the city. The duration of the festival exceeds a weekend. Numerous exhibitors from all over the country (and often including visitors from abroad) take part in the event, offering various products.

3 Data Collection and Methods

The empirical basis for the study represents a combination of two kinds of primary data. The first sample was collected among the group of festival visitors during the Fifth Culinary Festival of Edible Flowers in northern Poland between 11 and 12 July 2020. Data collection took place at the event venue. The research instrument was comprised a paper-based, self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire aimed to gather the necessary information about different dimensions of personal relations established or strengthened at the festival. Particular questions were inspired by the previous studies of Hjalager and Kwiatkowski (2018) as well as the need for new cover areas that have not been examined thus far. In addition, a series of common travel-related and socio-demographic questions were elicited to delineate the respondents' profiles. The team of researchers consisted of four members. In an initial meeting, the researchers were instructed about the purpose, scope, target group, and data collection technique. To collect the data, a single-stage random cluster sampling procedure was applied. To reduce sample bias, questionnaires were administered at different sites (clusters) and hours inside the event area over 4 days. Clusters were distributed proportionally to cover the entire event area as thoroughly as possible.

The information that the survey had a purely scientific character was given to the respondents as an incentive for participation. The data collection took place exclusively within the festival area. A total of 225 questionnaires were collected.

The second sample was collected among exhibitors (vendors) at three food festivals hosted in Gdańsk (*Festival of Pomerania Taste*), Poznan (*Festival of Good Taste*), and Dobrzyca (*Culinary Festival of Edible Flowers*). All festivals were hosted between 10 July and 20 August 2020. In total, 58 in-depth interviews were conducted with festival exhibitors to deepen an understanding of their business profile, their entrepreneurial orientation, their motivation to attend festivals, the impact of COVID-19 on daily operation, strategic challenges, and different aspects of networking and (personal and professional) relation-building at the time of the festival. An essential element of the interview was dedicated to understanding the primary forms of relation and their derivation, sequence, and purpose. The interviews were semi-structured with approximately 20 predefined questions. The regular interview was supported by an extensive discussion, ranging from 20 to 40 min, to reveal in-depth insight into the above-mentioned issues and obtain access to more sensitive information by building a climate of trust. After each interview, detailed notes were taken. Due to culture standards and legal restrictions no audio-video recordings of interviews were feasible.

4 Results

4.1 Visitors Sample

The conducted research shows women predominated among the studied festival visitors (71.12%). The average age of the surveyed visitors was 45. People with secondary (29.77%) and higher (55.12%) education prevailed. Most of the respondents travelled between 20 km and 50 km from their residence to participate in the food festival. Tourists were a slightly smaller part of the visitors. For tourists residing nearby, food festivals were an additional attraction and an opportunity to spend time.

The scale of participation in food festivals varied. One-third of the respondents indicated that in 2019, they participated in food festivals only once. Another 16.44% stated they attended food festivals twice in 2019. Few of the respondents participated in food festivals more than five times, and 41.78% of the respondents did not participate in such events at all in 2019. The frequency of participation in food festivals was highly variable. The sources of this variability can be found in festival visitors' economic and social conditions. These factors are currently accompanied by pandemic conditions that may affect the decision to participate in food festivals. Some of the respondents took part in earlier editions of the surveyed festivals. A total of 42.15% of respondents intended to recommend the festival to other people, and 33.18% planned to participate in the festival in its subsequent editions. The vast majority of respondents recognised the exhibitors and the products offered during

Table 1 Benefits of participating in a food festival and benefits for the place, in the opinion of visitors of the food festival

Benefits of participating in a food festival	Not important/ slightly important	Neutral	Important/very important
Meeting new people/building new relationships	11.87	25.57	62.56
Sharing interests with others	7.73	24.55	67.72
Benefits for the place	Definitely No/No	Neither Yes nor No	Definitely Yes/Yes
Strengthening local identity	1.34	8.04	90.62
Involvement of residents	4.04	8.52	87.44
Better social integration	3.60	9.46	86.94
Cooperation of residents in achieving a common goal	4.05	12.61	83.34

Source: Authors

the festival. More than half of the participants of the previous edition looked for and bought offered products after the festival.

Most of the respondents (62.56%) indicated the opportunity to meet new people and build new relationships is an essential and even significant benefit of participating in a food festival, and thanks to participation in this type of event, 67.27% of participants have the opportunity to share their interests with other people. Therefore, celebrations of this type are a kind of link in building interpersonal relationships. Moreover, the results of the conducted research indicate that the organisation of festivals creates relations between locals. According to a high percentage of respondents, food festivals are an opportunity to strengthen local identity and increase social integration (Table 1).

During the studied festivals, various relations between visitors and exhibitors were noted. Some of the relations were one-off, based on exchanging information, tasting, or purchasing a product. However, some of these relationships were more persistent and even loyal. The loyalty included both exhibitors and their products. This mainly applies to visitors who took part in previous editions of the surveyed events. These visitors often emphasised that the festival included their favourite exhibitors or products and indicated they also buy the products outside the festival, such as at the exhibitor's online store or a traditional store. Moreover, participants who were more involved (e.g., through workshops) bought products more often than those were less involved.

4.2 Exhibitors (Vendors) Sample

The surveyed exhibitors constituted a diverse group both in terms of the products offered and the size of enterprises and initiatives. The exhibitors included farmers, small producers, large production companies, and groups of rural housewives. The

Table 2 Goals of exhibitors' participation in food festivals

Goals	Not important	Neutral	Very important
Obtaining feedback about the food products offered	8.62	10.34	81.04
Establishing new business contacts	27.59	13.79	58.62
Maintaining cooperation	36.21	15.51	48.28
Familiarising with the offers of other exhibitors	37.93	18.97	43.10
Sharing my interests/passion	22.41	12.07	65.52

Source: Authors

frequency of exhibitors' participation at food festivals varied. Most of them (32.76%) participated in such events more than ten times a year. The average number of food festivals attended by the surveyed exhibitors during the year was 14, 27.59% of exhibitors participated in food festivals only once, and 18.97% participated from two to four times a year.

Building relationships with potential buyers and obtaining opinions about the offered products was crucial in participating in food festivals for over 80% of exhibitors. It was observed that more active and conversational exhibitors made contact with customers more quickly and therefore sold more products. They also had a permanent group of buyers who knew their products from other festivals or from stores (online or traditional). Thus, the atmosphere and involvement produced tangible results.

A total of 58.62% of exhibitors indicated that a vital goal for them to participate in food festivals is to establish new business contracts. For 48.28%, it was to maintain cooperation with existing business partners. Moreover, for most of the exhibitors (65.52%), participation in food festivals was associated with the possibility of establishing relationships with people with whom they could share their interests and passion (Table 2).

Maintaining contacts with the organisers was indicated as a goal by 67.24% of the surveyed exhibitors. The nature of this relationship for most exhibitors was business (97.43%), and the frequency of contacts was limited to contact once a year (51.28%). A total of 5.13% of the respondents had such cooperation less frequently than once a year, and 15.38% of the exhibitors maintained relations with the organisers several times a year. More frequent contacts with the organisers (i.e., once a month or more than once a month) were rare. Less than half of the surveyed exhibitors (48.72%) maintained regular contacts with the organisers of festivals in which they participated. According to most exhibitors (51.28%), this contact occurred sporadically. The relationship between the exhibitors and the organisers is forced by participation in the festival. This is confirmed by their predominantly business character and the frequency of these contacts, often only once a year (in connection with the festival). However, some exhibitors emphasised that they maintained nonbusiness contact with the organisers. In the opinion of the surveyed exhibitors, these relationships are more persistent and more frequent than business relationships. The observations showed that the smaller the festival was, the more often such reports were found.

Table 3 Participation in food festivals and changes in the scope of exhibitors' business results

Changes in the scope of the business result	Strongly disagree/disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Strongly agree/agree
Establishing cooperation with other exhibitors to cooperate	53.45	3.45	43.10
Increased recognition of the company/ products offered	37.93	1.72	60.35
Reaching more consumers	63.78	5.17	31.03

Source: Authors

In addition to relations with the organisers of food festivals, 51.72% of the exhibitors collaborated with other exhibitors. According to the research, this cooperation for over half of the respondents (58.63%) also took place outside the period in which the festival lasted. The interactions were mostly of a business nature (97.05%), similar to cooperating with the organisers. A small percentage of the surveyed exhibitors indicated private collaboration with another exhibitor. Contrary to cooperation with the organisers, cooperation between the exhibitors was characterised by greater frequency. Over 35.30% of the surveyed exhibitors worked with other exhibitors at least once a month. Every third surveyed exhibitor cooperated with other exhibitors once a year. This cooperation was maintained by 2.94% of the respondents less frequently than once a year. It should be noted that, in contrast to the maintained relations between exhibitors and organisers, relations between exhibitors were more regular than occasional (52.94%).

The main benefit resulting from cooperation with other exhibitors was primarily related to the diversification of activities such as extension of offers and a wider range of activities (63.33%) and increased sales (23.33%). Cooperation with other exhibitors also means lower operating costs. Ten per cent of the surveyed exhibitors could count on a reduction in promotion costs through the possibility of cooperation with other exhibitions. Similarly, 10% of them incurred lower distribution costs and 13.33% incurred lower costs of obtaining semifinished products or raw materials. Only a small percentage of exhibitors (3.33%) indicated the exchange of experiences among the benefits of cooperation with other exhibitors.

Generally, food festivals should result in reaching a greater number of audiences and establishing cooperation with other exhibitors. The research shows that participation in a food festival does not contribute to expanding the group of recipients of food products. This opinion was shared by 63.78% of the surveyed exhibitors. More than half of them (53.45%) were of the opinion that food festivals did not result in establishing cooperation with other exhibitors (Table 3).

The in-depth interviews conducted among exhibitors showed cooperation between exhibitors is not as common as could be expected. Some of the respondents believed they did not need such cooperation and did not even need to observe the competition because they had unique products. They also claimed to have regular buyers. However, it should be emphasised that most of the exhibitors recognised other exhibitors, especially from the same branch, which may indicate that they were watching the competition. Some exhibitors pointed out that they cooperated with other exhibitors and this cooperation was beneficial for both parties. Interestingly, the collaborators did not always come from one branch. Festival interbranch cooperation is often associated with lower costs (e.g., common travel, position), or it is nonbusiness, rather friendly and neighbourly.

5 Discussion

The study confirms de Jong and Varley's (2018) results, clearly showing food festivals are "relational platforms" where numerous relations occur. Our results were in agreement with the results of Adongo and Kim (2018) and confirmed that festival partnership strengthens the attachment between stakeholders and creates a basis for future relationships. Our findings are similar to Paskaleva-Shapira's (2001) view that the diversity of stakeholders makes partnerships complex and challenging to achieve.

Furthermore, the study indicated a wide range of driving motives for people participating in food festivals, of which the most common relate to business, commercial, social, or hobby. Furthermore, the study revealed that the participation goals differ between stakeholder groups (between visitors and vendors) and within groups (among vendors). Visitors and exhibitors pursue different event goals. Visitors take part in festivals mainly for social and hobby purposes. This group needs to spend time with family or friends, get away from everyday life, and explore new tastes. Our findings confirm that visitors' involvement is a critical, crucial factor helping to build relationships. This result is concurrent with the results of Kim et al. (2015). Exhibitors are more interested in business goals. Notably, by participating in food festivals, they wish to build a brand, promote their offerings, obtain opinions about their products and, finally, sell. However, it is worth adding that for some exhibitors, apart from the business aspect, it is essential to share their passion with others. Participation in festivals is a source of income and a way of life. This result is concurrent with the previous studies of Hjalger and Kwiatkowski (2018), who demonstrated that business and commercial goals often have a lower priority than those related to passion, hobby, or mission.

Similar to Castells (2011), it was observed that organisers particularly want to strengthen the relationship with exhibitors who improve the festival's quality. Festival exhibitors care about relations with the organisers, as they wish to secure 'a place at the event venue'. Moreover, exhibitors point out that festivals are an opportunity to establish relationships with customers who are festival participants. Relations between exhibitors were also observed. Most of them showed that they contacted other exhibitors during and after the festival. However, direct interviews with exhibitors show that those relations are somewhat sporadic and superficial. These results are not reflected in the event literature but relate to the study of artisan entrepreneurs delivered by Alonso and Bressan (2014) and Tregear (2005). The authors highlighted that artesian entrepreneurs conduct activities related mainly to their lifestyle and development ambitions, so they are not always interested in cooperation with other similar manufacturers.

As part of the festival, the bilateral relationship between exhibitors and visitors is significant. Visitors' participation in subsequent editions of the festival helps build loyal attitudes, particularly for exhibitors. Our findings confirm the great importance of loyalty in relationship building, similar to the results of Folgado-Fernández et al. (2019), Kim et al. (2010), Vesci and Botti (2019) and Zeithaml et al. (1996). In the current study, similar to the study of Adongo and Kim (2018) and Izzo et al. (2012), the network orchestrator function always belongs to their organiser, who plays a dominant role and integrates exhibitors. This role is crucial to the proper functions of a festival. However, the conducted research shows that the organiser's position at a food festival is limited to organising the event. During the festival, the organiser disappears instead of actively participating in integrating the exhibitors' business community by organising business meetings, sharing lists of participants, etc.

It should be noted that despite the observation of the relationships between individual stakeholders, these relationships are not very frequent or intense. These relations are usually superficial and boil down to the exchange of courtesy because there is no adequately prepared space conducive to establishing more profound relationships. There is no good idea or business link that could connect exhibitors into one efficient mechanism. This finding confirms De Jong and Varley's (2018) doubts about the limited possibilities for building social sustainability through food festivals. It must be emphasised that this research is subject to some limitations. First, the COVID-19 pandemic restricted data collection. Some food festivals were cancelled in 2020, which also applies to cyclical events. Second, only the relations inside the festival were examined. The relationship of the festival with the local environment was revealed through questions to participants inside the festival. Third, the network relations between the exhibitors have not been examined deeply, but this direction involves further research such as targeting one of the networks ("Culinary Heritage").

6 Conclusion

The study aimed to shed light on relation-building during food festivals, an area neglected in previous research. The study focused on two key stakeholder groups, visitors and exhibitors (vendors). The study attempts to answer the following research questions. Do food festivals truly help build relationships? Which groups of festival participants most often collaborate with others? What is the duration of the relationship created?

Food festivals offer a direct meeting possibility of various stakeholder groups, between whom there are interactions of various types. The exhibitor-visitor report results from the exchange of information and making an agreement often concluded with an act of purchase. This relationship may take the form of a one-off act or a permanent exchange. If a bond is created between the parties (loyalty), resulting from commitment, the relationship has a chance to be permanent, giving both parties benefits (satisfaction and economic benefits for the exhibitor/producer). Therefore, it is worth noting that food festivals are an impulse for building relationships that may translate into social sustainability. Furthermore, they may contribute to social sustainability because of the open, welcoming nature of the festivals and the opportunities for local communities to exchange, share and teach others about their culinary heritage, customs, and traditions (McClinchey, 2020).

The organiser-exhibitor relation results from a necessity, without which the festival would not take place. In the case of cyclical events, this relationship is relatively permanent because both parties want the festival to take place. At smaller food festivals, the relationship between exhibitors and organisers often translates onto a private, even friendly, relationship. It should also be emphasised that the organiser is indirectly a link between all the festival's stakeholders. Relations between exhibitors are based on cooperation and experience exchange. The research shows such relationships are the least frequent, but they are relatively permanent if they do occur. However, it should be highlighted that some exhibitors believe they do not need cooperation with other exhibitors (i.e., with competitors) but only observe competition such as in terms of offers and prices. There will be exhibitors who do not even watch the competition, considering that their offer is unique and unrivalled. Thus, the exhibitors tend to close themselves off from competition, not recognising the benefits that it can bring.

The research contributes to a certain extent to filling the research gap, first in the field of research on relations at festivals and second in the field of research on exhibitors. In the first approach, the complexity of relations should be emphasised, including the three most important groups of stakeholders, the nature of relations, and the duration length between particular groups. In the second approach, exhibitors' barriers with regard to mutual relations were observed, with exhibitors focusing their efforts on relations with visitors.

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Local Focus: Farmers' Markets as an Approach to Sustainable Tourism

Laura Ripoll González, Maria Belén Yanotti, and Kim Lehman

1 Introduction

In this chapter we explore the connection between farmers' markets and sustainable tourism, conceptualising food as a driver of sociocultural, economic, and environmental value in the context of a regional city renowned for its high-quality food and agritourism. We report on a mixed-methods study consisting of an onsite survey that investigated the perceptions and valuations on the exchanges and relationships between producers and consumers (both locals and visitors) at a farmers' market and their contribution to local development and the local food systems, and their implications for sustainable tourism. This is an increasingly significant research area as farmers' markets have become increasingly popular in urban and regional centres as alternative, short supply chain, local food networks and venues where attendees can consume and experience local, fresh food and produce (Brown, 2002; Conner et al., 2009; Guthrie et al., 2006).

Beyond being retail outlets for locally and sustainably produced food, farmers' markets have become events, meeting spaces for the local community, as well as being creative hubs for food innovation and education (Gale, 1997; Hinrichs et al., 2004; Hall & Gössling, 2013). Certainly, for tourists, farmers' markets are an authentic attraction, and, importantly, a social meeting hub. They are a place where tourists can interact with the local community and local producers, adding to their appreciation, knowledge, and experiences of the locality. Farmers' markets are also viewed as an integral component of the slow food movement, contributing to

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alternative approaches to sustainable food production and consumption that support community wellbeing (Gillespie et al., 2007). Clearly, farmers' markets can be a window to the culture of place and have the potential to contribute to the sustainable development of destinations, encouraging sustainable production and consumption, and more sustainable forms of tourism and travel behaviour through increased agritourism, slow tourism, and proximity tourism. Our research uses Harvest Launceston, a farmers' market held weekly in the northern regional city of Launceston, Tasmania, as a case study. Tasmania is Australia's southern and only island state and is increasingly reliant on tourism as a driver of economic development. It also has a vibrant community-driven food and wine culture that is committed to sustainable practices, has strong connections to place, and that recognises the potential benefits of appropriate tourism. As such, it is an ideal site for our exploration of the motivations, perceptions, and experiences of market attendees and stallholders in a farmers' market setting. Our findings indicate that farmers' markets contribute to more sustainable tourism behaviours in regional communities, including support for local businesses and local produce, shorter supply chains and preservation of cultural, gastronomic heritage, in line with the tenets of slow tourism and proximity tourism. The implications for policymakers are clear. Destinations that understand and support community-driven cultural events, such as farmers' markets, effectively promote the authenticity of the place and its local produce, while enhancing and preserving the place's cultural heritage and supporting the local economy in a sustainable way, which strengthens the local food ecosystem while demonstrating the uniqueness of the destination for tourists.

2 Sustainable Tourism Alternatives: Slow Tourism and Proximity Tourism

The relationship between food, culture, and tourism has been a subject of study by tourism scholars and increasingly by governments alike since the mid-1990s (Rand & Heath, 2006), resulting in the development of a body of academic literature around *food tourism*. This niche form of tourism draws from existing networks primarily of wine and food producers and goes beyond observing the food served to tourists in hospitality venues and on to exploring tourists' willingness to search for and enjoy local food and produce in their travels. Also labelled *culinary tourism* and encompassing *gastronomic* and *food and wine* forms of tourism, these alternative forms of tourism propose the exploration of local food and food experiences as the main purpose of tourism. Among others, food is considered a cultural trait, constitutes an element of regional tourism promotion, contributes to local agricultural and economic development, and is a key element to destination marketing (Hall & Gössling, 2013).

Similarly, agritourism or farm-based tourism makes use of local knowledge and facilities, but is not predominately developed solely for tourism and derives its income from agriculture and agri-allied products. Agritourism constitutes a long-standing sector of the tourism industry and an important source of diversification for rural economies (Henderson, 2009). Telfer and Wall (1996) suggest that agritourism is another key form of food tourism aimed at enhancing sustainability, focused specifically in promoting sustainability in food systems.

Food and gastronomy have been increasingly recognised as key areas within the broad realm of sustainable management and development of places (Rinaldi, 2017). We suggest that food tourism has the potential to contribute to local and regional development through local gastronomic heritage as food tourists' search for quality of life, new experiences, and the expression of local identities through local food production and consumption, developing a strong link with the region. As Yeoman and McMahon-Beatte (2016, p.96) note, 'food tourism is often portrayed as a visionary gaze based on concepts of 'local', 'regionality branded', 'authentic', and 'focus of economic development strategies' in which tourists are generally 'climate aware' and want a 'sustainable' experience'. In the experience economy, food tourism is a central element of destination management as it ranks highly in tourists' desires. In addition, 'to the food tourist, food is their identity. This identity is fluid and is shaped by authenticity and hedonistic experiences' (Yeoman & McMahon-Beatte, 2016, p.98). Moreover, culinary tourism is linked to cooking and the kitchen (shared knowledge and traditions linked to individual and collective identities), as well as to *slower* forms of tourism (discussed in the next section).

In addition, food tourism in urban or regional areas is seen as counteracting the negative effects of food globalisation, supports genetic diversity of crops and territorialisation of food (i.e. through denomination of origin certification) while reinforcing community pride and protection of local identity and culture. This form of tourism also contributes greatly to the local economy since food expenditure tends to account for a sizable portion of tourists' total spend (Belisle, 1983). Agriculture is intrinsically related to food tourism as an increasing number of consumers and travellers alike are interested in the origins of their food. Such interest has set the stage for rural economic development in the form of agricultural tourism.

In this context, we conceptualise farmers' markets as farm-to-plate (Hall & Gössling, 2013) food tourism experiences that bring communities together around food as a symbol of ritual and identity where a network of producers gather to sell produce and advocate for local food, sustainability, and culture. From a tourism perspective, farmers' markets are experiences that contribute to local economies while protecting the social, cultural, environmental wellbeing of local communities.

2.1 Slow Food, Slow Tourism

The slow food movement emerged in Italy in 1986 and formally established in 1989 when Carlo Petrini resisted the intrusion of fast-food industries in the local culture by opposing the opening of a McDonald's restaurant in Rome's iconic Piazza di Spagna (Miele and Murdoch, 2002). The slow food movement focuses on the provision of quality, fresh, and local food while warranting protection of the local culture and gastronomy, and the sustainability of local food systems and local communities. The Slow Food movement 'defends biodiversity in our food supply, promotes food and taste education, and connects sustainable producers to co-producers through events and building networks' (Hall, 2012) and arguably focuses on all environmental, social, and economic aspects of sustainability.

The slow food movement strives for healthy and sustainable food systems underpinning alternative forms of food production and consumption contributing to sustainable tourism development through *slower* forms of tourism. The Slow Food movement has indeed been linked to the emerging concepts of slow tourism focused on: `slowing down the rate of tourism and a guarantee of rediscovering oneself (the physiological and the psychological); it is about low greenhouse gas emissions and it is a synonym of patience, peace of mind, deeper experiences, improved cultural understanding and knowledge' (Babou and Callot 2009 in Callot, 2013, p.2156).

2.2 Food and Proximity Tourism

Slower forms of tourism have also affected the patterns of mobilities and highlighted the value in exploring the immediate surroundings, rediscovering the local and the familiar. This has contributed to the emergence of alternatives of tourism such as proximity tourism. Proximity tourism is understood as 'both the mundane exceptionality of the ordinary as well as to a form of tourism that emphasizes local destinations, short distances and lower-carbon transport modes' (Rantala et al., 2020, p.1). The focus here is on both physical and cultural accessibility and connection to human and ecologic communities, along with an emphasis on sustainable and responsible tourism behaviour towards the local community (for a review of proximity tourism, see Jeuring & Díaz Soria, 2017). In a farmers' market setting, and as is explored below, attendees from surrounding areas often visit the market as an outing activity motivated by their search for local (and often sustainable) food experiences in their vicinity, as well as a willingness to discover unique natural, cultural, or heritage assets linked to food in their proximity (Rand & Heath, 2006).

Both slow and proximity tourism can contribute to the sustainability of place, and enhance a destination brand (increased competitiveness), supported by a series of attractions or events that form the food tourism offer. Slow and proximity tourism is seen as increasingly important under the COVID19 pandemic environment (Gössling et al., 2020), with travel restrictions and closure of borders in place. There is evidence of the importance of these types of tourism to support local business and communities, as well as the effect this type of tourism has had on lowering carbon emissions and other environmental hazards (Dickinson et al., 2011; Lowry & Back, 2015).

3 Farmers' Markets and Tourism

Farmers' markets have a long tradition as community institutions (Gillespie et al., 2007, p.65), whose aim is to bring consumers and producers closer under direct selling schemes (Figueroa-Rodríguez et al., 2019). They constitute an important outlet for local farmers to supply sustainable (organic and high-quality) produce and products directly to consumers. In addition, farmers' markets provide an alternative to the concentration of market power in food retailing (see Guthrie et al., 2006 for evidence in Australia and New Zealand), and shorter supply chains, providing small producers with an alternative distribution channel that affords increases in return on their product sales (Lencucha et al., 1998).

The late 1960s witnessed a renewed interest in access to healthy and fresh produce (Gillespie et al., 2007). The (re)emergence of farmers' markets and their current popularity is due to: (1) growing consumer demand for fresh, locally grown produce; (2) changes in the economics of agriculture; (3) consumer interest in direct interaction with the growers (Hunt, 2007); (4) product source knowledge; and (5) increased liveability and town revitalisation.

Ample research highlights their economic benefits to producers, consumers, and, by extension, local communities (Sanderson et al., 2005). At the farmers' market, attendees and visitors get an opportunity to shop local, healthy, fresh, and organic quality produce, and to interact with local farmers and producers and learn more about production processes, local gastronomy, and the culture around food. Farmers' markets can take different shapes and forms in different countries but their contribution to local development has become increasingly evident. In the U.S. states, authorities have understood their key role in supporting local food systems and contribution to public health and community wellbeing and have thus promoted legislation and governmental support enhancing the development and proliferation of farmers' markets. International research and attention has recently increased following their development worldwide and has mainly focused on their economic and social impacts (Figueroa-Rodríguez et al., 2019).

The economic value and benefits of farmers' markets have been well documented in the academic literature, particularly in the U.K. and USA, where farmers' markets are seen to bridge the formal and informal sectors of the economy, boosting local economic sustainability (Sanderson et al., 2005). Direct contact between farmers and consumers offers the advantage of improved market information (Gale, 1997) on consumers' preferences to inform product development (Henneberry et al., 2009) contributing to product diversification, enhancing business innovation and increasing brand loyalty (Hunt, 2007). Consumers can take advantage of the onsite interaction to question farmers directly about their production methods (such as pesticide use, carbon footprint, traditional methods, among others). Moreover, in a farmers' market setting, beyond obtaining additional profits derived from cutting the middleman (wholesalers), farmers also benefit from an expanded network of like-minded individuals, and connections with the local business community around food, with the market acting as an incubator for new start-ups or an innovation hub contributing directly to local entrepreneurship. For instance, local restaurateurs can taste and explore local produce at the market that is then incorporated into their gastronomic offering, potentially leading to long-term business relationships between the hospitality industry and local farmers.

Beyond contributing to local economic development, farmers' markets provide a range of social, environmental, and health and wellbeing benefits to major urban centres and regional towns alike (Cummings et al., 1999; Zepeda & Leviten-Reid, 2004) and provide intangible benefits to the places (neighbourhoods, small towns, or cities) in which they operate. Local produce and dishes offered at the markets also have symbolic value and add to the sense of belonging. Furthermore, as spaces for social participation and leisure, farmers' markets promote community wellbeing and the regular encounters between locals, farmers, and visitors contribute to building a community around local food, increased liveliness in the areas where they are held, and the touristic offer (Hinrichs, 2000).

Finally, in contrast to supermarkets, farmers' markets are unstructured public spaces where producers meet consumers to sell their produce directly. Farmers' market customers are primarily attracted by three factors: the overall quality of the products offered (freshness, taste, and food safety), the lower prices relative to those of comparable goods in supermarkets, and the market atmosphere (Hughes et al., 2008). The undefined spaces created within support a consumer belief that markets possess a 'special' atmosphere, that they are more people-centred, friendly spaces where attendees can interact and learn more from producers (Kirwan, 2006).

4 Farmers' Market, Food Tourism, and Sustainability

There are two main approaches to consuming tourism products and services: the experience economy and the intimacy model. In the experience economy, tourists' experiences are complex and multi-faceted, based on a constant 'flow' of symbolic interactions. The intimacy model posits that intimate encounters between hosts and visitors constitute to memorable experiences and bring personal value through authentic experiences through ritual, and the communication on shared experiences, rather than new adventures. The farmers' market offers both types of experiences. Beyond the *local* interactions among stallholders and attendees, farmers' markets allow visitors with the opportunity to have a 'taste of the local life' by mixing with locals and sampling produce and learning about the local food culture (Sims, 2009; Silkes, 2012).

Sustainable tourism development supports a holistic vision that includes all vital social and local aspects and a key strategy based on the inclusion of the many stakeholders of a destination (Tomsett & Shaw, 2015, p.115) as posited by the UN's Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 17: strengthening partnerships is key for developing and implementing strategies towards the achievement of the sustainability. It is often focused on management practices that can reduce the environmental impacts of food consumption in the tourism and hospitality sectors, while

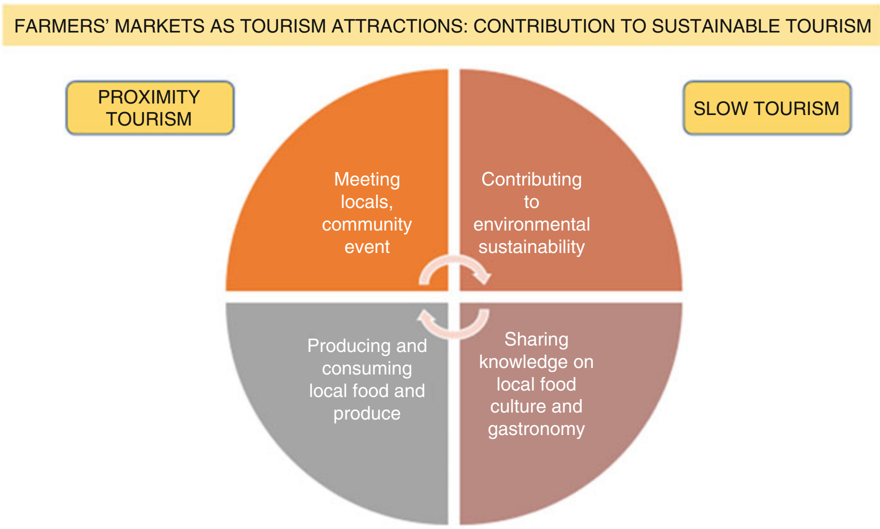

Fig. 1 Farmer's markets and contribution to sustainable tourism. Source: Own elaboration

maintaining sociocultural benefits and supporting regional development (Gössling et al., 2011; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019a). Harnessing local innovation in this context can have the twofold objective of improving visitors' experience and affording a better quality of life for locals, as a shared project between the local community, growers, politicians, and visitors (Yeoman & McMahon-Beatte, 2016). Furthermore, providing sustainable food tourism experiences can lead to behavioural change beyond the experience, with changes towards more healthy and sustainable food consumption.

From the literature review presented above, It is clear that farmers markets, as tourism attractions or events, can contribute to sustainable tourism in four main areas—as shown in Fig. 1—that are closely linked to the tenets of proximity and slow tourism:

- providing a meeting point for local attendees and farmers, and locals and visitors to meet;
- contributing to pro-environmental consumer behaviour (reduced waste and lower carbon footprint);
- encouraging local food production and consumption (supporting the local economy); and
- acting as a focus for shared cultural knowledge on the local food and gastronomy.

In summary, increasing academic interest in food tourism as sustainable tourism is linked to the growth of farmers markets' and other initiatives that support local food systems and contribute to sustainable local development. Here, we observe if and how farmers' markets as foci for food tourism contribute to the sustainability of local food systems through shorter supply chains, a focus on local food and produce and, increasingly, on environmentally responsible forms of production and consumption.

5 Case Study

Despite their re-emergence and development, research on farmers' markets in Australasia and Oceania is scarce (see Andrée et al., 2010; Hall, 2012; Fielke & Bardsley, 2013; Smithers et al., 2008). Farmers' markets adopt a range of operational models, primarily divided into community-based organisations (including trade associations or regional food clusters), local government markets (in partnership with a service provider or club), or private enterprise markets (typically on public spaces). In Australia, the development of farmers' markets has been supported by the Australian Farmers' Markets Association (AFMA), a voluntary organisation convened in 2003 to create a networking entity committed to supporting best-practice and sustainable farmers' markets across Australia. AFMA identifies 546 farmers' markets operating across Australia, mostly around the most densely populated east coast cities and regional centres. AFMA defines a typical farmers' market as follows:

> A Farmers' Market is a predominantly fresh food market that operates regularly within a community, at a focal public location that provides a suitable environment for farmers and specialty food producers to sell farm-origin and associated value-added specialty foods for human consumption, and plant products, directly to customers (Australian Farmers' Market Association, 2020).

Harvest Launceston is a community farmers' market (Harvest Launceston, 2019) constituted as a not-for-profit organisation where growers and producers sell directly to customers every Saturday morning in Launceston, a city in Australia's further south and island state of Tasmania. In particular, the market currently takes place in a local government-owned, unspecified car park (Fig. 2). A large group of dedicated volunteers assists with the operations of the market.

Tasmania is known by its high-quality produce and agriculture. The city of Launceston is the second largest city in the State, and has a strong regional identity, acting as a service hub for the north of the State. Marked by its European and Indigenous history, Launceston is one of Tasmania's top tourism destinations with a rich natural environment and high-quality produce. State-wide, tourism directly and indirectly contributed around AU$3.2 billion per annum or 10.3% to Gross State Product (GSP) as of August 2019. Tasmania's globally renowned natural environment is one of its most valuable assets and underpins the State's reputation as a must-visit destination. The nature-based and eco-tourism experiences connect visitors with these assets and also drive visitation into regional areas. Moreover, Tasmania's reputation for high-quality produce is recognised globally; farm gate and agritourism experiences highlight the State's strength in the production of wine, whisky, cider, and beer, along with the agriculture and aquaculture industries. These elements

Fig. 2 Harvest Launceston, held every Saturday from 8.30 AM to 12.30 PM. Image: Maria Yanotti

contribute strongly to the Tasmanian brand, and most tourism marketing campaigns and tourism strategic documents will feature images of farmers' markets. International research shows food and beverage to be a key factor in people's travel decisions, and Tasmania is, therefore, well positioned to capitalise on this through its unique combination of people, produce, place, and proximity.

6 Methodology

The empirical study follows a mixed-methods approach and analyses two series of onsite longitudinal surveys carried out for four consecutive weeks during the months of April–May 2017 and 2019. We collected 725 attendees questionaries (358 in 2017 and 367 in 2019), with a response rate of 72%. Data were collected onsite during market hours with personal intercept surveying and voluntary (self-selection) surveying, with the aim of collecting a random sample (for more details on data collection, see Yanotti & Ripoll Gonzalez, 2018, 2020). The survey explored the motivations, perceptions, valuation, purchasing behaviour and experiences of market attendees and stallholders at a farmers' market linked to sustainable tourism. The research observed the following four aspects of the market: environmental (consumer behaviour), social (meeting point); local economic development; and cultural (sharing gastronomic knowledge). We also assessed the demand for local, fresh, and sustainable food, by combining economic data on market transactions (expenditure) with participants' willingness to pay (WAP) for local, fresh, and sustainable food (contingent valuation), providing a more holistic measure of the overall value of the market.

6.1 Farmers' Markets Attendees: A Snapshot of Findings

Attendees were classified into *locals* (those residing in the vicinity of the market), *local visitors,* or '*proximity tourists'* (those residing in Tasmania but in further away postcodes to the market location) and *visitors* (interstate or international visitors). We differentiate between local visitor cohorts to explore indicators of alternative forms of proximity tourism. A preference for slow forms of tourism is predicted based on visitors' attitudes and preferences.

The data indicated that participants' main motivations for attending the farmers' market included: access to fresh and local produce, experience local food, and socialise. The case study finds that most participants attend farmers' markets as a social and touristic weekend activity and not a mere shopping outing. This is supported by the fact that participants primarily bought food and drinks to be consumed at the market.

Attendees reported a total actual expenditure (within the four weekends of data collection) of AU$39,596 for 2017 and AU$22,316 for 2019. This translates in an estimated annual economic contribution of AU$475,150 for 2017 and AU$267,793 for 2019, based only on the reported expenditure of surveyed attendees. Surveyed attendees mainly purchased food and drinks to consume at the market (AU$20 spent on average each Saturday), primary produce (AU$31.2 spent on average) and value-added products (AU$22.8 spent on average); see Table 1. On a Saturday, the overall average expenditure was AU$61.4, while half of the sample reported having spent AU$50. An estimated number of attendees (based on market volunteers counting through the year) average over 4000 persons at the market on a Saturday morning. We estimate a median Saturday expenditure of AU$100,000, which translates into an annual expenditure of AU$5.2 million in local produce and food at the farmers' market (including transport and other expenses).

Harvest Launceston offers an outlet to Tasmanian farmers and food artisans for the direct sale of a diverse range of fresh, local, high-quality produce to consumers

Table 1 Farmers' Markets Spending patterns, averages per person per market day

Average expense (per person)	Attendees	Visitors	Local visitors
Primary produce	$31.2	$22.7	$31.5
Value-added products	$22.8	$21.2	$23.1
Food and drinks	$20	$22	$20.1
Entertainment	$1.6	$0.4	$0.9
Travel	$13.6	$63.2	$9.9
Other expenses	$4.2	$5.9	$1.5
Total	$61.4	$77.1	$61.9

(shorter supply chain), fosters innovation and collaboration, and provides economic and social benefits to the community, while cultivating a vibrant public space and providing a weekly attraction for local residents and visitors, and encouraging sustainable food consumption behaviours.

Among the benefits that the market brings to the local community, respondents noted the following:

- Provides an excuse to come to the city centre;
- Provides access to fresh, quality, local produce;
- Provides a platform to appreciate the Tasmanian lifestyle (mainly supported by visitors);
- Provides a chance for producers to share their knowledge with consumers;
- Provides a chance for consumers to connect with farmers, producers, and other attendees.

With regard to the markets' contribution to sustainable development, most surveyed market attendants reported the main benefits farmers' markets bring to the community to be that it: 'promotes regional and local agriculture and supports local farmers' (85%), and 'provides a one-stop-shop to access fresh, local, seasonal and nutritional food' (75%). Experiencing farmers' markets allows market attendants to learn about 'produce seasonality' (72%) and teaches them 'where food comes from' (50%). Similarly, the overwhelming majority agreed or strongly agreed that 'farmers' markets contribute to availability of fresh and local food' (95%) and that 'produce in Harvest Launceston is of high quality' (94%) and that 'Harvest Launceston offers a variety of food and produce' (90%) and 'farmers' markets contribute to Tasmania's agritourism industry' (88%).

6.2 Visitors

Interstate and international visitors represented 17% of the data collected (16% in 2017 and 18% in 2019). More tourists seem to attend Harvest Launceston when there were no other specific touristic events or attractions on the same day, as most visitors were recorded on the weekend that there were no major events in the Launceston surroundings. These visitors tended to be mainly females (61%), educated (most with a university degree or postgraduate degree), and high-income individuals (annual average incomes over AU$100,000). Interstate and International visitors spent on average AU$77 on a market visit, as shown in Table 1, with half of them spending AU$47.6, as shown in Table 2. Surveyed visitors reported having spent a total of AU$9256 during the 4 weeks of data collection, as shown in Table 2. We, therefore, estimate their annual economic contribution to the local food system at above AU$111,072 based only on the reported expenses during their market visit.

The characteristics and motivations of slow tourism (experiencing local food and care for the environment) were clearly apparent in our study. Visitors that attended the farmers' market reported that they value local and fresh produce of the place they

Table 2 Farmers' Markets estimated economic contribution

Estimated economic contribution	Attendees	Visitors	Local visitors
Median expense per market day	$50	$47.6	$55
Average number of people per market day	4000	680	952
Estimated total expense per market day	$100,000	$16,184	$26,180
Reported expenditure per month[a]	$42,171	$9256	$8297
Annual economic contribution (based on median expense and 2000 attendees per market day)	$5.2mill	$841,568	$1.36mill
Annual economic contribution (based on reported expense[a])	$506,052	$111,072	$99,564

[a]Reported expense only includes expenses reported by surveyed market attendees exclusively

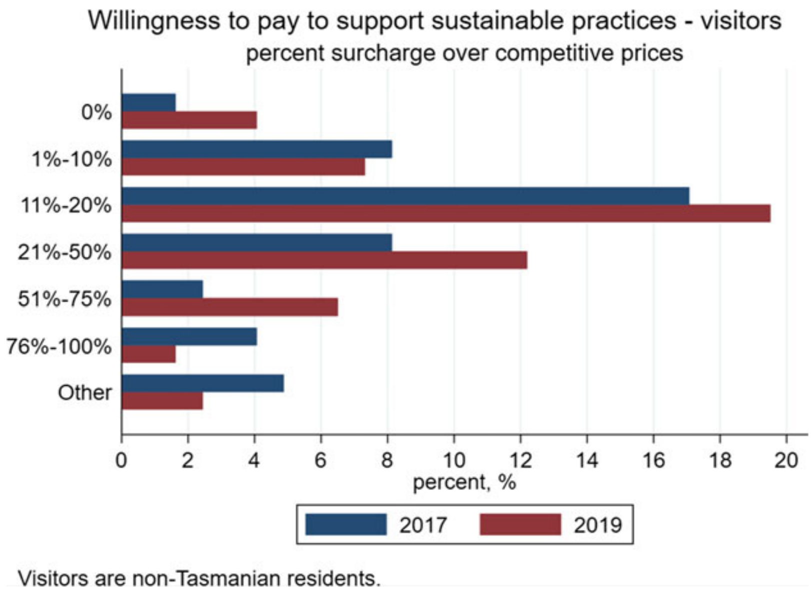

Fig. 3 Visitors WAP to support sustainable practices

are visiting, and they are ready to support local farmers despite being tourists. Over half (56%) were willing to pay between 1% and 20% above competitive prices, and more than a quarter (26.8%) were willing to pay between 21% and 50% above competitive prices for local and fresh produce. This compares to 60% of attendees willing to pay between 1% and 20% above competitive prices but only 24% stating that they would pay between 21% and 50% extra. Moreover, over half of visitors were willing to pay between 11% and 50% above competitive prices to support local farmers. Similarly, visitors valued sustainable practices, with 57% declaring that they were willing to pay between 11% and 50% above competitive prices to support sustainable practices, compared to 49% of non-visitors (see Figs. 3 and 4 below). As

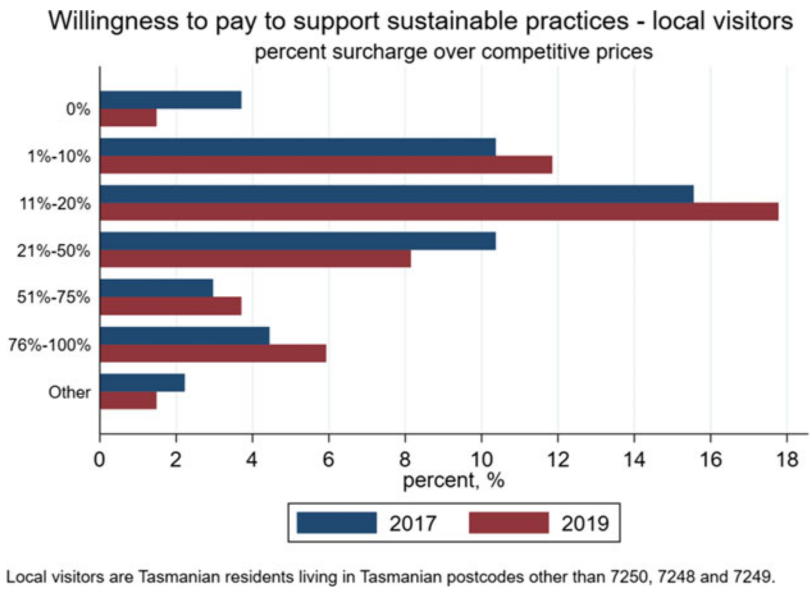

Fig. 4 Local visitors WAP to support sustainable practices

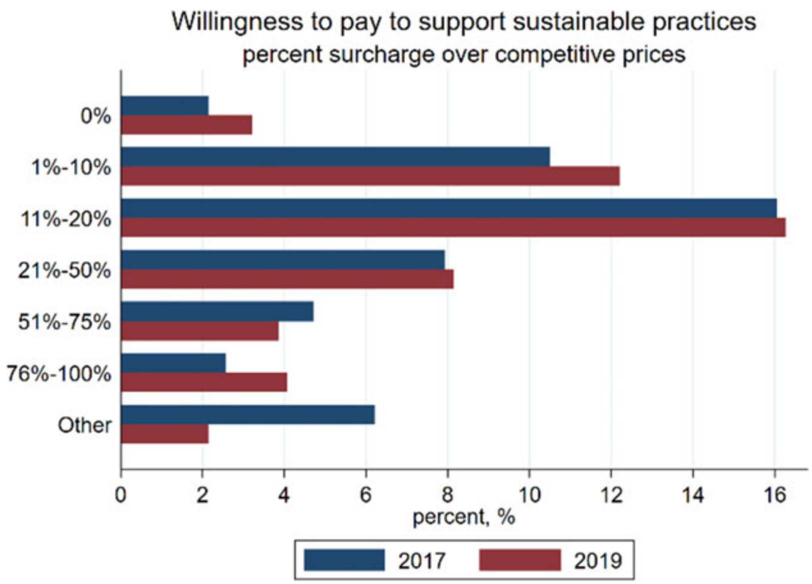

Fig. 5 Local attendees WAP to support sustainable practices

expected, however, visitors valued the community connection at the market less than Tasmanian attendees.

Specifically, Figs. 3–5 compare the willingness to pay to support sustainable practices for visitors (Fig. 3), local visitors (Fig. 4), and locals (Fig. 5) between data collected in 2017 and in 2019. Figures 2–4 show that in general, market attendees have increased their willingness to pay to support sustainable practices over time. When comparing Figs. 3–5 for 2019 (concentrating on the red bars), a larger percentage of visitors is willing to pay 11–50% over competitive prices, relative to locals and local visitors. Furthermore, a larger percentage of visitors and local visitors are willing to pay between 51% and 75% above competitive prices relative to locals. The figures show not only that over time market attendees are more committed to support sustainability but also, that over time, visitors and local visitors are willing to pay more to support those sustainability practices.

6.3 Proximity Tourists

Local visitors (and proximity tourists) represented 23.8% of our sample (24.4% in 2017 and 23% in 2019). They were mainly females (61% in 2017 and 66% in 2019), with most holding a university degree, a university postgraduate, or a VET/TAFE certificate, and reporting income levels more evenly distributed like those of locals. Local visitor participation seems to have been increasing over time. While 30% of proximity tourists reported attending the market regularly and 38% attended only occasionally in 2017, the local visitor regular attendees in 2019 represented 61.5% of the sample, and only 15.4% attended occasionally. This trend follows the growth and increased awareness of the market, as well as general trends in proximity tourism in Tasmania.

Local visitors spent on average $61.9 per market visit, while half spending $55. Most purchase mainly food and drinks at the market, followed by primary produce. Surveyed local visitors reported having spent a total of $8297 during data collection. We estimate local visitors or ‘proximity tourists’ contribute around $1.36 million to local produce per year through their interaction with the farmers’ market (see Table 2). The data shows that local visitors highly valued sustainable practices, local and fresh produce, and local farmers, following the concept of ‘proximity tourism’. A large majority of local visitors were willing to pay 1–50% above competitive prices for local and fresh produce and to support local farmers (81.5% and 77.8%, respectively). Almost three-quarters of local visitors (74%) were willing to pay between 1% and 50% above competitive prices to support sustainable practices (see Fig. 5), and a further 10% were willing to pay between 76% and 100% above competitive practices. Interestingly however, local visitors did not value community connection as strongly as locals, despite reporting they attended the market mainly for the local feel of the market and as a day out activity to have food and drinks.

Our findings align with overall Australian consumer trends supporting local fresh food industries and communities, based on healthier choices and respect for the environment. The market supports resilience of local produce chains by offering an additional outlet for commercialisation of locally farmed produce and locally produced value-added products. From an agritourism perspective, the market provides a unique contact with place and the local culture. The market also provides a platform for matching and sharing local cuisine with local produce, focusing on quality, fresh, and organic food and drink offerings to increase wellbeing. The market acts also as a meeting space, as a weekend event that attracts residents, proximity tourists, and visitors. By increasing the perceived value of locally produced food and contributing to sustainable production and consumption practices, farmers' markets stimulate sustainable tourism in the form of slow tourism and proximity tourism.

7 Discussion

Overall, our research shows that farmers' markets, in addition to their role as retail spaces, promote forms of sustainable tourism (slow tourism and proximity tourism) while stimulating the local economy and supporting local and regional development.

Participants' reported their main motivations for attending the farmers' market included access to fresh and local produce, experience local food, and socialise. In line with existing research on food and culinary tourism (Sims, 2009; Silkes, 2012), the study shows how the farmers' market provides a visitor experience that contributes to community building by providing a social meeting point for locals and visitors while revitalising a local public space, contributing to the health and wellbeing of the local community. We also find that farmers' markets provide an opportunity to educate locals and visitors in sustainable food production and consumption practices (Guthrie et al., 2006) as well as increasing embeddedness between local producers and visitors (Hinrichs, 2000) which in turn strengthens the local supply chain and supports local businesses. In addition, we observed in detail the geographical distribution of market attendees and argued the important role of farmers' markets in providing experiences that support emerging alternative forms of tourism such as proximity and slow tourism (Rantala et al., 2020).

Critical tourism scholars have been advocating strongly for alternative forms of tourism to counteract the current pressures of over-tourism and unsustainable growth, calling for a redefinition of tourism that 'places the rights of local communities above the rights of tourists for holidays and the rights of tourism corporates to make profits' (i.e. Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019b, p.1936). In this chapter we highlight farmers' markets as an example of how the tourism experience can be redefined to match the needs of local communities. Beyond attempts to analyse consumer satisfaction (Silkes, 2012) our research demonstrates how the Harvest Launceston farmers' market community effectively acts as a host offering gastronomic tourism experiences and authentic cultural encounters that warrant beneficial economic and cultural exchanges while protecting the local society and environment. The markets' management sustainability ethos (i.e. low carbon footprint, fogo bins, etc.) and featured sustainable production and consumption practices by both attendees and stakeholders contribute to behavioural changes and education towards sustainability. Moreover, the quality experience the market provides to visitors adds to the local pride of citizens and market stallholders alike as hosts, a ubiquitous hospitality display contributing and augmenting the local city and regional brands (Tsai & Wang, 2017).

The reciprocal benefits of tourism encounters around local food on display at farmers' markets can influence the development of similar community-driven, locally-focused tourism experiences based on cultural exchanges between host and visitor. The natural advantage of high-quality produce in the area has been recognised by policy-makers, with the inclusion of the role and cultural value of food exchanges in local government tourism and cultural strategies for Launceston:

> From our surrounding farming and viticultural communities; to the many vibrant markets and high-quality makers; a thriving hotel, café and restaurant scene, Launceston is steeped in a culture of food. Food is the focus of many cultural exchanges [...] This is the bubbling centre of our culture—our food and our community are intrinsically linked at the foundation of a vital culture. Tapping into this energetic sector and supporting its organic and integrated nuture will provide many opportunities for a thriving cultural life (Cultural Strategy for the City of Launceston, 2020–2030, p.26).

8 Conclusion

Our empirical research contextualised the connection between farmers' markets and sustainable tourism. We highlight the potential benefits of localised, high-quality, community-led, food tourism and agritourism and their implications for the development of alternative sustainable tourism practices. Farmers' markets as foci for interaction between tourists and locals (1) enhance sustainable food production and consumption, (2) support the local community, and (3) foster interactions and shared knowledge between stallholders and attendees, locals and visitors.

The findings of this study directly relate to the essential nature of local and fresh food, and community interactions highlighted during the pandemic the world experienced since 2020, and contribute to scarce research on farmers' markets and sustainable tourism. Beyond being a selling point for local food underlining the cultural and social value and aesthetics of food, farmers' markets can also help build community connections through periods of crisis, and stimulate tourism even with closed borders, in the form of proximity tourism. The social distancing regulations imposed by governments at the time of writing due to the COVID-19 health crisis are restricting social interactions within the community, highlighting the importance of community interaction and support. These restrictions have reinforced the value of proximity tourism and slow tourism, supporting local and community structures and business already in place. It has been made evident that local farmers and producers are an important sector that can help reactivate the local economy during such crises as the COVID-19 crisis, as long as locals are willing and able to purchase local food.

We contend that local and regional food experiences, particularly farmers' markets, can contribute to the sustainable development of destinations from both a tourism and marketing perspective. Farmers' markets effectively promote local food strengthening the agricultural and tourism sectors while protecting the destination's heritage and uniqueness. A focus on proximity tourists could expand visitation with expected similar effects on agribusinesses and even contribute to similar developments in the cultural and creative industries. In this context, we invite scholars and policymakers to work collaboratively to enhance the value of local food for sustainable tourism development through active partnerships as the ones developed in a farmers' market setting. We also strongly advocate for further research on farmers' markets as alternative and more sustainable forms of tourism, including linked tourism experiences (i.e. farms visits www.visitmyfarm.com.au). One area of particular interest is that this study revealed an inherently upper-middle-class consumer bias, with considerable barriers to accessibility by lower socio-economic groups. In our view this is an issue that needs addressing, both by policy-makers and academics.

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Social Sustainability, Peacefulness and Inclusivity at Music Festivals: Illustrative Cases from the Basque Country (Spain)

Jordi Oliva Codina and Alba Colombo

1 Introduction

Before the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, cultural events and music festivals in particular were booming all around the world. In Europe alone 27.7 million people attended music festivals in 2016 (Fricker, 2017). Amongst the European countries, Spain saw a rapid increase in the number of festivals organized. Indeed, while 551 festivals took place in Spain in 2005, 896 music festivals were held in 2018 (APM, 2018). This trend is also noticeable in the proliferation of community music festivals (Anderton, 2018). The growing number of music festivals highlights the importance of live performances for both the music industry and audiences, and represents a key element of the event management sector of the tourism industry.

In an attempt to understand visitor experiences and associated outcomes of music events, scholars have devised varying models to assess the so-called event experience (e.g. De Geus et al., 2016; Wood & Moss, 2015). Evaluating the event experience is relevant for destinations as it may contribute to improving sustainable tourism planning and management. The concept of sustainable tourism is understood here from the social sustainability approach, which considers not only environmental issues but also the social and cultural impacts of the different activities offered. Understanding the event experience may, therefore, unmask the intangible social and cultural impacts generated by event participation and thus enhance our understanding of the key elements involved in the social sustainability management of these particular activities.

In this chapter, we centre the analysis on two dimensions that might be produced in the experience of music festivals: peacefulness and inclusivity. By exploring festivalgoer experiences, we aim to examine how the way in which music festivals

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are organized contributes to promoting these two dimensions. Peacefulness and inclusivity have been selected for their potential power of description of the bonding of society or convergence between groups, in the first dimension, and of the promotion of harmonious societies, in the second. It is pertinent to analyse music festivals by examining specific dimensions of social sustainability since the holistic concept of sustainability encompasses every human activity (James et al., 2015). An understanding of these two dimensions within the experience of music festivals can help to shed light on planning and management within the domain of socially sustainable tourism.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Social Sustainability

Tourism planning is always connected to the goal of development, as explained by Sharpley (2009). This development is a process that is continually evolving or attempting to evolve to achieve a 'better' state. However, paraphrasing the same author, this ideal of positive development has brought up ongoing issues in terms of environmental, social and cultural conflicts in the different societies hosting the development process. As a consequence, a wider concept of tourism development—or sustainable tourism—has evolved, the aim of which is to contribute by establishing an equilibrium between the different economic interests involved and environmental, social and cultural development. Sustainability can, therefore, be understood in terms of achieving this equilibrium in the planning, managing and monitoring of tourism activities.

However, this general concept of sustainability can be contested by highlighting the relevance of 'the social' to sustainability, among other factors. As pointed out by Magee et al. (2013), understanding social sustainability began with examining the prominent role of 'the social'. The authors maintain that 'the social' is not a secondary factor of economic relations. Thus, when it is used as the framework of sustainability assessment, we are better able to comprehend how communities are fostered, discern the relevant role of cultural activities and, finally, gain insight into tensions between the short-term and long-term effects of human activity. In this regard, sustainability refers to a future state that can be assessed by looking at the impacts of specific actions such as cultural events. This matter began to garner attention thanks to the promotion of sustainable development in the Club of Rome's 1972 report *The Limits to Growth* (Meadows et al., 1972), as well as in the *Brundtland Report* and at the United Nations Conference on the Environment in 1987 (WCED, 1987). Specifically, interest in assessing cultural events in terms of their social sustainability is enhanced by the importance given to promoting healthy environments (Stokols, 1992, 1996), including taking psychological and sociocultural parameters into consideration. In short, a broad and interdisciplinary perspective is needed to evaluate cultural events and assess their sustainability in terms of the social experiences they afford but also to understand from a management perspective the social implications driving the planning of such events.

Paraphrasing Andersson et al. (2012, p. 218), the discussion on sustainability in tourism research calls for a holistic comprehension of the intangible costs and benefits that participating in cultural events entails. In terms of hospitality, sustainable tourism development demands impact assessments that include dimensions other than the purely financial, such as the sociocultural and environmental impacts. These impacts are often intangible and are included in the cost-benefit framework, albeit only implicitly or with less relevance in most cases.

Paradigmatic models using specific items have been devised to assess social impacts (Delamere et al., 2001) and experiences (de Geus et al., 2016). More recently, Colombo (2016) proposed a new model, called Cultural Impact Perception (CIP), for assessing and classifying cultural impacts in an event setting, basing her analyses on attendees' perceptions of impact and identifying a set of impacts and their relationship to organizers' intentions in this respect. Colombo's model specifies and defines cultural impacts on the basis of previous definitions (Delamere et al., 2001; Fredline et al., 2003; Getz, 2007; Hall, 1989; Small et al., 2005). The classification introduces the possibility of identifying cultural impacts on different manifestations of culture in cultural event settings. The relevance of her model resides in its ability to identify impacts related to the cohesion or togetherness that attendees feel because of their participation in an event as well as to the development of their cultural identity and the influence of event participation on social inclusion based on the intensity of their perceptions. In short, this model enables research to be undertaken on specific items that may be related to the strengthening or weakening of participants' social sustainability and may therefore shed light on the potential of cultural events to promote more or less socially sustainable societies.

As mentioned above, cultural events are meant to offer unique opportunities for attendees. This uniqueness can be understood as the result of the multiple intangible impacts but also as a consequence of the emotions elicited during the participant's experience. Therefore, in order to try to understand this impact, the next section offers an overview of the affective responses of participants during the cultural event experience.

2.2 The Relevance of Affective Response in Live Music Experiences

Several researchers have suggested that cultural events offer unique and remarkable experiences (Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007; Park et al., 2010). These events form part of what nowadays is understood as the experience economy, in which the 'product' offered is these unique experiences (Bell, 1973; Berridge, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Toffler, 1980; Andersson, 2007). These experiences are key products for planned tourism (Getz, 2007) or the so-called cultural tourism, which was well developed by Richards (2007). The experience economy is emerging as a separate field of study because of its relevance to tourism development for visitor satisfaction, illustrated, for example, in the development of specific scales by Chang and Hung (2021) and the tools for tourism management proposed by Sipe (2021). Understanding the elements that construct this uniqueness of experience is, therefore, key to evaluating the social sustainability of these planned events.

Music festivals provide a clear example of how a uniqueness of experience is created. In fact, Ballantyne et al. (2014) argued that this type of event shapes unique experiences for each individual attendee. More recently, event experience has been analysed using different models. For example, the paradigmatic model proposed by de Geus et al. (2016), called the Event Experience Scale (EES), describes event experience as a mixture of four components: affective, cognitive, physical and the experience of novelty. The EES operationalization concluded (Richards, 2020) that ‘affective engagement’ (the excitement, emotional energy, intimacy, sense of adventure and values and recollections that attendees gain from an event) is a key factor in event experiences. Other authors have highlighted emotions related to satisfaction, motivation and expectation, as well as how the experience might be interpreted (Wood & Moss, 2015; Morgan, 2008; Pegg & Patterson, 2010). Given the above, we consider emotions to be an essential element in the study of experiences at live music events such as music festivals. Accordingly, we must also understand how emotions are elicited by music in festival-like settings.

2.3 Emotions and Music

Emotions can be described by their attributes, which are identified by their origin or the circumstances in which they arise. For the purposes of our research, the most relevant understanding of emotion, however, is as a ‘sense of feeling’ (Zentner et al., 2008), which is based on an individual’s perception rather than what a specific circumstance, style or piece of music is supposed to elicit. This definition implies the ability to describe emotions using a discrete list. Still, the classic discrete point of view, whereby humans’ entire range of emotions can be derived from a basic set thereof (Ekman, 1992), has proven insufficient in the case of music-elicited emotions (Scherer & Zentner, 2001). Art-elicited or music-elicited emotion scales may be the solution to these limitations, as they include the additional emotions evoked through music’s ability to complement and enrich the already wide range of art-elicited emotions. Along these lines, Zentner et al. (2008) conducted analyses in four quantitative and qualitative studies, the findings of which identified a discrete list of emotions called the Geneva Emotional Music Scales (GEMS). The GEMS proposes three scales of music-elicited emotions felt by listeners. The first scale comprises 40 terms referring to emotions. Through factor analysis, each emotion was classified according to nine overarching emotions: wonder, transcendence, tenderness, nostalgia, peacefulness, power, joyful activation, tension and sadness.

Adding a cognitive perspective to this affective understanding, Koelsch et al. (2004) argued that human emotion is linked to a cognitive process that introduces semantic content; that is, it provides new opportunities to add cultural content to one's cultural identity. The key question at this stage is how to measure the effects or significance of culture in music festival experiences. In this regard, examining the emotional recognition jointly with the intangible impact assessment presented previously may provide a solid approach to gaining a better understanding of an event's social sustainability.

3 Methodology

As previously explained, the aim of this chapter is to observe the extent to which music festivals may generate peacefulness and inclusivity. We evaluated the first dimension from a quantitative perspective of the emotional perception of the attendees (through the GEMS), complemented with qualitative descriptions taken from the experience. The second dimension was evaluated from a qualitative perspective of the cultural impacts on the social inclusion identified in Colombo (2016). As argued in Biaett and Richards (2020), the interplay between quantitative and qualitative methodologies provides an enriched overview of events that is based on the subjective data gathered. This mixed-method approach was followed for the two festivals by collecting data through surveys, semi-structured interviews with the festivalgoers and visual ethnography.

In order to address a wider scope of festival experiences, we selected two kinds of music festivals with differing music styles for our analysis. The first is a multi-genre music festival, representing the mainstream festival that attempts to encompass as many musical styles as possible in order to reach a wider audience. The second is a more traditional, indoor music festival, with an artistic programme centred on classical music. The reason for selecting festivals offering different music styles is basically the different audience profiles and experiences that the two festivals generate. The audience characteristics of an indoor, urban, traditional classical music festival are expected to be markedly different to those of an outdoor, camping-based, rural, to a multi-genre music festival. The spaces, rhythms, audiences, performances, even programmes and organizers differ between the two festivals, giving us a broader perspective about what occurs at festivals with different styles and typologies of venues. We chose to analyse Bilbao's BBK Live as a mainstream multi-genre music festival and the Quincena Musical festival held in San Sebastián as an urban, traditional classical music festival. We gathered data from both festivals in the summer of 2018.

3.1 Survey

A total of 100 survey responses were collected from the two festivals jointly in order to measure attendees' emotional responses through the GEMS-9 scale proposed in Zentner et al. (2008). Aiming for a comparative analysis, 50 survey responses were collected for each festival following quota sampling based on two variables: gender and age. Specifically, in the case of Quincena Musical, the quota sampling was based on the analysis of a private cultural consultancy (Ikertalde, 2015), and in the case of BBK Live, where no concrete data was available on participation, it was based on previous data published in the local newspapers on past editions of the festival. The survey collected the socio-demographic data of the survey respondents and the emotional outcome measured through specific emotions defined in the GEMS-9 scale, as shown in Table 1.

Each of these terms of emotion was assessed by the subjective experience of the attendants through a Likert scale (from 1 to 5).

3.2 Semi-structured Interviews

As mentioned above, inclusivity was measured using the Cultural Impact Perception analysis model (Colombo, 2016), which allowed us to identify specific cultural impacts related to social cohesion. Inclusivity, or social cohesion, is assessed by identifying and measuring specific impacts related to cohesion and integration according to the model proposed by Colombo (2016). Colombo's CIP model examines the existence of five cultural impacts through the perceptions of festival-goers. Table 2 below provides descriptive information about each impact, including its benefits and costs, which have been drawn from the literature review on social and cultural impacts performed by Colombo (2016). By analysing these cultural impacts, we may be able to determine their specific effect on the inclusivity or non-inclusivity of music festival experiences as perceived by the festivalgoers themselves. To this effect, this content will be contrasted against qualitative data gathered from

Table 1 Emotions on the GEMS-9 scale

Wonder	Filled with wonder; dazzled; allured; moved
Transcendence	Fascinated; overwhelmed; feelings of transcendence and spirituality
Power	Strong; triumphant; energetic; fiery
Tenderness	Tender; affectionate; in love; mellowed
Nostalgia	Nostalgic; dreamy; sentimental; melancholic
Peacefulness	Serene; calm; soothed; relaxed
Joyful activation	Joyful; amused; animated; bouncy
Sadness	Sad; sorrowful
Tension	Tense; agitated; nervous; irritated

Source: Zentner et al. (2008)

Table 2 Cultural impacts and their respective items

Benefits		Costs	
Impact	Items	Impact	Items
Information about culture	Exposure to a variety of cultural experiences through community festivals	Disinformation about culture	Negative community image
	Shared experiences		
Preservation of cultural traditions	Revitalization of traditions	Loss of cultural traditions	Loss of language
	Preservation of traditions		Loss of heritage
			Alteration of traditions
Construction of cultural identity	Validation of community groups	Loss of cultural identity	Cultural profanation
	Impact on regional cultural identity		Loss of cultural amenities
	Building of community pride		
	Opportunity to develop new cultural skills and talents		
	Celebration of community		
	Impact on local community character		
	Increased local interest in regional culture and history		
Integration through cultural effects	Community pride and integration	Creation of ghettos as a result of cultural effects	Cultural marginalization
	Cultural integration		Community alienation
Social cohesion through culture	Opportunity for intercultural contact	Social exclusion through culture	Cultural offence
	Community groups working together to achieve common goals through festivals		Loss of community pride and division
	Variety of cultural experiences		Social dislocation
			Potential for intercultural misunderstanding

Source: Colombo (2016)

18 interviews conducted with festivalgoers who had attended these festivals in prior years. The research subjects were from the same regions as where the two festivals were held, were between 20 and 67 years old, equally distributed in terms of gender and had attended a number of different festivals during the past year.

These definitions and the manifestations of the corresponding cultural impacts were explained to the interviewees, who were asked to select which ones applied and elaborate on their perceptions of them during the music festivals. Then, deductive content analysis allowed us to structure the codes in accordance with the definitions of the cultural impacts on cultural cohesion and cultural integration that are most strongly related to the promotion of inclusivity.

3.3 Visual Ethnography

Both festivals were also described and experienced by the researchers through visual ethnography in order to learn more about the main elements comprising these experiences and equip the researchers with the descriptive capability to compare them. The visual ethnography method is a variation on the traditional way of conducting participant observation, using the visual descriptions of pictures compiled or taken by the researcher (Pink, 2001). In our cases, the data-gathering process focused on identifying attendees' emotions, reactions and behaviours, with a view to gaining deeper insight into specific patterns related to social cohesion, social integration and the promotion of peacefulness in music festival settings, not only based on a detailed description of the attendees' experiences during the festivals but also by observing the pictures taken at the event that were later compiled.

3.4 Data Analysis

Thanks to this threefold analysis, we were able to understand the music festival experience in terms of social sustainability promotion through specific items. On the one hand, the results of the surveys were processed and data was standardized in order to facilitate interpretation and, on the other, we applied deductive content analysis to the interviews and visual ethnography data. These data were coded and clustered into main themes related to peacefulness and inclusivity. We used our definitions of the cultural impacts relating to social cohesion and social integration as guide categories for the content analysis carried out on the 18 interviews. This deductive process allowed us to identify the most relevant cultural impacts and gave us the ability to discern nuances in the experiences from the festivalgoers' point of view. Interviewees have been given aliases in order to keep their identities confidential. As the interviews were held in Spanish and Catalan, the quotes have been translated into English by the authors.

4 Results

We have structured our results into two sections based on the analysis of the data from the three methodologies. First, we present the outcome of the data and interpretation related to the promotion of a sense of peacefulness. Second, we provide our interpretation of the concepts related to inclusivity in each festival context.

4.1 Peacefulness and Tension: Specific Emotions Depending on Music Festival Type

The survey results in both cases show that the two festival experiences were perceived with positive emotions. As shown in Fig. 1, having applied a Likert scale (from 1 to 5, where 1 is the least intense and 5 is the most intense), the results indicate higher scores for the positive emotions at both festivals. The most intense emotions are joy (4.34 points), wonder (3.87) and power (3.72), with variations depending on the type of festival, and the least intense are sadness (1.42) and tension (1.65).

By comparing the values for this set of emotions, we are able to gain insight into the perception-related differences between the two festivals. Specifically, the perception of tension was higher at the BBK Live festival (by 0.79 points), whereas peacefulness was more prominent for Quincena Musical (by 0.84 points).

Although statistical caution should be exercised when analysing these results, given the nature of the data, they can give a general illustration. For instance, a trend can be identified in the prominence of emotions such as peacefulness and tension, with attendees at the classical music festival (Quincena Musical) perceiving more peacefulness than those at the mainstream multi-genre festival (BBK Live). Contrarily, tension received higher scores from the BBK Live attendees (2.44) than from those attending Quincena Musical (1.65). Therefore, we can state with a certain level of confidence that the Quincena Musical attendees have a more peaceful (rather than tense) experience, and that promoting this sense of peacefulness may help to achieve greater social sustainability.

From the qualitative data collected based on the interviews and the visual ethnography, some of the results provide a detailed insight into these differences.

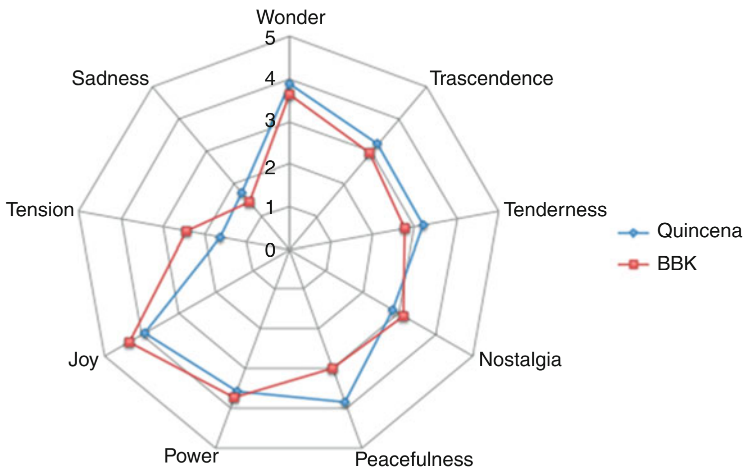

Fig. 1 Mean of each emotion perceived by the attendees at the two festivals. Source: Authors' own work

The description of some experiences at BBK Live described in the visual ethnography confirmed the presence of drugs and alcohol as a predominant characteristic of the attendees' activities. This was described in some field notes:

> In a corner, I see some Spaniards preparing several lines of cocaine. They are about 50 years old, three men and two women. They are passing the cardboard between them to snort.

On occasion, this atmosphere became tenser due to a sense of overcrowding in several specific venue areas:

> The atmosphere is amazing. The bathroom is not so clean anymore and there is a continuous flow of people coming and going. And then, the concert by Alt-j has just finished. After each concert the bathrooms are usually overflowing with people.

This tense atmosphere has no point of comparison with Quincena, where tension was mainly the result of musicians' poor performances, the feeling that some were showing off or people coughing. In general, attention was focused on the musical performance, which became clear on multiple occasions when silence befell the audience:

> The first bars of the music begin and there's a very special silence. The audience's concentration is impressive.

Additionally, BBK Live produced negatively-tinged experiences that did not help to foster a sense of integration in the community or promote a peaceful atmosphere. There were insistent complaints among all the interviewees over the high prices of food and beverages at the festival, the dirtiness of the communal areas and the prohibition on bringing food and beverage in from outside. An example of this kind of observation is found in the following statement made by Roger, a 31-year-old video designer, who was annoyed with certain uneasy situations at the festival:

> More often than not, because of the atmosphere, people talk and do cocaine or snort something. It creates a dark atmosphere around you. All too often, it's an unpleasant atmosphere. You're not looking for that. You're hoping to see someone jumping about and someone else a little tipsy, and these things are totally different to that. And when you're somewhere where there are people who aren't on the same level, it's hard to see the point.

The tense atmosphere caused by drug use and restrictions on the consumption of outside goods was only perceived by the attendees at the mainstream multi-genre festivals. This perception is in line with Mackuľak et al. (2019), who revealed a high level of drug use at this type of festival, thus confirming the potentially unhealthy and unsustainable atmosphere at this kind of event. Moreover, this major difference in the general emotions felt was confirmed by the results of the surveys, which showed more tension at BBK Live and more peacefulness at Quincena Musical.

4.2 Inclusivity: Cultural Impacts on Social Cohesion and Social Integration by Festival Type

For both groups of attendees, the festival experience seemed to spark a sense of friendship or acquaintance-building. With respect to the Quincena interviewees, this observation is borne out by different statements that can be exemplified by a statement by Aura, a 66-year-old retired nurse, who expressed forging ties with other festivalgoers due to her frequent encounters with them at the festival over the years:

> Well, you run into someone you haven't seen in a while and, well, you see them again. Then there are others that you look for because you know that you'll only see them on those days.

However, the BBK Live interviewees perceived this sense of belonging as fleeting and short-lived. For them, groups of friends or previously existing communities prevail over any cohesion or inclusion that participating in the festival may generate. This was touched on by Jay, a 25-year-old master's degree student, in a quote that reflects this sense of weak community:

> I don't see it as a strong community... you're part of a group but you don't pretend to be part of the festival group. It's not that you don't pretend, but that you don't care. I think that festivals see many types of groups of people. You belong to one, and it's true that other people can try to join another group, but come on, that's not the case at a music festival like BBK.

In contrast, the bonding experience felt by the Quincena interviewees seemed to be more peaceful and more serene. Although the bonds only last as long as the festival, most of the interviewees said that their friendships were long term and intertwined with the festival. This was expressed by Guillaum, a 66-year-old computer engineer with a lifetime of experiences at music festivals:

> We talk a lot more, we make a plan to meet up, and then when we finish the concert, we usually get together to have dinner and chitchat. We get together only in these times. The rest of the year we don't have as much of a relationship but at that time this type of relationship is really encouraged.

In the same vein, attending the festival may be part of a summer tradition for families, a chance for members to rekindle their bonds. Indeed, the festival is an opportunity to get together, talk and generally feel more united. For instance, Pénelope, a 65-year-old nurse explained:

> I attended the festival because I'm very close to my mother. She has always liked classical music. She played the piano before she got married, and I think that's why she sent all her children to the conservatory. She's to thank for my fondness for music. Yes, I think that this would be a social or cohesion effect of going with my mother.

All of these statements highlight the fact that festival type is a determinant of the sense of cohesion or inclusion felt by attendees. The BBK Live experience forges weaker bonds between festivalgoers than that of Quincena. Consequently, this type of festival may provide a less sustainable experience for festivalgoers, while our results suggest that Quincena offers a long-term, integrating and more peaceful experience for its attendees.

5 Discussion

The experiences that have been summarized and compared here show just how much sway festival type has on the perception of peacefulness and inclusivity. Our results seem to indicate that the outdoor mainstream multi-genre music festival generates more tension among its attendees than its indoor, classical music counterpart, which offered a more peaceful and balanced atmosphere. However, in both cases a sense of exclusion or outright exclusivity was perceived due to, for example, the high price of tickets and goods.

Alternative music festivals and mainstream music festivals should be questioned and planned with this sense of social sustainability in mind. As key elements of tourism planning, these events seem to generate dubious results when it comes to promoting inclusivity and peacefulness. As Wilks (2011) showed, the ability for these events to profoundly bridge the gap between communities and tourist visitors is weak in contrast to that of community festivals (Duffy & Mair, 2018). However, tourist visitors are an important source for the economic survival of these planned events. As Richards (2019) argued, the excessive commodification of culture and overplanning in tourism is tearing apart the integration of communities and undermining efforts to promote a rooted culture. Classical music festivals, for example, were traditionally related to a sense of cultural conservation and fell under the umbrella of generous public subsidies. However, recent public spending cuts coupled with the endemic problem of not attracting young audiences have forced them to try to gain income from tourists. This shift has led to the offering of mainstream programming (Marín, 2018) to attract tourist visitors and raise prices in order to be economically viable. It may, therefore, become crucial for the public and private planners of both types of music festival to implement specific policies and strategies regarding social sustainability along with new strategies to attract audiences.

6 Conclusions

Our analysis contributes to the understanding of music festivals as opportunities for the promotion of several intangible cultural impacts and emotions. The mixed-methodology approach, combined with cultural and emotional analysis models, enriched the researchers' perspective on the possible intangible outcomes of the music festival experience. As discussed, these intangible aspects are vital in fostering a sense of social sustainability based on the promotion of peacefulness and inclusivity.

Hence, the feelings described in the two different experiences can be used to determine whether an environment is perceived as peaceful or tense, which may have a long-term effect on participants' social behaviour. Although this conclusion requires further substantiation through longitudinal studies, the difference in emotions is backed by the findings of the visual ethnography and interviews we conducted, thus bearing out the more peaceful and positive atmosphere present at the classical music festival than at its mainstream multi-genre counterpart. On the whole, music festivals can help to build a socially sustainable environment when the festival type fosters positive emotions and provides a peaceful atmosphere where participants can enjoy healthy behaviour.

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Sustainable Tourism and Community Well-Being: A Situation Analysis Using Participative Action Research

Burcin Kalabay Hatipoglu, Bengi Ertuna, and Fatma Cam Denizci

1 Introduction

Poverty continues to be a challenging problem for rural communities in developing parts of the world, and if we genuinely want to move toward the achievement of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) outlined in the United Nation's Agenda 2030 and overcome inequalities, we need to steer our efforts toward rural areas (IFAD, 2018). Tourism is often seen as a panacea to economic and social development in rural areas (Lee & Jan, 2019). It can lead to positive multiplier effects because of its cross-sectoral nature and extended supplier network (United Nations, 2019). More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic restricted people in urban settings for extended periods and augmented their interest in traveling to open spaces and nature (Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020). As rural areas and community-based initiatives have become so central, no time is better than now for redesigning and restructuring these spaces.

Sustainable tourism and community-based tourism (CBT) share many common attributes, one of which concerns *community well-being* (Dangi & Jamal, 2016). Sustainable tourism aims to contribute to the well-being of the residents by respecting the "socio-cultural authenticity of host communities and conserve built and living cultural heritage and traditional values" (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005, pp. 11–12). In doing so, sustainable tourism is assumed to improve the *community's well-being* today and in the future (Dwyer, 2020).

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CBT involves a collective action of community members for rural tourism development (Hwang & Stewart, 2017) and implies their participation in all development and implementation processes (Pasanchay & Schott, 2021). Local control, benefits accruing to the broader community, and visitors learning about the culture and local environment are some of the common elements of these small-scale tourism initiatives (Dangi & Jamal, 2016). The collaboration processes, power distribution among members, and participation are vital elements for a successful CBT project (Okazaki, 2008). CBT can potentially develop the community's respect for culture, maintain biodiversity and develop the community's overall quality of life (Lee & Jan, 2019).

It is not straightforward how to successfully manage participative initiatives (Gohori & vander Merwe, 2021; Zielinski et al., 2020). Consequently, a significant concern is how the community should plan, implement, and measure tourism development so that they can: (1) choose the suitable tourism type(s) for their destination, (2) communicate their needs and capabilities with the funding agencies, (3) interact effectively with multiple stakeholders, (4) monitor short-term outcomes and long-term impacts, and (5) inform policy.

Based on the above concerns, in this chapter, we develop and apply data collection tools for performing a situation analysis (needs and capacity) during tourism planning. After reviewing the literature (Emery & Flora, 2006; Hatipoglu et al., 2020; Kline et al., 2019; Pasanchay & Schott, 2021; Stone & Nyaupane, 2018), we use the community capitals framework (CCF) as a theoretical underpinning for developing the situation analysis. The research tools are designed and applied using participatory research methods in a small forest community in Istanbul, Turkey. The research approach's underlying principle was to empowering the community members and the leaders to in engage in a continuous re-creation and transformation process with others for a sustainable future (Liburd et al., 2020).

CBT has been researched for various groups (e.g., fishing or aboriginal communities), localities (e.g., small islands and villages), and settings (e.g., developing countries) (Kline et al., 2019; Lee & Jan, 2019; Zielinski et al., 2020). Our research contributes to the CBT literature by adding insights from diverse groups in a community (i.e., A Syrian refugee group working together with the locals in a tourism project) in devising a methodology for managing development initiatives and achieving community empowerment.

2 Background to the Study

2.1 Community Participation in Tourism

While there is increasing research on the benefits of community engagement in tourism development (e.g., Dangi & Jamal, 2016; Zielinski et al., 2020), there is no agreement on how best the community can participate in the processes (Gohori & vander Merwe, 2021). Communities are complex social systems with members holding diverse interests and the community having interactions with multiple stakeholders (Suarez-Balcazar et al., 2005). Thus, the failure of traditional community engagement methods that have been tried so far (Gohori & vander Merwe, 2021; Zielinski et al., 2020) confirms these complexities and explains why researchers search for novel methods.

For a tourism initiative to provide maximum benefits to the community Su et al. (2016) recommend combining a top-down and bottom-up approach. Communities often lack the human capital (e.g., financial management) and nature capital (e.g., protected areas and biodiversity conservation) knowledge necessary for tourism development (Islam et al., 2018; Stone & Nyaupane, 2018). Su et al. (2016) suggest that the government fosters the community involvement through policy development and financial and technical support. Furthermore, the authors recommend that the community better understand the visitors' needs and preferences by engaging with them.

Building multistakeholder partnerships between the government, academia, and the community is recurrently advised in the literature for overcoming barriers and strengthening the CBT initiatives (Waligo et al., 2013). When partnerships are established between communities and academia, researchers can bring their much-needed knowledge and expertise into tourism planning. A researcher will play the multiple roles of a coach, partner, and technical support, and the community leaders act as the experts of local knowledge in such partnerships (Suarez-Balcazar et al., 2005).

Adaptive co-management (Islam et al., 2018) and co-design (Liburd et al., 2020) are more recent approaches to community participation in tourism development. Adaptive co-management brings together the partners for the joint management of the commons (e.g., government and the community) and encourages them to learn by doing (Islam et al., 2018). The approach supports the distribution of power and knowledge in creating a shared vision for the community. The co-design processes support spontaneity and expect the outcomes to rise from the partners' interactions (Liburd et al., 2020). They empower the community and leaders for continuous re-creation and transformation of the CBT initiatives aligned with the changing needs of the actors.

As part of the sustainable tourism planning process, the community livelihoods must be understood (Pasanchay & Schott, 2021), and their needs should be considered by the project partners (Sharma et al., 2000). As such, data should be collected from the community members and the multiple stakeholders of the CBT and evaluated.

The community needs assessment should consider the community's capacities, strengths, and resources (Sharpe et al., 2000). Various tools have been recommended for data collection for a community assessment. Conducting walking tours of communities, holding focus groups with members, key informant interviews, asset maps, inventories, visioning and creative assessments (ETIS, 2020; Sharpe et al., 2000; Waligo et al., 2013), surveys (Griffin et al., 2011), livelihood assessments (Sseguya et al., 2009), and vignettes (Liburd et al., 2020) are some of these methods for data collection.

2.2 Community Capitals Framework

The sustainable livelihoods framework explains the activities a community takes on to continue their everyday lives and describes the assets and capacities needed to support the individual and household livelihoods (Pasanchay & Schott, 2021; Sseguya et al., 2009). A holistic and systems approach to sustainability and well-being considers multiple forms of capital residing in a community and balance individual and community goals (Moscardo et al., 2017). Hence, the sustainable livelihoods framework identifies social, natural, physical, human, and financial capitals as the community livelihood resources.

Building on the livelihoods approach, the community capitals framework (CCF) defines capital as "a resource that can be used, invested or exchanged to create new resources" (Flora et al., 2004, p. 1). The framework views each community as possessing a unique mix of resources and posits that communities can improve their well-being by developing these resources (Emery & Flora, 2006). CCF adds political and cultural capitals to the five capitals of the previous framework.

Scholars advocate that CCF is a sound theoretical base for examining the links between tourism and community well-being (e.g., Stone & Nyaupane, 2018). Case examples from various locations demonstrate how the tourism projects foster community capitals, and the interactions and synergy among the capitals can lead to expansions in capitals. Duffy et al. (2017) observed how introducing an agroecotourism project in Cuba nurtured natural, human, and social capitals in the destination community. Moscardo et al. (2017) discussed the ways tourism projects harness social capital and community well-being from the point of view of regional tourism officers. Stone and Nyaupane (2018) showed the flows among the community capitals and changes in the stocks during the management of a wildlife tourism project. Kline et al. (2019) found that investments in built capital fostered expansion in human, cultural, and political capitals in the villages studied. Hatipoglu et al. (2020) demonstrated the multidirectional compounding effects of capitals in small-sized community projects in Turkey. The authors stated that progress is not about which capital(s) the community decides to invest in. A mix of resources can be combined, as long as the tourism project is designed to lead to compounding capital effects and hence lead to enhanced living standards and well-being.

3 Methodology

We employ a participatory action research approach (PAR), and we develop the research tools in partnership between academia and practice (Caniglia et al., 2021). Researchers that utilize PAR methodology accept that there could be multiple interpretations of the phenomenon being studied. When they collaborate with practitioners, they can work together to change it for the better (Kindon et al., 2007). The data gathered during PAR research can help understand the complexity of applying for community development programs and explain the behaviors of the examined actors (Bertella, 2019). When co-design principles are applied, the experts "design *with* rather than developing for" the community (Liburd et al., 2020, p. 15).

In this chapter, we develop an instrument for conducting a situation analysis to enable planners to evaluate the community capacity for a CBT project. We follow the PAR guidelines of Kindon et al. (2007) and co-design elements of Liburd et al. (2020). We accept that the level of participation by the researchers will vary in this type of design, and it is not about the division of tasks but more on acting, reflecting, and co-designing together for evaluating the results. As part of the PAR process, we targeted the empowerment of the community members and leaders for taking action (Papineau & Kiely, 1996). Therefore, full participation of the community leaders in every phase of the research and handing in power, knowledge, and control over the resources were supported (Damian et al., 2021).

The data collection methodology relied on both secondary and primary data, and the research design involved the following steps: (1) stakeholder group identification, (2) development of research tools for stakeholder groups, (3) data collection through surveys and interviews, (4) assessment of the initial results, and (5) sharing and evaluation of the results with the stakeholders. The authors considered research integrity by maintaining reflexivity and staying connected to the field of research (Bertella, 2019). The research stakeholders were consulted during the stages of the action research, and the results were objectively evaluated and openly shared with the members as they emerged.

3.1 Study Setting

We develop and apply our methodology in a small forest community. Ovacık Village is 1 of the 57 villages of Şile, a large-sized district of Istanbul next to the Black Sea. Şile is 60 km away from the city center of Istanbul, and it is known for its vast forests (80% of the land), long sandy seashore, and beautiful sunset. Ovacık is a small forest village with 165 residents, and it is 10 km away from the Şile town center (Fig. 1). There is a mix of ethnicities in the village as in other parts of Şile (e.g., Bosniaks). The villagers forage for wood and food items (e.g., mushrooms and berries) from the nearby forest area; they own small land for farming around their houses and possess various husbandry animals (e.g., cow, buffalo, and poultry).

A community-based ecotourism project, "A Day in Ovacık Village," has been developed and applied since 2017 in the village (Fig. 2), with many positive outcomes for the rural community (Hatipoglu et al., 2020). Eleven women collaboratively manage the Ovacık Experience Workshops in the community center (see Ovacık, 2021, Fig. 3). They cook and serve food using local ingredients and run workshops on regional cooking, zero waste kitchen, and sustainable agriculture practices. The center has a capacity of hosting 40 people for each activity, it operates through prior booking, and families, schools, and special interest groups are the frequent visitors. Besides its economic and social effects on the community, the

Fig. 1 Ovacık Village

Fig. 2 The future lies in tourism project: A Day in Ovacık Village

Fig. 3 Ovacık experience workshops

project also had some beyond destination sustainability impacts (see Hatipoglu et al., 2020).

The first two authors were involved in different capacities in the "A Day in Ovacık Village" project, and the third author is the community leader of the project (Fig. 2). During the evaluation meetings of the A Day in Ovacık Village project, the first and the third authors have discussed extending the sustainability impacts of the project to other villages of Şile and beyond the destination. Some short-term alternatives were discussed supporting other villages to develop their own CBT projects or inviting women from other villages to work together in the Ovacık community center. In 2019, Ovacık women participated in a project titled "Sharing Recipes and Stories" and joined workshops with women from other villages (Cooking up Dialogue, 2021). The dialogue building project brought together women from different ethnical backgrounds and encouraged them to work together on local problems and overcome polarization (Fig. 4).

In 2020, the community encountered a critical issue that required them to utilize a common forest area. The land was rented from the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization by the local municipality in the past, and the villagers were given the right to use it. However, now the villagers were presented with a choice. They were to raise money, pay the rent, and continue using the land or let it go and risk an outsider to develop the land. After consultations among the community members, they considered developing a complementary agrotourism project and ecological accommodation facilities on the land.

Fig. 4 Cooking up Dialogue project

For this future project, Ovacık village women aspired to become more inclusive and collaborate with a nearby village's Syrian refugee women population (Ahmetli Village). Since the Syrian civil war outbreak in 2011, Turkey has become the world's top refugee-hosting country (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2018). There are 3.8 million registered Syrian refugees in the country, of which 525 thousand have settled in Istanbul (Refugee Association, 2021).

4 The Development and Application of the Situation Analysis Research Tools

The first step of the situation analysis started with a participative process of stakeholder identification. Stakeholders can both support and hinder the success of a CBT project. For example, governmental agencies can provide access to critical resources, certification, and permits for construction; special interest groups can gather public support and generate alternative solutions; and educational institutions can offer knowledge and technical support. Furthermore, the community can form alliances with other villages and tourism establishments to develop the destination. On the other hand, disagreements on resource and benefits sharing, power relations, and external interventions can create conflict among the stakeholders (Curcija et al., 2019). A tourism project's stakeholders can be listed as the visitors, tourism businesses, community members, government agencies, special interest groups and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and educational institutions (Waligo

Table 1 Stakeholder group identification for Ovacık Village

Stakeholder groups	Examples
Community	Ovacık and Ahmetli Village community members, including the Syrian refugees
Government agencies	Municipality, Directorate of Provincial Agriculture, District Governor, Ahmetli and Ovacık Village Mukhtars
Special interest groups & NGOs	Sile Tourism Association, Ovacık Women's Seed Association, and Slow Food Sile Palamut Convivium
Tourism businesses	Bosniak food facilities and a luxury bungalow facility (Yenikoy Village); A food outlet (Imrendere), Shop owners in downtown Sile
Educational institutions	Public Education Center and Tourism Vocational High School
Visitors	Visitor groups to the A Day in Ovacık Project and Sile Slow Food Earth Market

Source: Author's own

et al., 2013). In light of this classification and using the local knowledge of the third author, a list of stakeholders was constructed for the situation analysis (Table 1).

The second step of the situation analysis was the development of the research tools. Literature suggested *a situation analysis* to combine information about destination performance, community livelihoods, needs, assets, institutions, and organizations (Griffin et al., 2011; Sseguya et al., 2009). Thus, rather than only uncovering the gaps in the destination, we aimed at generating a guideline that will enable partners to systematically collect and evaluate data about the changing resources and strengths of the community during a project's life cycle. Utilizing prior literature (Duffy et al., 2017; Hatipoglu et al., 2020; Pasanchay & Schott, 2021), we developed a guideline based on the seven community capitals and related them to their role in agrotourism (Table 2). We matched the capital types with the stakeholders relying on our understanding of their knowledge and interests.

In the third step of the situation analysis, we formed surveys and interview guidelines using our guideline from Table 2.

The survey targeted the community members of the two sample villages and was administered online through a mobile app. It had 29 questions, of which 22 were closed-ended, and used a Likert scale of three points (see sample questions in Table 2). The original survey, which was in Turkish, was translated to Syrian Arabic by a native speaker and pilot tested with the locals. The interview guideline and the accompanying open-ended questions aimed for the third author to conduct face-to-face interviews with multiple stakeholders and key informants of the project. The COVID-19 pandemic played a significant role in how the researchers followed the data collection; thus, most interviews were online. Adding to the co-design approach used in this research, the third author picked and altered some of the questions according to whom she interviewed. We also asked for feedback from the key informants regarding our questions and accepted their insights.

As we were interested in developing the situation analysis through an iterative process between the research team, the stakeholders, and the respondents, the process of pilot testing, data collection, reflections, and further data collection

Table 2 Situation analysis guideline for Ovacik Village: capacities that the village has as a group and as individuals

Capital	Type	Role in support for agri-tourism	Stakeholder	Sample questions
Human Capital Skills, knowledge, self-esteem, health, and efficacy	Availability and health	Members that will work in the tourism business	Community	I am available to work certain days of the week in the community tourism business.
	Food skills	Members with food skills to work in the community kitchen	Community	I feel confident cooking food in the community kitchen for the visitors. I feel confident servicing food to the visitors in the community kitchen.
	Handicraft skills	Members with various handicraft skills to work in the community center	Community	I feel confident in demonstrating and teaching a handicraft (e.g., Sile cloth making or embroidery) to the visitors.
	Accommodation service skills	Members with housekeeping skills to service the facilities	Community	I feel confident cleaning and servicing bungalows.
	Language skills	Ability to speak Turkish or a foreign language to communicate with the visitors	Syrian refugees Local Community	I feel confident using the Turkish language. I know a language other than Turkish/or Syrian
	Farming and sustainable agriculture skills	Members with farming skills to supply produce and demonstrate agricultural activities	Community	I feel confident demonstrating farming practices to the visitors. I feel confident demonstrating sustainability practices (e.g., wasteless kitchen, bokashi, and worm farming) to the visitors.
Social Capital Leadership, groups, networks, trust, reciprocity	Individuals internal	Friends and neighbors that support each other in daily livelihood activities as well as sharing of food ingredients	Community	I can rely on my family members to help me with my farming and food production activities. I can rely on my friends and neighbors to help me with my

				farming and food production activities.
	Community external	Government staff who provide support and advice for operational issues	Community leaders	Do you know the governmental staff that will provide support and advice to you on operational matters for tourism development?
	Community external	Experts who provide support and advice for operational issues	Community leaders	Do you know experts who will advice to you on operational matters for tourism development?
	Community external	Satisfied visitors providing word-of-mouth and social media marketing	Community leaders	Does the village have a presence in the media? How are you promoting the village in on social media?
Political Capital Inclusion, voice, power, citizenship	Individuals external	Members that can ask for support from the administrators	Community	I am confident that I can voice my needs and opinions to the local administrators.
	Community external	Administration taking into consideration the community's opinions on tourism development	Community leaders and NGOs	Do you think the local administrators will ask you to participate in decision-making for tourism planning in your area?
Financial Capital Monetary resources for investment, income, and financial access (for self and family members)	Financial investment	Individual funding by residents for expanding business	Community	I have the capital to invest in my farmland or food business.
	Financial support	Funding by government and NGOs for construction of infrastructure and buildings	Community leaders and Government	Do you receive funding from external resources to construct infrastructure and buildings?
Cultural Capital Traditions, language, rituals, dresses, artefacts, and food preparation	Rituals and events	Demonstration of local traditions to the visitors	Community and Educational institutions	In our village we have unique traditions (e.g., rituals, storytelling) that will be of interest to the visitors.
	Handicraft and traditional food	Demonstration of local handicrafts & food preparation	Community and Educational institutions	

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Capital	Type	Role in support for agri-tourism	Stakeholder	Sample questions
				In our village we continue with the traditional ways of producing artifacts or food.
		Attracting visitors for taking part in various cultural experiences	Community leaders, Educational institutions NGOs, Visitors	Does the village possess unique cultural traditions and events that the visitors could observe and participate in?
Natural Capital Natural resources, beauty, and geography	Farming and husbandry activity	Attracting visitors for taking part in sustainable farming	Community	Do you own farmland in your village? Are you involved in husbandry activity?
	Forests and rural scenescapes	Attracting visitors for the enjoyment of scenery and trekking	Community leaders, Government, Visitors	Are there picnic areas, forest areas, or rivers near the village? Are the forest and scenery accessible for the visitors?
Built Capital Infrastructure, utilities, transportation, telecommunications, community buildings	Tourism infrastructure, roads	All-year access to the village	Community leaders, Visitors	Is the village accessible all-year round?
	Tourism infrastructure, facilities	To use for re-creation and teaching activities	Community leaders, Government	Are there buildings and common community areas available for the use of tourism?
	Accommodation services	Alternative accommodation places near the village	Tourism businesses	Are there alternative accommodation facilities for the visitors?
	Food facilities	Alternative food outlets near the village	Tourism businesses	Are there alternative food facilities for the visitors?

Source: Authors

continued over an extended period (2021 February-ongoing). We find that the local people in Ovacık village could fill out the survey online quickly, and when technical assistance was needed, they consulted their children. As a result, our pilot study with the local community included 15 respondents, of which 12 were women, with an age range of 19 to 61. On the other hand, it was much more challenging to gain access to the Syrian refugees, which further requires the team to work one by one with each respondent and a key informant. Of the Syrian people we could reach, they were interested to learn about work opportunities and specifics (e.g., a woman-only establishment) and whether they could work as a family.

Assessment of the initial results pointed to the strengths and weaknesses of the Ovacık community for developing an agrotourism project. Of the 15 local people who filled out the survey, 8 women worked in the A Day in Ovacık Village project, and they also wanted to extend their work arrangements to include the new CBT project. These women trusted themselves in cooking and serving food, demonstrating sustainable agriculture practices, and believed their family members and neighbors would support them in this new position. They considered the village possessed unique cultural traditions and events that the visitors could observe and participate in. Besides their strengths in human, cultural, and social capital stocks, the villagers were also strong in built capital as they had land and a community center to support these activities. On the other hand, they lacked financial resources to initiate or invest in a new CBT project.

We also wanted to understand the community's openness to work with other villages, and more specifically, with people from other nationalities. While the Syrians had already moved away from their homeland, they were open to working with others outside their village and people from other nationalities. On the other hand, one-third of the locals had concerns about working with people from other nationalities. These initial results and a deficit in the ability to speak foreign languages pointed to specific human and cultural capital areas that needed to be addressed during the planning of the CBT project. Furthermore, the initial stakeholder interviews highlighted the village's strengths in natural capital and pointed to the gaps in human, social, and built capitals.

> Besides its natural beauty, the existence of buffalos and local charcoal-making set the village apart from the others. However, the villagers need to overcome internal conflicts and commit to tourism if they want to develop their village.
>
> Sile Tourism Association

> Ovacık Village, like some other surrounding villages, has agricultural land and typical villages houses. The lack of accommodation facilities, skilled labor, and infrastructure (e.g., carpark and health facilities) are some critical issues.
>
> Public Education Center Manager

> Ovacık Village is a strong candidate for agrotourism development, as it is within a forestry area and not far from the Sile downtown center. However, the villagers need to improve themselves in tourist guidance, accommodation services and languages.
>
> Tourism Vocational High School Vice Headmaster

As these results continue to come together, the team progresses with their evaluations and reflections, and plans to share the results with the broader community to finalize the situation analysis.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

The situation analysis development efforts introduced in this chapter entail the phases of; stakeholder identification, a Situation Analysis Guideline development, data collection strategies for each stakeholder group under COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, and the evaluation and reflection of the results with the stakeholders. From our perspective, a thriving community agrotourism project should maintain and complement the community's livelihoods and contribute to the broader community well-being. The methodology we apply in this chapter before starting a CBT project promises to enable linking the project planning and implementation with capitals of the society and measuring and monitoring the impact, attuned with the SDGs. For short-and-long-term effects, we suggested that the planners evaluate community capacities and gaps and take responsibility for managing and developing the resources to contribute to sustainable development.

This chapter presented a case example in which the community faced a real-world development problem. The livelihood of many individuals and communities living within forest areas depends on the continuance of these forests. Climate change mitigation and biodiversity conservation efforts would be meaningless without the inclusion of rural communities (Erbaugh et al., 2020). In the case presented here, a rural community in Istanbul is searching for alternative ways of saving forest land from unwanted development and is considering implementing an agrotourism project to rent the forest area from the government. Communities need to maintain control over the community goods and resources and co-jointly determine development initiatives for long-term sustained effects (Su et al., 2016). Thus, potentially, the new community-based agrotourism project will contribute to poverty alleviation (SDG 1), conserve life on land (SDG 15), address gender equality (SDG 5), and sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11). Tourism can lead communities to collaborate toward sustainable development goals (SDGs) while bringing numerous stakeholders together, such as businesses, governments, civil society organizations, and other communities (Dwyer, 2020; UNWTO, 2018). By bringing local and Syrian communities together, the proposed agrotourism project can contribute to peacebuilding through collaboration (SDG 17).

Tourism can play a critical role in leading rural communities to become agents for change, develop their collective capacities, and transform into a sustainable future (Caniglia et al., 2021). COVID-19 pandemic has presented us with an unexpected opportunity for tourism development in rural areas. However, regional coordination, infrastructure development, and promotion are necessary for benefiting from this rising interest (Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020). Our Situation Analysis Guideline proves to be helpful here to bring forward those emerging issues raising concern in CBT development. The preliminary results highlight the community's dependency for external funding in initiating the project. The community can reflect on and use the findings of our study to seek funds from external agencies.

Stakeholders of the CBT agree on the absence of infrastructure in the forest villages of Şile. Ovacık village, which has high visibility due to its previous tourism project, should capitalize on its strong political capital and continue to receive support from the local government for further infrastructure development. Many CBT initiatives in natural areas fail because of organizational, structural, and cultural issues (Gohori & vander Merwe, 2021; Zielinski et al., 2020). In our case, the cultural integration of the two nationalities poses a challenge for the community leaders. Thus, we recommend the planners seek help from those NGOs experienced in developing inclusivity and openness. The skills gaps are different in two groups based on their previous tourism experience, which will require human capital development strategies.

Working through our Situation Analysis Guideline, we matched the capital types with the stakeholders of the case CBT. We understand that the salience of each stakeholder group will change concerning the context and the project specifics (Damian et al., 2021). Accordingly, we suggest other destinations to consider these differences when utilizing our guidelines. This participative action research aimed to empower the community to engage in a continuous transformation process with others for a sustainable future (Liburd et al., 2020). Thus, the third author, part of the local community, was involved in all stages of this research. She also worked together on concept building with the key actors of the two communities.

As with every research, our chapter has limitations, one of which was following field research during the COVID-19 pandemic. We planned yet could not apply common future building activities, asset mapping, or focus groups with the community members. Our research bridges the CBT and CCF and contributes by developing a methodology for managing participatory development initiatives to achieve community empowerment. This methodology allows systematically situating the development initiatives on local knowledge, existing social relationships, and power dynamics within the complex landscape of CBT. An empirical setting provides insights from diverse groups (i.e., Syrian refugee group working with locals) in the community for situation analysis. Further research is needed to understand mechanisms facilitating reconciliation between interests of diverse groups for community driven development and well-being results.

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Local Sustainable Development and Cultural Tourist Routes

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1 Introduction

Nowadays, travel and tourism are an integral part of cultural and economic activity all over the world. Further, they present destinations with serious economic, social, and environmental impacts. The size of these consequences is affected by the intensity and extent to which tourism is asserted on the natural and socio-cultural environment of each destination (Zhuang et al., 2019; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006). Such effects have triggered a global awareness regarding sustainable development in the tourism field (Durovic & Lovrentjev, 2014). In 2018, during the European Year of Cultural Heritage, the European Union through the Sustainable Cultural Tourism Open Method of Coordination (SCT OMC) working group, aimed to explore the balance and relationship between cultural tourism and its sustainable aspects (European Union, SCT OMC, 2019). For instance, it was argued that promoting a (new) rural destination facilitates local culture and heritage to be preserved, and at the same time makes it more desirable and attractive to local residents. Cultural tourism is an evolutionary process, both in terms of consumption and of delimiting its social, economic, and environmental activities (European Parliament, 2020). The proper management of both tourism and cultural heritage is necessary in order to reap the benefits that will arise (UNWTO, 2017). This statement alone sets out the need to explore how cultural tourism should be presented and implemented as part of a sustainable tourism approach.

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The purpose of this chapter is to analyze sustainability as a key element for the creation, planning, and development of alternative tourism destination routes into cultural heritage tourism, by utilizing Archanes village as a case study. The proposed case study is a unique example of sustainable cultural route in Crete that promotes local cultural identity. The combination of Venetian and Arab cultural assets in the territory of Archanes composes a great cultural experience for visitors, as well as the locals. The creation of sustainable cultural routes promotes both local tourism development and international cultural tourism activities. Thus, the promotion of the proposed cultural route could result in further enhancing the touristic value of the attraction, while at the same time contribute towards the improvement of the local economy and the social cohesion of the region in an environmentally friendly way. Moreover, there are few recorded studies that combine a qualitative and quantitative methodology framework for the assessment and monitoring of cultural route sustainability. The implementation of the proposed methodology could reveal the natural and cultural assets as the main sources of wealth for the region. Furthermore, according to the European Union, the promotion of sustainable cultural routes will help with the dissemination of local and regional values as thematic cultural routes connect adjacent rural tourism destinations that otherwise would not have been connected under normal circumstances.

2 Literature Review

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) defined sustainable tourism as "tourism that makes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities" (World Tourism Organization, 2005: 25; WCED, 1987). In 2007, the Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG) that was created by the European Commission, published a report with the European Tourism Indicators System (ETIS) for Sustainable Management at destination level. Through this report, the TSG tried to promote tourism destinations' plans, as well as measurement and monitoring of their sustainability performance (European Commission, 2007).

Sustainable tourism also includes the aspect of cultural integrity through strong interaction between culture and sustainable tourism aspects. According to Durovic and Lovrentjev (2014: 181), "cultural and heritage assets are delicate in context of socio-cultural attitude of local community and thus consent between tourism planners/managers and the local community must be carefully obtained." Based on the above statement, the European Union and the Council of Europe proposed the following definition for sustainable cultural tourism: "Sustainable cultural tourism is the integrated management of cultural heritage and tourism activities in conjunction with the local community creating social, environmental and economic benefits for all stakeholders, to achieve tangible and intangible cultural heritage conservation and sustainable tourism development" (EU/Council of Europe, 2017: 1). Therefore,

Table 1 Examples of existing tourism routes

Tourism route	Country	Type of the route	Research contribution
Trail of Roman Emperors (Bozik & Tomic, 2016)	Serbia	Cultural heritage route	Multi-perspective cultural evaluation model of cultural corridors for sustainable tourism development. Assistant tool for the development of cultural routes.
Poland Industrial Monuments Route (Szromek et al., 2021)	Poland	Cultural heritage route	Presentation of three main types of industrial monument route's business transformation. Application for presenting sustainability to post-industrial heritage monuments.
Cultural Routes in Chios Island (Oikonomopoulou et al., 2017)	Greece	Cultural and natural routes	Integrated methodological approach for protection and promotion of cultural and natural aspects of Chios cultural routes.
Comparison of Annapurna Base Camp Trek/Himalayans Nepal, Lycian Way/Turkey and Carian Way/Turkey (Sabir, 2019)	Nepal/ Turkey	Cultural routes	Productive comparison of the three cultural routes in order to create a multidisciplinary perspective in cultural route's planning development through.
Calabro—Lucane Railways (Campolo et al., 2016)	Italy	Cultural route	Comparative and innovation framework for the enhancement and promotion of "eco-museum," focused on the place identification, local participation, and welfare development.
Route of Santiago (Millán et al., 2016)	Spain	Cultural and religious route	Analysis of C2C interactions that reflects on the quality, intensity, and variance of vacation visitor's experience.
Chinese Heritage precinct, Bendigo (Laing et al., 2014)	Australia	Cultural heritage route	Development of an assessment audit tool for visitor experiential potential of small cultural heritage assets in regional destination.
Holy Grail Cultural Route (Apostolakis & Dimou, 2017)	Greece	Cultural and religious route	Development of innovative cultural product based on holy grail myth, in order to give added value to the tourism product in Greece.

it is obvious that the continuous social, economic, cultural, and environmental benefits for all the tourism stakeholders are a priority for the EU (Tajtáková, 2017).

Some worldwide examples of this approach are reviewed and presented in Table 1. Specifically, state-of-the-art studies of existing cultural routes and their contribution to research methodology are presented. Most of them focus on the value of cultural routes to destination planning, development, and the enhancement of visitor experience. Taking a closer look at these studies, the first considerable observation is that cultural heritage route formation is a relatively new arrival in the tourism field. The majority of research in the field has been formulated post 2014. Hence, one can conclude that the introduction of the concept in the tourism literature coincided with an effort to equip the field with research tools capable of addressing the current challenges in the industry.

For example, Bozik and Tomic (2016) created a multi-perspective evaluation model for the assessment of cultural routes as tourism products that contributes to existing cultural tourism literature. Szromek et al. (2021) introduced an effective application for the sustainable transformation of post-industrial heritage on Polish touristic industrial sites. Similarly, Oikonomopoulou et al. (2017) proposed an integrated methodological approach for the preservation and protection of cultural and natural routes in Chios island based on ISO 9001 principles. Sabir (2019) noted the purpose of cultural tourism to destination planning development through a multidisciplinary approach based on three cultural tourism routes that reveals the need of tourism stakeholder's engagement into tourism planning. In addition, Campolo et al. (2016) developed an analytical approach in order to increase the attractiveness of abandoned infrastructures through cultural routes according to sustainability aspects. Millán et al. (2016) highlighted the custom-to-custom interactions that reflect on the quality, intensity, and variance of visitors' experience, by analyzing the most famous cultural heritage route in Europe, Route of Santiago. Laing et al. (2014) developed a qualitative assessment audit tool for visitor experiential potential of small cultural heritage assets in rural destinations. Finally, Apostolakis and Dimou (2017) proposed an innovative religious route based on the Holy Grail myth, in order to provide added value to process and product innovation of tourism in Greece.

Tourism destinations could gain a comparative advantage through cultural route tourism, targeting visitors seeking authentic new experiences (Bozik & Tomic, 2016). There is a strong interaction between culture and sustainable tourism aspects, so route-based tourism can be an effective tool for the sustainable development of a tourism region. In fact, Bozik and Tomic (2016) and Szromek et al. (2021) referred to cultural routes as tools for sustainable tourism development. Based on this statement, there was a research gap in the evaluation of the cultural routes according to sustainability aspects. The authors propose a qualitative and quantitative methodology evaluation model for the sustainable development of cultural routes and cultural heritage assets, which can be adjusted according to the needs of each cultural route.

3 The Case Study Area: Archanes Village

The traditional settlement of Archanes was chosen as the case study area. It is located just 15 km away from Heraklion city (Figs. 1 and 2). Archanes was awarded in 2000 from European Union as one of the most beautiful traditional villages. Archanes includes numerous cultural and natural heritage points of interest (POIs), which are ideally combined with the development of sustainable tourism routes in the area.

During the first Byzantine period and the years of the Arab rule, Archanes and the surrounding area flourished. In 961 A.D., Nikephoros Phocas liberated Crete from the Arabs and built the Rokka fortress in the west side of Mt. Juktas, in order to control the surrounding area. He was aiming at transferring the city of Heraklion to this location to prevent its citizens from being attacked. During the period of the Byzantine Empire the island began to flourish once more. Its strategic location has strengthened Heraklion's position as the capital of the island. The arts flourished, mainly through church architecture frescoes and mural painting. The murals of this period are especially noteworthy. However, Nikephoros Phocas's effort was not completed and the city remained in its current location (Archanes-Asterousia, 2019).

In 1212 A.D., Crete was occupied by the Venetians. The conquest and tolerance of the Christian Orthodox doctrine by the conquerors resulted to the construction of many churches with Byzantine and Frankish characteristics. As a result, a number of important churches were built in Archanes during this period (fourteenth to fifteenth century A.D.). During the period of the Byzantine Empire, the island began to flourish again with some of the most important technical and architectural projects

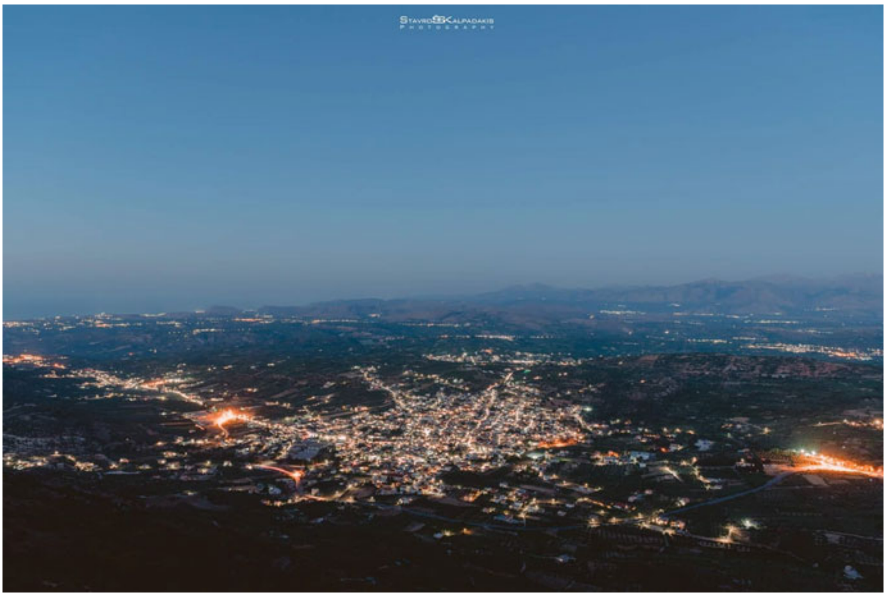

Fig. 1 Archanes Village. Source: Stavros Kalpadakis (23/4/2021)

Fig. 2 Archanes Village Inland. Source: Stavros Kalpadakis (6/6/2021)

on the island being constructed during that time. Moreover, there are countless monasteries and churches spread throughout the Prefecture, such as the Epanosifis Monastery, which are architectural masterpieces.

Notable examples included the churches of St. George, St. Triada, St. Paraskevi, St. Mamas, and the Church of Afentis Christos at the top of Mt. Juktas. In the area of Asomatos, located 3 km southeast of Archanes, the church of Michael Archangelos is an excellent Byzantine monument with frescoes of provincial paleontological art. In addition, during the Venetian occupation, many public works in Crete were completed. One of them is the Morosini Aqueduct in Karydaki, approximately 2 km northern of Archanes, dating back to the early 17th A.D. This great technical project was intended to supply Heraklion with fresh water directly from the springs of Mt. Juktas. The water from the spring was collected in Karydaki from Mt. Juktas by a 15 km stone-built pipeline and they were channeled to Heraklion, which at that time was plagued by water scarcity.

4 Methodology

The primary research involved recent published papers and book chapters in the field that were used in order to examine the sustainable cultural route evaluation model and assess the experiential value of heritage assets in the proposed sustainable cultural route in Archanes. In this framework, the examination and evaluation of the current state of the points of interest (POIs) of the proposed cultural routes was necessary. The objective is to create an applicable method for the assessment and monitoring of cultural route sustainability aspects and eventually enrich the sustainable cultural tourism products of Archanes village, with the promotion of a historical thematic cultural route.

The current endeavor applies both qualitative and quantitative methodologies to examine and evaluate the cultural heritage route. This methodological combination is crucial for the holistic creation, planning, development, and assessment of sustainable cultural tourism routes. The sample includes an extended number of tourism stakeholders with an interest on cultural heritage. The survey was conducted in the first half of 2019. Two hundred experts (200) were invited to take part in the study through interviews, and one hundred and twenty-five (125) of them agreed to participate. The evaluation of the points of interest (POIs) of the purposed sustainable cultural route, characterizing each one of them as a peak or supporting tourist experience was carried out through a qualitative methodology. The quantitative survey employed a multidimensional model of cultural route development.

4.1 Cultural Route Evaluation Model Methodology (CREM)

The quantitative methodology elaborated is a multidimensional model for assessing the Sustainable Cultural Route by examining the application of cultural, environmental, economic, and social aspects, known as Cultural Route Evaluation Model Methodology (CREM). This methodology identifies two sets of indicators. The "Main Values" included scientific and economic indicators, the special indicators of the route, and the indicators for protection and conservation as well as four groups of sub-indicators (scientific values, route-specific values, values of economic significance, and protection and conservation values). The second set of indicators included the "Tourism-Specific Values" that are divided into functional and additional values of the cultural tourist route.

Following a careful examination of the literature, as well as current developments in the field, the authors introduced to the initial model a number of new sub-indicators related specifically both to the Main Values, and to the Tourism-Specific Values, in order to reinforce the model's sustainability aspects. More specifically, we introduced the quality/price sub-indicator of the offered route to the Economic Significance Values, in order to judge if every proposed cultural route offers value for money (Kim et al., 2007). Accordingly, the authors suggest the following sub-indicators:

- Micro-location and accessibility of the sites, that was initially proposed by Ahmetović (1994); du Cros (2001).
- Evaluation of cultural assets and geo-site (Periera et al., 2007; Pralog, 2005; Zouros, 2007).

- Vicinity of emissive centers (how close are the emissive centers) (du Cros, 2001; Vujičić et al., 2011).
- Vujičić et al. (2011) also proposed the additional cultural and natural value.

Bozic and Tomic introduced the tourist and geographic position of the route, tourist signalization, and concentration of the attractions on the route (Bozik & Tomic, 2016). The authors also proposed the following sub-indicators for the assessment of additional values to the proposed cultural route:

- Cleanliness of the sites of the route.
- Level of convenience at the sites of the route.
- Sufficient staff on the sites of the route.
- Service level of staff/organizers of the route.
- Existence of First Aid Kit on the sites of the route.
- Sufficient access to disabled, pregnant, and elderly people on the sites of the routes.

The survey employed a five-point Likert scale, in order to rate the importance of each sub-indicator. So, the importance factor I_m gives to the experts the opportunity to express their opinion about each one sub-indicator in the model and at least how important each of them is for the potential success of the route. Moreover, their responses depict the current state of the proposed cultural route.

The importance factor is the following:

$$I_m = \frac{\Sigma_{k=1}^{K} I_{\nu\kappa}}{\mathrm{K}}$$

Where:

$I\nu_k$: the assessment/score of one expert for each sub-indicator.
K: the total number of experts.
I_m*:* the average importance for all respondents included in the survey.

It is obvious that the sub-indicators with more points are more important to those with fewer points. The next step is to get the maximum possible number of points for each sub-indicator and then the authors calculated the maximum number of points for each one of the main groups of indicators—*Main Values (MV)* and *Tourism-Specific Values (TSV).*

$$CREM = MV + TSV$$
$$MV = SV + ES + RSV + PCV$$
$$TSV = AV + FV$$

The maximum number of points for the *MV* and *TSV* derives from the sum of the maximum number of points for each group of sub-indicators that are included in those two major groups. So, the *MV* is calculated by adding up the maximum number of points for *Scientific Values (SV)*, the *route-specific values (ES),* and *Protection*

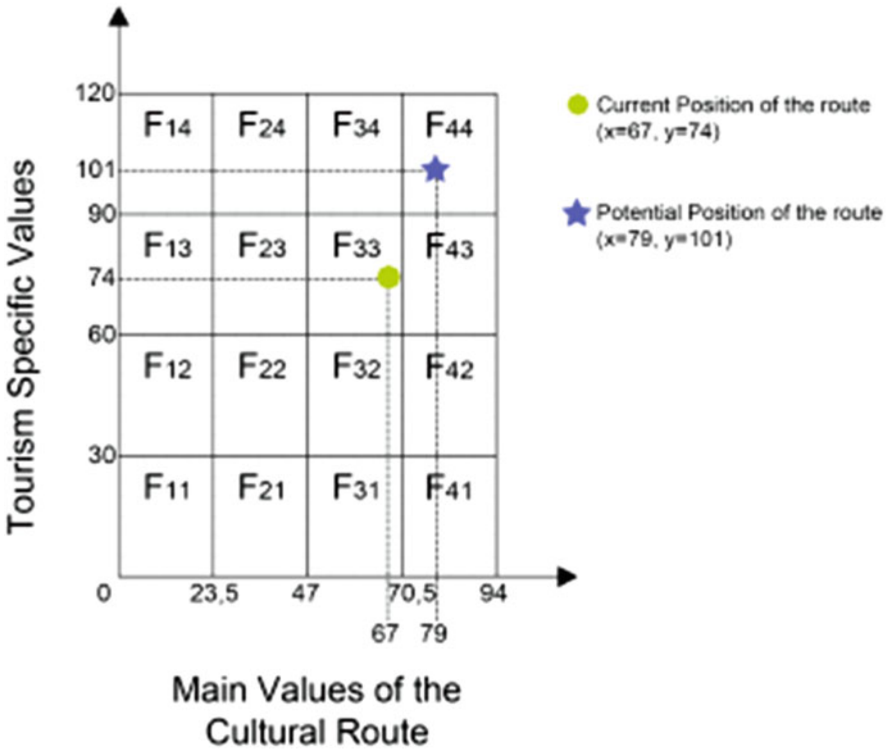

Fig. 3 Current and potential position of sustainable cultural route

and conservation values (PCV). The maximum number of points for *Tourism-Specific values* is the sum of maximum number of points for *Additional Values of the tourism product (AV) and Functional Values (FV).*

The results are presented in Fig. 3, which consists of the *Main Values* of the Route in the X-axis and *Tourism-Specific Values* of the Route in the *Y*-axis. Figure 3 is divided into 16 fields, that is indicated by $F_{i,j}$ $(i,j = 1,2,3,4)$ based on a 5-point grade. Major grid lines that create fields for the *X*-axes valued 30 points (as the maximum number of points of the model in *Main Values* is 120) and, respectively, for *Y*-axes valued 23,5 points (as the maximum number of points of the model in *Tourism-Specific Values* is 94).

4.2 Methodology for Assessing the Cultural Tourism Potential of Cultural Heritage Sites

The assessment tool for the cultural tourism potential of cultural heritage sites was suggested by McKercher and Ho (2006) and considers the cultural and physical product, as well as the experiential value of the sites (McKercher & Ho, 2006). It is a qualitative research tool that is implemented through a series of questions in order to create a holistic dimension (Poria et al., 2006; Moscardo 1999). Several researchers claimed that this could be a tool that enables the risk of "personal bias, creating a situation where the individual's own likes and dislikes, prejudices or ignorance can exert undue influence on the outcome" (McKercher & Ho, 2006: 485). This disadvantage can be eliminated by having multiple researchers conducting an independent assessment (Laing et al., 2014).

Accordingly, the authors conducted independent interviews with tourism experts, archeologists, and members of cultural organizations in Archanes village. Finally, the authors produced four "written independent reports, enabling divergent views to be expressed" (McKercher & Ho, 2006) and that fact enabled us to collect rich and comprehensive data on each asset. The stakeholders who agreed to participate in the survey were thirty (30) out of the one hundred and twenty-four (124) originally invited. All of them shared a deep knowledge of Archanes village, not only geomorphologically but also culturally and traditionally.

According to Quan and Wang (2004), the interviews incorporated the following question: "Is the asset likely to form the basis of a supporting or a peak touristic experience?" In this way, we appreciate that this research will help tourism managers (public and private) to value and categorize the cultural heritage assets of the area, where professionally undertake businesses in a more objective way. It is evident that not all assets attracted a peak touristic experience, but some of them could also be important as supporting assets (Laing et al., 2014). The assets are based in five categories: low, low/moderate, moderate, moderate/high, and high.

5 Empirical Findings

For the purpose of this study, we combined the CREM model (Bozik & Tomic, 2016) with the assessment of the experiential value of heritage assets (Laing et al., 2014) of the proposed cultural route. The main purpose was both the assessment and monitoring of the current state of the POIs and the implementation of the proposed suggestions in order to maximize the route's sustainable aspects.

5.1 Results of Cultural Route Evaluation Model Methodology (CREM)

Table 2 below presents the current situation as concluded through the questionnaire. The proposed interventions are presented in the far-right column in Table 2. Moreover, Fig. 3 shows the current situation and the potential position of the proposed route. The results of the assessment indicate that the route investigated in this study received an overall moderate score. More specifically, the *Scientific Values* which are part of the *Main Values*, are on an enviable level. Nevertheless, due to the high cultural and historical value of the route, Scientific Values could gain the highest score through good promotion efforts. The Byzantine and Venetian rule era were important for Cretan history and architecture. The *Route-Specific* sub-indicators received lower values than those of the *Scientific* sub-indicators. This could be explained, due to the small geographical character of the route. Another explanation could be that there are only a handful of organizations managing the route, despite the uniqueness and attractiveness of the sites. Furthermore, the local population does not understand the uniqueness and attractiveness of the proposed route. As such, the authors propose that the creation of a co-border cultural route with Italy to link the Venetian artifacts is needed. For instance, we suggest the creation of a management plan for the route by the state and the appointment of a route's administrator, as well as the development of training and educational programs for the local population for improving the knowledge regarding the local cultural assets.

When it comes to the *Economic Significance* of the proposed cultural tourism route, this is not at an enviable level. This seems reasonable, as the economic plans for the development of the route are still at an initial phase. There is no international coordination for the route and the quality/price ratio of the proposed route is low enough. Moreover, the contribution to the local community seems to be low. This is quite important as the proposed sustainable cultural route has the potential to immerse the local economy, by providing new jobs, attracting new investments, and creating a positive image for Crete. The potential position of the *Economic Significance* of the Route could change if stakeholders manage to organize a cross-border cooperation with Italy and accomplish a better quality/price ratio for the sustainable cultural route. Furthermore, there is a need for a holistic economic route planning through the region and stakeholder engagement to create an analytical economic evaluation of the sustainable cultural route.

Furthermore, as far as the *Protection and Conservation Values* are concerned, the authors observe that the vulnerability of the sites is high, mainly due to the ruins in the places of the former temples, churches, and fortresses. The former churches, temples, and fortresses require specific protection and conservation actions from local authorities and archeological services. This indicates that there is a need for the protection and achievement of a good balance between cultural tourism and the environment. This could be enhanced by allocating part of the profits of the cultural route directly to the conservation of the sites. All the sites are protected on a national level; however, the sites should gain an international protection and there is the need for continuous monitoring of the carrying capacity of the POIs.

The *Functional Values* are part of the *Tourism-Specific Values*. We observe that the score is particularly low and that is why the location is not the ideal one for most of the POIs, although the sites are close to a highway of great significance for Crete. The majority of the POIs are not easily accessible for disabled people and the tourist signalization is not adequate. Moreover, it seems that there is not enough staff in the POIs and the level of the service given to tourists is not sufficient. If the above

Table 2 Results and suggestions for the improvement of the CREM model for the sustainable cultural route

Main values	Current position of sustainable cultural route	Potential position of sustainable cultural route
Scientific indicators	They received a high score	The route could gain the highest score if the policy makers create an "interesting story" for the sustainable cultural route.
Route-specific indicators	They received a mediocre score, because: 1) The geographical character of the route is small (it extents in a small size of territory). 2) There are no managers/organizations and no management plan of the route. 3) The local population does not recognize the uniqueness of the proposed cultural route and its assets.	1) Creation of a co-border cultural route with Italy, following the proposed sustainable aspects of the route. 2) Creation of a route's management plan by the state and determination of route's administrator. 3) Training and educational programs to the local population, in order to learn about the local cultural assets.
Economic significance indicators	They are not in an enviable level. 1) There is not an international coordination for the route 2) Insufficient contribution to the local community 3) Lack of financial route planning 4) Better quality/ price ratio for the sustainable cultural route.	1) Co-border cooperation with mutual cultural values. 2) Local economy reinforcement through favorable measures for tourism development. 3) Holistic economic route planning through the region. 4) Stakeholder engagement to create a holistic economic evaluation of the sustainable cultural route.
Protection and conservation values	They are not in an enviable level. 1) Local protection of POIs. 2) High vulnerability of POIs, due to the ruins of former temples, churches, and fortresses. 3) Visitors are overcrowded in some assets.	1) International protection of cultural assets. 2) Vulnerability reduction of POIs through state measures. 3) Continuous measurement of the carrying capacity of the POIs.
Functional values	The score is low. 1) Moderate location of several assets (many POIs are inaccessible). 2) Low accessibility to the POI's. 2) Insufficient tourist signalization. 3) There is not enough staff in the POI's and the existing does not provide quality services. 4) Insufficient quality of provided services and infrastructures.	1) Appropriate access to POIs in order to serve disabled visitors. 2) Creation of an extended signalization system for the cultural route. 3) Sufficient staff on the site of the route. 4) Adequately training the staff, in order to provide more qualitative services. 4) Integrated design and creation of provided services and infrastructures, based on local needs.

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Main values	Current position of sustainable cultural route	Potential position of sustainable cultural route
Additional values	The score is low. 1) Inadequate investments to provide an authentic quality of tourist experience. 2) Insufficient route promotion. 3) Basic tourist infrastructures at POIs. 4) The annual level of tourist visits is generally low. 5) There is not enough presence of travel arrangements related to the cultural route.	1) Creation of investment planning for the utilization of the cultural heritage of Crete. 2) Adequate sustainable marketing planning. 3) Creation of a website and social media profile of the proposed route. 3) Re-design and implementation of POIs operation of the route. 4) National promotion of the sustainable aspects of the cultural route, in order to approach more visitors. 5) Education and training to tour operators and travel agents, in order to get familiar with the cultural assets and the cultural route.

sub-indicators could be improved, then the Functional Values would be significantly better.

As for the *Additional Values*, their score indicates that not enough effort and investments were made in order to provide an authentic tourist experience and high quality of tourism services, as the score is particulalry low. It seems that the promotional effort of the cultural route is not enough, especially if we consider the uniqueness and importance of the route. This is reinforced with the local population's perspective of the proposed cultural route, maintaining that there is not an interesting story to be told about the route. The cultural route itself does not have its own website and its presence on social media is mediocre.

Although there are plenty of catering and hospitality services close to the sites of the cultural route, the additional infrastructure facilities are at a basic level. Furthermore, it is important to mention that a lot of travel agencies offer similar sustainable cultural routes. So, there is a considerable degree of competition for visitors. On the other hand, it is a positive sign that the sites comprising the route account for an interesting collection of stories, traditions, and local customs, giving the opportunity to promote historical events and animation programs, as well as to organize a lot of events. Furthermore, there is the possibility of promoting the route in conjunction with other alternative tourism routes such as religious, gastronomical, and eco-tourism routes.

The *Main Values* of the route compared to *Tourism-Specific Values* show that the sustainable cultural route could potentially become a more internationally recognized route. The comparison indicates that a lot of improvements and investments should be performed, especially to the *Tourism-Specific Values*. Figure 3 helps us to recognize where the major gaps of the sustainable cultural route is, in order to carry future investments and provide a well-structured Master Plan for "From the Byzantine Era to the sovereignty of Venetians in Archanes." The authors suggest the potential position of the cultural route, as it is observable in Fig. 3 that this raises up the *Main Values* and the *Tourism-Specific Values* of the Route. In more detail, the sum of the *Main Values* for the potential position corresponds to 79, while the aggregate value of the *Tourism-Specific Values* is 101. That makes the position of the Potential Position of the sustainable cultural route in the Field F_{44}.

5.2 Results from the Assessment of the Cultural Tourism Route

This audit tool (McKercher & Ho, 2006) seems to be ideal for the Archanes village, as it consists of small-scale assets, as those described in other settings (Laing et al., 2014). The authors focused on the cultural products, and the experiential values of the cultural assets of Archanes, given that the physical values of the assets (mainly) diminish the value of the cultural route. Moreover, some of the assets pose a disadvantage, considering the fact that they are located within a 3 km radius from the center of Archanes village and have limited accessibility.

It seems that the experiential values are a benefit for our case study. The "authenticity" aspect is one of the most important indicators that we examined as it is related to an authentic sense offered by the cultural route and/or the cultural assets (Laing et al., 2014). Figure 4 considers the cultural and experiential value of the sites (McKercher & Ho, 2006), according to the audits-interviews. Archanes village could be a semi-rural destination that offers visitors the cultural experience of the Byzantine and Venetian era. However, many of its assets require further development in order to gain more recognition from visitors and locals alike. We realized that some POIs, while historically and culturally significant, they are not set up for tourism. This indicates that they are not able to attract tourists due to the minimal signage, their location and the lack of interpretation.

Some assets in the assessment were categorized as supporting experience, but they still play an important role in the whole route. As Laing et al. (2014, p.190) noted, "they act as a foil for the more exciting peak experiences but may require development to achieve the goal." Based on these study findings, the following tactics are recommended:

- The introduction of a thematic analytical interpretation across the proposed route,
- Improved transport links to/from the cultural route allowing for organized and scheduled access to the location,
- Organized public regular and scheduled access to all POIs of the route,
- Efficient marketing energies, in order to promote all the assets and the proposed sustainable cultural route as a whole.

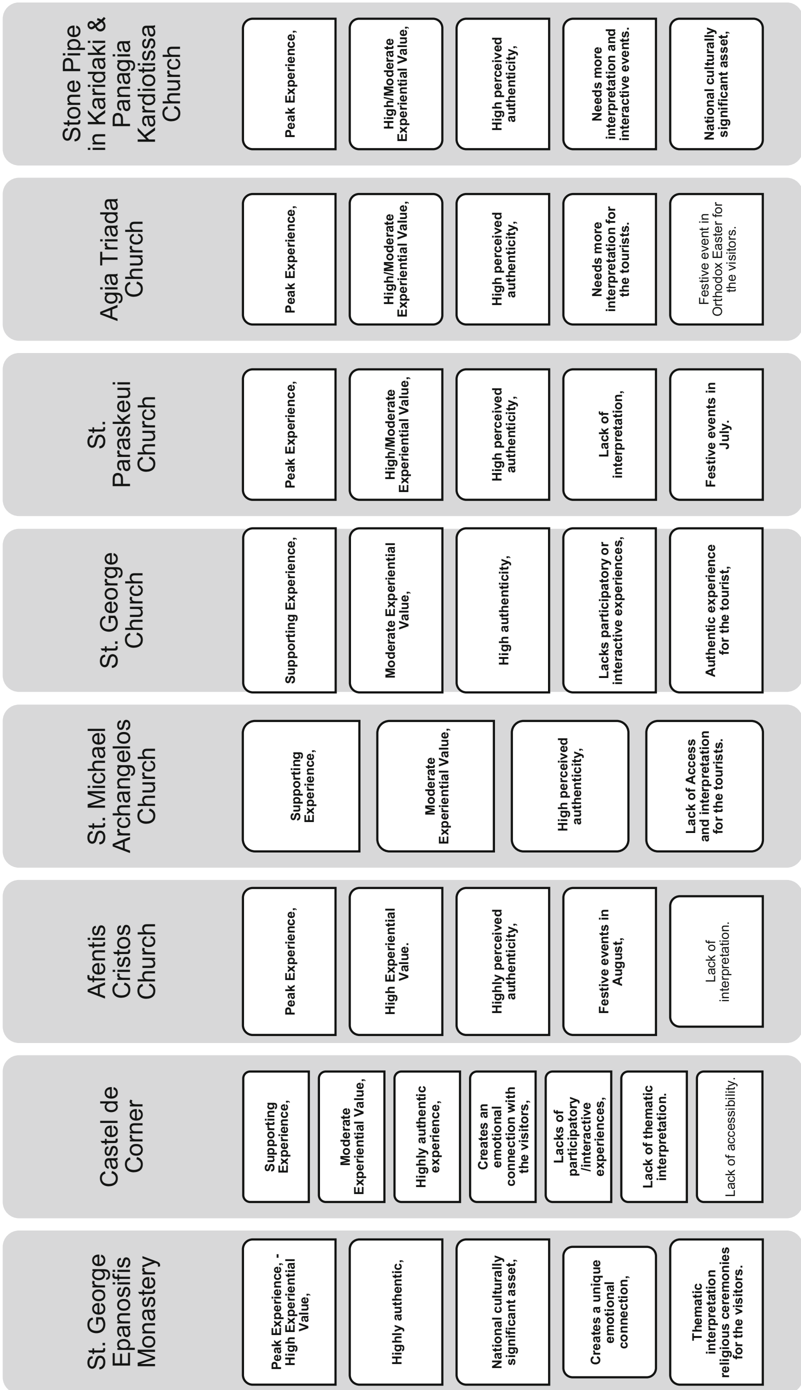

Fig. 4 Qualitative Assessment Cultural Value of the Sustainable Cultural Route POIs

6 Discussion and Conclusions

The Archanes village was chosen as a case study, as it is a great example of an area that has been inhabited from antiquity to the present day. In addition, this village has flourished in all time periods, due to the diversity of its soil, the existence of water springs, and its location that offered unique strategic point characteristics. The above characteristics gave us the chance to collect plenty of interesting and meaningful cultural POIs from the Byzantine and Venetian rule era and finally to create the cultural sustainable route “From the Byzantine Era to the sovereignty of Venetians in Archanes.” The proposed cultural route seems to be a unique route, although it is not recognizable by the local residents. It is a fact that the route requires further development, in order to reach its tourism potential. The authors suggest that the functional and the additional values are the “easiest to resolve, for they relate primarily to the presentation of each one asset” (Laing et al., 2014:189).

This study applied two different methodologies in order to create an overall assessment for sustainable cultural routes. The first one was the tourism potential audit tool that is used to assess the tourist experience potential of smaller cultural heritage assets in regional destinations. This assessment categorized every individual point of interest of the proposed sustainable cultural route as peak or supporting tourism experience. The second methodology that was used contributes to the existing literature in cultural and sustainable tourism. The benefits of this assessment model are that it provides a multidimensional perspective view of the importance of cultural corridors for sustainable tourism development. This model is innovative as not all sub-indicators should be of the same importance in the evaluation processing. The authors’ contribution to the initial CREM model was the introduction of additional sub-indicators, in order to reinforce the sustainability aspects of the model. Finally, in Fig. 3 the current state of the route is presented according to experts’ assessment and the potential position of the proposed route based on the authors’ estimations.

Still, tourist experiences are quite important. The heritage assets should be presented in order to become more meaningful and attract a more sophisticated tourist audience. The current chapter concludes that some assets, while they are historically significant, are not yet fully set up for tourism. Apart from their cultural and historical value, they are not able to attract tourists due to infrastructural issues. The authors propose the creation of an extended signalization system for the cultural assets and route and an integrated design of the tourism infrastructures, in order to give an added value to the cultural assets, based on local needs. Moreover, there are plenty cultural and natural attractions on the route that provide additional cultural value to the rural area. The attractiveness and safety of the area is in an enviable level and, while there is a potential of promoting the proposed route in conjunction to other alternative tourism routes (e.g., wine routes, gastronomy routes, religious routes, etc).

This study offers some managerial recommendations for improving the tourist potential of the area. First, it proposes the introduction of thematic interpretation integrated with the attractions. In some cases, the use of technology attracts more tourists. Some examples are audio tours, looped videos, and touch screen displays that help tourists engage more with the assets. Secondly, transportation links to heritage assets should be improved. This could happen with the creation of more trails and tours to connect various assets across Archanes village and allow the regular and scheduled access to all assets, in order to serve disabled people. In addition, an international co-border cultural route with Italy should be created, following the proposed sustainable aspects of the route, as this will help both the geographical character and the international protection and coordination of the route. In addition, a management plan for the proposed cultural route should be developed by the state and a route administrator should be appointed. Moreover, training and educational programs to the local population, staff, private and public bodies must be provided in order to help them understand the local cultural assets and provide quality services and experiences to the visitors. National protection measures of the cultural assets and continuous monitoring of their carrying capacity may be carried out to reduce the vulnerability of all the cultural assets whereas an extended signalization system for the cultural route should be created. An integrated design and creation of provided services and infrastructures based on local needs may be implemented. Last, a national promotion campaign of the cultural route is needed in order to approach more visitors. Marketing and promotion of the assets can be done collectively. In addition to the creation of social media and website pages for all the cultural assets, the Municipality of Archanes could also create an e-hub as its centerpiece that would direct and manage the visitors to all the assets of the proposed cultural route.

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The Role of the Local Community in Sustainable Cultural Tourism

Elena Afouxenidi

1 Introduction

In many European countries, the negative impacts of tourism are becoming visible in the last decades. Specifically, in popular urban destinations tourism is considered a problem by a large percentage of the local population (García-Hernández et al., 2017). In this context, sustainable practices within the tourism industry emerge as a prerequisite for the well-being of local communities as well as the preservation of natural and cultural resources of destinations. Indeed, sustainable tourism practices are regarded as a necessity for the viability of destinations and the global tourism industry in general. As such, sustainability has become a key goal in the planning and management strategies of destinations worldwide.

The need for sustainability in tourism planning and destination management was recently highlighted in the Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development. Among other goals, the agenda emphasised the need for sustainable cultural tourism. In fact, the UNWTO/UNESCO world conference on tourism and culture recently pointed towards the requirement of both sectors to strengthen their role and put into practice the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) outlined in the agenda. One of the objectives of the conference was to address the issue of the contribution of cultural tourism to the sustainability of tourist destinations (Almuhrzi & Al-Azri, 2019). Although the concept of sustainable cultural tourism is still young (Rosicka et al., 2009), the collaboration of tourism and cultural authorities for achieving sustainability is a theme that has begun to draw increasing attention in the scientific field.

Cultural tourism seems to be a conducive framework for sustainable development (Alisa & Ridho, 2020; Amerta et al., 2018; Durak et al., 2016; Gražulevičiūtė, 2006; Kumar, 2017). In exploring how to carry out sustainability through cultural tourism,

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several researchers have identified the host community as a factor of great significance (Amerta et al., 2018; Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016; Durak et al., 2016; Halim & Ishak, 2017; Istoc, 2012; Keitumetse, 2011; Lee & Jan, 2019; López et al., 2018; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Ruastiti et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018). However, insofar pertinent literature has not clarified how a destination's residents can contribute to the implementation of practises in line with the values of sustainable development within a cultural tourism context. This chapter aims to fulfil this research gap and examines resident perceptions of sustainable development as well as their role in sustainable development within the cultural tourism context. In so doing, the study draws from the Philopappos heritage site in Athens to offer insights that are useful to destination planners and managers with regard to the improvement of the sustainable development of cultural tourism.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism has become a key product in the international tourism market (Artal-Tur, 2018), as it contributes to the seasonal and geographical extension of tourism (Richards, 1996). According to ICOMOS, cultural tourism provides tourists the opportunity to experience foreign lifestyles and brings them in touch with the natural environment, places of architectural, historical, archaeological or any other cultural significance (cited in Pop, 2016). While some scholars present cultural tourism as a means of economic and social prosperity (Savchenko & Borodina, 2020), others believe that it can lead to the deterioration of local cultures (García-Hernández et al., 2017). Generally speaking, cultural tourism development carries both positive and negative impacts. On the one hand, cultural tourism can contribute to the rise of local economy, the promotion and safeguarding of cultural heritage, and the preservation of the natural environment. On the other hand, insufficient planning of cultural tourism development can yield numerous negative impacts. For example, cultural tourism development can increase the cost of living in an area, which in turn can lead to residents' eviction from their place of residence. In addition, the exploitation of cultural goods for tourism involves the risk of the commercialisation of culture and degradation of natural resources. Table 1 summarises the key positive and negative impacts of cultural tourism as identified in extant literature.

Despite the presence of several benefits arising from cultural tourism, it is obvious that the numerous negative impacts that may potentially emerge are a concern for destination planners and policymakers. Stakeholders have become particularly concerned with the sustainability of cultural resources and the protection and conservation of the cultural and natural environment. Thus, many destinations try to minimise the negative economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts caused by cultural tourism development through the adoption of sustainable practices (Amerta et al., 2018).

Table 1 Impacts of cultural tourism

	Positive	Negative
Economic	• Rise of local economy. • Encourages small-scale investment initiatives. • Increases employment opportunities. • Offers solution to seasonality. • Increases state tax revenues.	• Raises cost of living. • Economic benefits are not shared equally to all members of community. • Excessive dependence on the service sector. • Economic leakages. • Increase in imported labour. • Reduction of wages. • "Commercial homogenisation" or "colonisation" of foreign brands.
Social	• Knowledge of history and respect to heritage. • Promotes intercultural/international understanding—Acceptance of others. • Revitalises local arts and crafts. • Strengthens external support to minority/indigenous groups. • Offers income for the preservation of natural and cultural heritage.	• Commercialisation of cultural resources. • Displacing of the locals.
Environmental	• Environmental protection. • Maintenance of sensitive areas and habitats.	• Degradation of landscapes and wildlife. • Erosion of monumental surfaces. • Traffic congestion and overcrowding.

Sources: Becker (2015), García-Hernández et al. (2017), Gnanapala and Sandaruwani (2016), Imon (2017), Plzáková (2015), Savchenko and Borodina (2020), Sdrali and Chazapi (2007), Tamene and Wondirad (2019), Tieng (2019), Timothy (1994)

2.2 *Sustainability and Cultural Tourism*

Sustainable development can be described as development that meets the needs of the current generation, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (United Nations, 1987). The concept of sustainability rests on three pillars: economic, environmental and social sustainability. The first pillar aims to ensure a sustainable economic environment and therefore focuses on improving the standard of living of existing and future societies (Andriotis, 2005). The second pillar aims to establish appropriate environmental conditions for the well-being of the present and future generations (Tomislav, 2018) while the third aims at socio-cultural stability by promoting education and protecting human health, securing cultural diversity, and combating phenomena such as loneliness/alienation among others (Duran et al., 2015). The adoption of sustainable principles has inevitably become a necessity in the tourism industry which is known for exerting several negative impacts on the environment, local economy, and society (Butler, 2018). In this context, the term "sustainable tourism" arose as a popular goal of destination development. Specifically, Butler (2018) defines sustainable tourism as:

Table 2 Sustainable tourism—Cultural tourism Nexus

Sustainable tourism	Cultural tourism
Respect to local people	• Contributes to the preservation of cultural diversity. • Promotes intercultural/international understanding—Acceptance of others. • Strengthens external support to minority/ indigenous groups.
Protection of cultural heritage	• Aims to maintain history. • Conservation of natural and cultural heritage. • Revitalisation of native arts.
Preservation of natural environment	• Environmental protection. • Maintenance of sensitive areas and habitats.
Achievement of economic benefits	• Rise of local economy. • Encourages small-scale investment initiatives. • Increases employment opportunities. • Increases state tax revenues.

Source: Own processing

> Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over a definite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human or physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes. (p. 3)

The main components of sustainable tourism are thus: a) respect to the local population of each destination, b) preservation of its natural environment, c) protection of its cultural heritage and d) achievement of economic benefits for the local community (Amerta et al., 2018; Mowla, 2019; Rosicka et al., 2009). Scholars exploring the link between cultural tourism and sustainability (Alisa & Ridho, 2020; Chhabra, 2009; Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016; Gražulevičiūtė, 2006; Keitumetse, 2011; Kumar, 2017; Ruastiti et al., 2018; Weng et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020) conclude that cultural tourism can significantly contribute to the achievement of the goals of sustainable development (Alisa & Ridho, 2020; Amerta et al., 2018; Durak et al., 2016; Gražulevičiūtė, 2006; Kumar, 2017). However, extant literature acknowledges the necessity to intensify efforts towards this direction (Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016; Weng et al., 2019; Yeniasır & Gökbulut, 2018). Table 2 draws from the sustainable cultural tourism literature to offer an overview of the link between cultural tourism and sustainability. As can be seen from the table, the positive impacts of cultural tourism are in line with the main objectives of sustainable tourism.

2.3 *Community Participation for Achieving Sustainable Cultural Tourism*

Among the topics scholars investigate regarding sustainability within the cultural tourism context is the important role of the local community. Many agree that the adoption of sustainable strategies in tourism inevitably involves the local people, and suggest enhancing the power of local communities as a solution to achieve sustainability through cultural tourism (Amerta et al., 2018; Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016; Durak et al., 2016; Halim & Ishak, 2017; Istoc, 2012; Keitumetse, 2011; Lee & Jan, 2019; López et al., 2018; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Ruastiti et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018). In fact, it is argued that the active contribution of residents to cultural tourism is a criterion for assessing sustainability (Li & Hunter, 2015). In other words, community involvement can be used as an indicator of sustainability in cultural resource management (Keitumetse, 2011).

The literature describes three types of community participation in cultural tourism management: coercive, induced, and spontaneous. In the first type, residents are engaged in the promotion of the cultural aspects of the destination, gaining few economic benefits. In induced participation, although citizens have a say in matters concerning the management of cultural resources, they do not have real power and control over the decisions taken by key tourism stakeholders. In the third type, residents make decisions and control the process of tourism development (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Lukman (2020) suggested that citizens play a central role in managing cultural heritage. He deduced that residents' involvement as tour guides, narrators, museum curators and other related professions is of the utmost importance for building sustainable communities and for reducing poverty in rural populations particularly (Lukman, 2020). Equally, Ruastiti et al. (2018) highlighted the involvement of indigenous people in cultural tourism, suggesting that they contribute significantly to the preservation of indigenous traditions and the economic well-being of the community (Ruastiti et al., 2018). Nonetheless, Clausen and Gyimóthy (2016) found that a committee formed by residents on tourism sustainability issues may lead to conflicts due to their different views on sustainable development.

Despite the abundance of studies on residents' participation in cultural tourism, there is still a strong inaccuracy regarding what exactly constitutes community participation (Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016), which emphasises the need for further investigation. This chapter draws from the archaeological site of Philopappos in order to attempt to answer the following questions: How do residents perceive the concept of sustainable development? How do they contribute to sustainability within the cultural tourism context?

3 Methodology

3.1 Study Context

The archaeological site of Philopappos is a rock formation composed by the western hills of Athens—Hills of Philopappos, Pnyx and Nymphs—opposite Acropolis. The archaeological site reaches 700 acres and includes scattered monuments of different dates, remains of ancient settlements, city walls, water supply facilities, numerous sanctuaries, and burial sites, which are carved into the rocks (see Table 3). The paths

Table 3 Declared monuments and archaeological sites

• Theophilos Hansen Observatory 1952.
• Area of ancient Koili and quarry of Evangelos Konstandellos 1955.
• Hills of Philopappos and Pnyx, area south and west of Acropolis 1956.
• Church of Agios Dimitrios Lombardiaris 1958.
• Hill of Nymphs 1967.
• Church of Agia Marina 1986.
• Triangle between Philopappos and Dionysiou Aeropagitou 1991.
• Work by Dimitris Pikionis (paving, afforestation, pavilion) 1996.

Source: Government Gazette (1952–1967, 1986–1996), cited in filopappou.wordpress.com

created by the architect Dimitris Pikionis during the years 1954–1957 are a characteristic of the area.

The archaeological site of Philopappos was chosen as a case study, due to its communal character that favours the free access of the inhabitants of the surrounding areas and their possible involvement in matters that may concern it. In the area, there are catering and entertainment facilities that may benefit from the presence of tourists. The site provides a combination of cultural and natural elements and has often been associated with crime incidents. The area under investigation thus has a dual character. Although it is declared as an archaeological site, it is utilised daily as a common place of recreation and rest by the Athenians, as it is one of the few green spots in the city centre.

3.2 Data Collection

Qualitative research was chosen as the research approach guiding this study. Qualitative research was regarded as most suitable given the exploratory nature of the study, as it allows the in-depth understanding of residents' perceptions and experiences (Magnini et al., 2012; Polkinghorne, 2005). Specifically, semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. The researcher composed a set of predefined questions on the topics that she deemed necessary to cover in accordance with extant literature on sustainable development in tourism (see Fig. 1). Additional questions were asked during the interviews depending on how the discussion went with each participant.

Purposive sampling was used to identify cases rich in information that enabled in-depth study (Gray, 2014). Therefore, participants were sought at the archaeological site and through the internet. The primary goal was to find residents of areas adjacent to the archaeological site such as Koukaki, Petralona, Thiseio, and Makrigianni. However, given the situation caused by the pandemic that broke out in Greece in March 2020, finding people living in areas surrounding the hills was very difficult. Due to this obstacle, the sample included citizens of Athens who visited the site. A total of 17 interviews were conducted (see Table 4) in Greek and subsequently translated into English. The interviews took place from February 24 to

Fig. 1 Fundamental principles of sustainable tourism. Source: Own processing

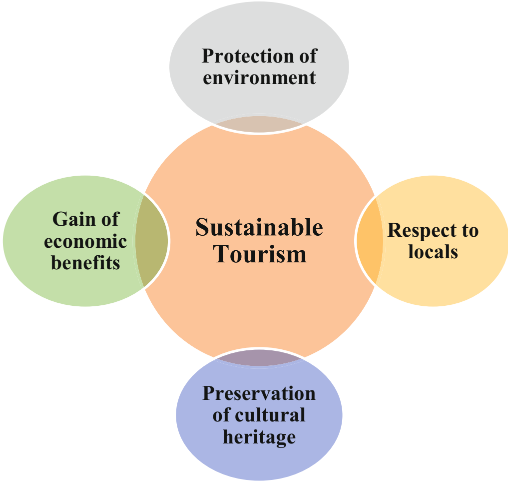

Table 4 Profile of participants

Participant number	Gender	Age	Occupation	Education
1	M	60	Freelancer	Secondary
2	F	63	Private sector	PhD
3	M	49	Civil sector	Secondary
4	F	29	Student	MSc
5	M	29	Unemployed	Higher
6	F	30	Private sector	Higher
7	F	29	Civil sector	Higher
8	F	54	Civil sector	MSc
9	F	45	Civil sector	MSc
10	M	32	Unemployed	Higher
11	M	29	Civil sector	Higher
12	F	55	Private sector	Higher
13	F	27	Unemployed	MSc
14	F	27	Civil sector	Higher
15	M	34	Civil sector	Higher
16	M	53	Private sector	Higher
17	F	31	Civil sector	Higher

March 31, 2021, and lasted about 30 minutes each. In addition, archival material, articles, and data from field observation were studied as complementary sources.

3.3 Data Analysis

Data was organised and interpreted according to the principles of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006); whereby key themes emerged following a coding process. In particular, transcripts were read several times by the researcher who identified patterns of themes according to the literature on sustainable development. Blocks of text were copied verbatim, re-organised and cross-referenced to allow the identification of thematic categories. Sub-categories also emerged which were combined with pre-identified themes to allow for greater elaboration on key issues (Hennik et al., 2010). In the end, the following key themes emerged: a) perceptions of sustainable development, b) importance of implementing sustainability in cultural tourism, c) financial benefits, d) promotion of culture—protection of monuments, e) nature protection, f) maintaining social order and g) citizens' contribution—incentives.

4 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Perceptions of Sustainable Development

Most informants were familiar with the concept of sustainable development, due to personal interest or through television, the press, and their workplace. Informant descriptions of sustainable development showed that emphasis was placed on environmental sustainability. As P3 stated, sustainable development is "*the peaceful coexistence between man and environment*". On a similar note, P8 added that sustainable development is "*development that aims to protect the environment. . .that is not harmful to the environment and natural resources*". P4 also argued that sustainable development "*has to do with securing the environment and natural resources for the future*". Other informants suggested that sustainable development "*is something that bears fruit socially and economically without depleting the resources, from which it draws wealth*" [P1] and "*is mainly economic development that is done in a way that can sustain itself and maintain the framework in which it takes place*" [P5].

4.2 Importance of Implementing Sustainability in Cultural Tourism

When informants were asked about the importance of sustainable development to cultural tourism, it was argued that sustainable development is important for the entire tourism to assure a healthy economic growth without endangering the environment. According to P5, "*sustainability must be applied to all tourism so that* *activities are not destructive for the environment, for the area where tourism takes place*". P4 agreed stating that "*it should be applied to all tourism industry to achieve a healthy development, that will not destroy the environment. Current economic tactics lead to crises*". It was also pointed out that sustainability can contribute to the preservation of the archaeological site of Philopappos, the monuments located in it, as well as the protection of the history of the area. As P1 claimed:

> Monuments and archeological sites should not be exploited in a way that destroys them. There is a carrying capacity, which should not be exceeded. . .it does not work when there is a crowd. . .it is not the meaning of visiting the monument. People should have the opportunity to visit the monument in peace (. . .), to meditate on its historicity. Sustainability in this case has the meaning of a measure of traffic.

4.3 Financial Benefits Due to the Presence of Tourists

Access to the archaeological site is free 24 hours a day for all visitors and walkers. Therefore, there is no financial gain from the entry. There are facilities—the restaurant "Dionysos", the "Dora Stratou" theatre and the pavilion of Agios Dimitris Lombardiaris—that can be profitable. The restaurant operates until today and is visited by many tourists who go to the historical centre, especially in the summer season. Performances and classes of Greek dances are held in the theatre. The place, however, is not favoured financially by the presence of tourists. As P3 commented, "*the classic walk of tourists is from Dionysiou Aeropagitou to the monument of Philopappos. Sometimes to the Pnyx and the Observatory (. . .) They are not aware of the existence of the theatre, as it is not promoted*". The Lombardiaris pavilion remains unexploited and abandoned from 2005 onwards. It was mentioned by interviewees that it has been a place of residence for the homeless since.

4.4 Promotion of Culture: Protection of Monuments

There are not any guides in the archaeological area who could convey its historical significance to tourists. Visitors usually enter the area to take a walk and take photos; something that was evident not only to the research through the interview process but also from tourists' comments, available on TripAdvisor. Most tourists perceive the site as a viewing spot of the city and the sea. As a tourist said on TripAdvisor, "*You can see the amazing panorama of the city, up to Piraeus and beyond*" (Italian, February 2020). Another added, "*It is in front of Acropolis. I highly recommend visiting it at sunset as the view of the Parthenon is amazing!*" (Spanish, February 2020). Other comments on the website include "*The view is fantastic. Great spot to photograph the Parthenon*" (English, October 2020), "*It has low traffic, but it is an ideal spot to observe the city*" (Italian, September 2019), "*Very nice place to rest and*

Fig. 2 Graffiti on surfaces inside the archaeological site, February 2021

enjoy Acropolis" (German, December 2019) and "*Find the time to climb (. . .), it is worth it. Athens is in front of your eyes 360 degrees*" (Italian, May 2018).

Admittedly, the usage of the site by locals is more harmful than that of foreign visitors. According to P4, "*on the hills you can view the negative culture of the Greeks via garbage and graffiti, and this is because most people do not perceive it as an archaeological site*" (see Fig. 2). The managers of Lombardiaris pavilion had been exploiting a part of the Pnyx, which they had fenced in illegally for several years. Plastic carpet and umbrellas were placed in the area inside the fence, while shacks that were set up in the area served as warehouses.

4.5 Nature Protection

Several informants suggested that "there is more harm from the locals. Tourists are harmless" [P7] as "there are not so many tourists so that their presence may cause problems" [P2]. Indeed, the research observed on site that there are not enough rubbish bins and during quarantine, especially on Sundays, bins got full by noon and overflowing with rubbish. It is "the lack of education and municipality's insufficient care" [P3] that was to blame according to informants (see Fig. 3). In addition, the restaurant "Dionysos" has expanded its facilities on the slope of the Philopappos hill (n.d.) over the years, changing the natural landscape. As P1 clarified, tree plantings

Fig. 3 The lack of sufficient care of the natural landscape is visible, April 2021

which were carried out by the municipality every year were banned since 2013 by the archaeological service, who claimed that vegetation is responsible for the degradation of site's archaeological significance. The informant went on to add that "greenery is an issue of conflict with the archaeological service, which considers that the hills should not have been planted" and stressed the need to continue planting because, during deforestations carried out annually to avoid fires, new plants are cut.

4.6 Maintaining Social Order

In August 2018, a 25-year-old student was killed by a three-member gang, who intended to rob him and his girlfriend inside the archaeological site. Since then, articles published in the same year refer to gangs operating uncontrollably in the hills, in the absence of policing and the lack of a sufficient number of guards during the night. Residents claimed that "*up here is dangerous after 10 pm. It is a dark place and there have been many attacks in the past"* and that *"there are no guards, there is no policing in the area, most tourists come and are afraid*" (Korellis, 2018). Comments posted on TripAdvisor by tourists from 2017 onwards, however, contradict this statement. Contradicting comments were made by informants as well. For example, while P8 claimed that "*I would not enter the hills when it gets dark. It has no lighting, it has no security, I have not seen policing*", P6 said that "*the area has policing at all hours*". Another informant added that "*small-scale criminality is a more general phenomenon, which is not specific to Philopappos (. . .) There was a gang on the hill that robbed tourists and worked in Thiseio and Monastiraki at the same time. There are gangs that steal but they are everywhere (. . .)*" [P1]. Similar comments were made by P3, who suggested that "*criminality is a common phenomenon of Athens in general, but it is not characteristic of the hills*". It was also reported by the informants that there is no separate file in the police station regarding the incidents taking place in the archaeological site, and therefore there is not a clear picture of how much the area affects the overall existing situation. Citizens, who visit the area, argued that small-scale criminality is usual in the centre of Athens and increases with the presence of tourists.

4.7 Citizens' Contribution: Incentives

During the works of unification and promotion of the archaeological sites of Athens for the Olympic Games in 2004, a fence was placed in the area. That meant that the hills would operate on schedule and be part of the single ticket of the consolidation sites. Residents of areas adjacent to the hills reacted convening an assembly and forming the Philopappos movement. It is pointed out that the hills are used as a place of "walk and recreation (. . .), at least during the last century" (filopappou.wordpress.com) not only by the inhabitants of the nearby areas but also by visitors who come from other municipalities of Attica. For several years, residents in the context of open assemblies dislocated parts of the fence, which were repositioned by the public company EAHA until 2005. Part of the fencing continued to be dislocated until about 2008. Some parts were restored, while many were left without railings so that the access to the hills is unimpeded until today. In 2008, the Minister of Culture approved "the designation of the archaeological site of Philopappos as an organised archaeological site (L.3028/2002, article 46, par. 1) demarcated and fenced with functional guarded entrances, open throughout the day and closed at night (. . .), for the protection of the monuments and the natural environment of the archaeological site, as well as for the proper operation of the site and the aesthetic and cultural upgrade of the quality of life of Athenians, according to the following terms: a) admission will be free without a ticket, b) the guarding of the space will be on a 24-hour basis (24), and c) it will be possible to operate the Pikionis pavilion during certain night hours".

According to this decision, the site would be open only during the day and would be closed at night. This ban on access prompted residents to turn to the Council of State the same year for annulment. In 2015, their application was partially accepted and it was clarified that the closure of the archaeological site during the night is "an inappropriate measure to prevent fires", that "the gatherings of the inhabitants inside the archeological site, as well as the reported damage to the fence, does not appear to

Fig. 4 Parts of the Tourist Pavilion of Agios Dimitrios, confirming the existence of homeless. Abandonment and stench prevail, April 2021

be causing damage to its monuments, and therefore does not appear to justify the measure itself" and that "the organized archeological site will be open throughout the day and the entrance to it will be free without a ticket" (filopappou.wordpress.com).

The community has tackled issues of encroaching on the archaeological site and securing its natural environment. In 2004, with reports to public authorities, the residents requested an inspection of the Lombardiaris pavilion, the restaurant "Dionysos" and some construction work that contributed to the cutting of trees. In 2005, the Ephorate of Modern Monuments of Attica confirmed with its report that "(. . .) The back of the pavilion, which is not included in Pikioni's project on the Philopappos hill, but is located within the archeological site, has indeed been illegally fenced by the tenants (. . .)" (Report of the Ephorate of Modern Monuments of Attica, 6/4/2004). In April 2005, two residents filed a lawsuit against those responsible for the situation in the shelter. The manager was convicted and fined. Since then, the Tourist Pavilion of Agios Dimitrios remains unused, despite the requests of the committee of the Philopappos movement for its reopening, provided that its original use as a place of gathering, entertainment and rest will be maintained (see Fig. 4). In fact, in a report sent by the committee to the Minister of Culture and the Mayor of Athens in 2007, they raised the issue of the pavilion, but also that of the maintenance of the Acropolis–Philopappos works of Dimitris Pikionis.

In the case of "Dionysos", the citizens made acute efforts to conduct an autopsy to determine whether the expansion of its facilities is illegal or not. For several years, they sent complaints to the City Planning service of Athens, the archaeological services, and the Corps of Public Administration Inspectors. Only in 2007, the City Planning Department of Athens was forced to investigate the matter, following a prosecutor's order issued by the residents. The Department discovered arbitrariness and imposed fines on the restaurant, while in 2012 it was found that the violations in the area reach 430 sq. m., of which 126 sq. m. was the result of an illegal excavation. However, the issue has not yet been resolved. Citizens have also suggested that part of the restaurant rent be used to maintain the hills; something that has not been implemented so far.

The residents have contributed significantly over the years by planting trees and taking care of their adequate watering, especially during the summer months; a fact that had led to a trial of three persons due to an accusation of the competent archaeological service. Their activity in securing the flora continued even after the ban, which has been quoted above. Residents' steering committee of Philopappos began their action in 2002 when the issue of fencing was raised and emerged through open assemblies. The committee investigates issues related to the hills. In case of a serious problem, it convenes meetings to communicate it to the world. Meetings are announced via email to a wide range of residents and take place in open access areas. The committee promotes their work through a blog, which is accessible via the internet, and through its participation in programmes and events. A notable example is the participation in the 18th meeting of the International Network for Urban Research and Action (INURA), which took place in Athens in October 2004. In addition, their action has been announced through publications.

The research revealed the existence of another initiative of citizens, which focuses on securing public spots in Athens. Interviewees who do not belong to any of the collectives and visit the archaeological site for a walk, try to keep it clean during their stay. The participants who act via collectives are driven by their community attachment, from which comes their love for the city and the desire to secure the public character of the archaeological site. In addition, they act due to their environmental values and the awareness of the need to protect cultural goods. Informants focus on environmental protection because it "*contributes to the good profile of the city*" [P4] and "*helps to highlight the area*" [P9], while others are driven by ecological awareness and respect to the archaeological site.

5 Conclusion and Implications

The aim of this study was to examine how residents in Athens visiting the archaeological site of Philopappos perceive sustainable development and whether they contribute to sustainability through cultural tourism. Overall, findings reveal that for informants, sustainability relates to the protection of the environment and resources for future generations. While greater emphasis was placed on environmental sustainability, important insights may be drawn regarding the sustainability of the cultural tourism aspect.

The site under study may not be regarded as a typical cultural resource used for tourism. There are financial benefits that may be derived due to the presence of tourists only in the case of the restaurant “Dionysos”; however, it operates without respecting the archaeological site. This comes in contrast with the sustainable goals of securing natural landscape and cultural heritage. In addition, the archaeological area does not receive special care and attention on the part of public authorities; the abandonment of the church of Agios Dimitrios and its Tourist Pavilion—both declared monuments—are indicative of this. Graffiti and garbage waste from the locals also spoil the area. As such, visitors do not realise the historical importance of the place. The lack of transmission of historical knowledge and the inadequate management of the sensitive area of the hills do not agree with the aspirations of cultural tourism and disclose the absence of sustainable practices.

Tourists do not seem to negatively affect the daily life of residents. This of course can be justified by the fact that the site has not been developed as much as it could; thus, a conclusion may not be drawn as to whether tourism activities are carried out disrespectfully to the inhabitants. The issue that arose in the interviews is that of guarding and policing. Phenomena of petty crime concern the entire historic centre of the city. In terms of sustainability, this problem runs counter to social sustainability.

The purpose of this study was to highlight citizens’ role in sustainability through cultural tourism. It appears that citizens’ participation is related to the viability and survival of the archaeological site and its survival consists of securing its natural landscape, the restoration of monuments and the delimitation of the operation of the businesses. Residents’ involvement does not stem from their positive or negative perception of the impact of tourism, but from place attachment. As such, the findings reveal the need for a more responsible management of the site. This archaeological area has the potential to become one of the most interesting touristic attractions in Athens, bringing considerable economic benefits, which in turn could contribute to the protection of the natural and cultural landscape of the city. Well-thought-out planning and management by competent public services is therefore vital. Specific emphasis should thus be given to the:

- Restoration and maintenance of monuments—reopening of Lombardiaris Tourist Pavilion.
- Remediation and protection of the environment.
- Definition of an operating framework for the enterprises to avoid arbitrariness and carrying out inspections.
- Maintenance of safety conditions.
- Security of citizens’ daily habits, who visit the hills for leisure and rest.
- Promotion of hills and facilities included—highlighting the theatre.

Interestingly, the study showcased that there is a group of citizens who know the particularities and needs of the area and have ideas that can contribute to its development. The site may not be an example of a cultural resource managed within a sustainable development concept framework, but it provides a fertile ground for implementing the sustainable development agenda. It is, hence, proposed that the competent public bodies of culture and tourism of destinations cooperate with the local community for the development of strategies aiming at the restoration, usage, and touristic promotion of archaeological sites. Residents, having rich knowledge and experience of the area, can minimise possible negative impacts of site exploitation with their involvement in decision-making processes.

The management of a cultural good is inherently complex and raises the question of whether it should be public or private. A possible privatisation of the cultural site under study would probably deprive the residents of a vital natural resource. Such an approach may be disrespectful to local people and respecting local communities' needs and wants is one of the main objectives of sustainable tourism. It is thus crucial to establish sufficient mechanisms to ensure the equal involvement of a variety of stakeholders including the local community in tourism decision-making processes. Taking residents' perceptions into consideration can prevent the overuse of resources upon which they rely, while allowing them to express their opinions and define their needs to ensure a more sustainable tourism development. It is recommended that further research is conducted to find out a way of preserving and utilising archaeological sites in the direction of environmental, social, cultural and economic sustainability. This would contribute to the revival of city centres such as the one in Athens, and at the same time, to the upgrading of the existing cultural tourism product. It is important that sites similar to the Philopappos example are recognised as valuable resources and development levers to be used as a framework of collaboration between tourism-cultural authorities and residents towards sustainable development.

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Sustainable Development and Gender Equality: Empowerment Through Solo Female Travel Experiences

Suzan Bakry Hassan and Aya Khaled Damir

1 Introduction

In the quest of eliminating poverty, protecting our planet and minimising inequalities, the United Nations launched the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in 2015, which incorporates 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to be achieved by 2030 (UN, 2015). Sustainable development addresses the economic, social, and environmental impacts of any activity and is defined as "development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (UN, 2015). According to the World Tourism Organisation the tourism industry may contribute to sustainable development by promoting the protection of socio-cultural authenticity of host societies, the preservation of the environment and its biodiversity, the fair distribution of economic opportunities, tourists' satisfaction as well as their meaningful experience (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005). Sustainable tourism development may address the needs of multiple stakeholders, including those of host communities, industries, and visitors, while taking into account the needs of future generations (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005). However, intergenerational equality would not suffice without achieving equality between men and women (Lohani & Aburaida, 2017). Moreover, adopting gender-sensitive programmes and policies is necessary to attract female tourists.

In fact, women empowerment is a crucial factor towards achieving sustainability, as exemplified by the inclusion of "Gender Equality" (SDG 5) in the 17 SDGs of the Agenda 2030. The Agenda highlights the importance of achieving gender equality through empowering women and girls. The specific targets of SDG5 include

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eliminating discrimination against women and girls and different forms of violence, ensuring women's full participation in leadership and access to economic resources, their empowerment through technology and strengthening policies for gender equality (UN Women, 2021). Moreover, the "leave no one behind" agenda stresses on the importance of intersectionality between different goals; hence, gender equality as a key element in creating sustainable development overall (Alarcón & Cole, 2019).

Despite the importance of women empowerment in achieving sustainability in tourism, women have been mainly addressed in intergovernmental reports as service providers (Alarcón & Cole, 2019). Nevertheless, women constitute a huge proportion of travellers as almost two-thirds of today's travellers are women (Stengel, 2017). In addition, Solo-Traveller (2020) asserted that Google searches for "solo women travel" increased by 230% in 2019. The popularity of this market segment encourages many tourism destinations to market their products, especially for women (Marzuki et al., 2012; Osman et al., 2020). Therefore, providing gender-sensitive services for female solo-travellers is crucial to ensure sustainability in tourism. However, sustainable development could not be ensured if women's experiences do not follow a human rights approach that considers their empowerment journey (Alarcón & Cole, 2019). In order to do so, multiple studies have investigated the motivations, risks, constraints of solo female travellers and the process of their empowerment (e.g. Seow & Brown, 2018; Su & Wu, 2020; Wilson & Little, 2005).

Even so, much of pertinent literature is on Asian and Western women (Su & Wu, 2020; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b). Although some studies attempted to investigate the intersectionality between Islam and solo female travel (Oktadiana et al., 2020; Ratthinan & Selamat, 2018), the voices of women from the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region have been largely silent. Therefore, this study seeks to fill the gap in the literature by examining socio-cultural norms, social support and observed religious identity (wearing Hijab), which affect the habitus of women's decision-making process and travel experience. Drawing from Egyptian solo female travellers, the chapter provides a comprehensive illustration of the factors that empower or disempower women in relation to Kabeer's model of empowerment. Accordingly, this study interrogates solo travelling not only in the pursuit of leisure but also takes into account businesses and student female solo-travel as they are used as negotiation strategies to resist socio-cultural gender barriers towards solo travelling (Harris & Wilson, 2007; Osman et al., 2020). Thus, the motives, constraints, and resources impacting their decision-making as well as their risk-mitigating strategies are presented in detail.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Women Empowerment

Empowerment is a process of giving power to the more vulnerable to help them break from restraints and take control over their lives; it could be achieved through capacitating individuals with the necessary skills, knowledge, resources, networks, and tools to gain control over the factors and decisions that shape their lives (UN DESA, 2013). Correspondingly, women empowerment refers to the "process by which women gain power and control over their own lives and acquire the ability to make strategic choices" (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2021). In order to achieve this, women must have an internal sense of self-worth, have the right to make choices, access resources, and have power over their lives as well as contribute in creating social change (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2021). Power takes multiple forms; it encompasses the form of "power to" act yet it is also the "power within" that allows one to act (Gaventa, 2006).

One of the most widely used models for examining Women Empowerment is Kabeer's model. Kabeer (1999) explained that in order to empower women to make life choices, three main factors must exist: resources, agency, and outcomes. Resources include financial capacity, social networks, and human resources such as tools, skills, and knowledge. Agency refers to the decision-making process, including negotiation ability and motive to act. Women's agency allows them to negotiate constraints, as agency extends beyond women gaining control over their lives and encompasses having a sense of entitlement in doing so (Mishra & Tripathi, 2011). Finally, outcomes include the occurrence of women's desired goals. To assess outcomes, it is important to take the available resources into consideration as they could have a direct impact on the achievement of women's goals and their empowerment (i.e. outcome).

Women travel on their own in a quest for empowerment, self-discovery, discovering the world, forming new friendships, gaining control over their lives, and testing their capabilities (Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Osman et al., 2020; Pereira & Silva, 2018; Seow & Brown, 2018). However, women are often confronted with risks in their travels and constraints which might affect their empowerment journey, including gendered cultural norms in their home countries or risk of harassment in tourist destinations (Seow & Brown, 2018; Wilson & Little, 2005). Therefore, pre-existing inequalities could affect the risks that women face in their travels (Hasin & Musa, 2018; Kabeer, 1999; Karl, 1995). Moreover, in negotiating risks, the women empowerment outcome might be affected as women might develop a sense of empowerment, yet in the failure to act, women might feel less empowered (Jordan & Gibson, 2005; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b).

2.2 Women Empowerment Through Solo Female Travel

Literature on women empowerment through solo female travelling has been increasing, focusing primarily on women's travel experiences (e.g. Su & Wu, 2020; Wilson & Little, 2005; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b). Specifically, women's motive to travel alone, related barriers and risks as well as the risk-mitigating strategies adopted by women have been investigated (Osman et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b). Solo female travel experiences contribute to women's growing self-confidence and inner strength to deal with the world, which is in turn perceived by women as an achievement (Jordan & Gibson, 2005; Seow & Brown, 2018). Thus, following Kabeer's (1999) model of empowerment, pertinent studies identify the reasons predisposing women to travel as reflective of the desired outcomes of women empowerment through solo female travelling while potential constraints represent the required absent resources. In addition, risk-mitigating strategies are indicative of women's negotiating ability, namely agency. These factors are examined in detail below.

2.2.1 Motives to Travel

Women's motivation to travel extends from inner self-discovery into discovering the world itself. Pereira and Silva (2018) analysed the literature and divided women's motivation to travel into escapism; finding a sense of identity and personal development; challenging one's self; meeting new people and connecting with others; searching for a learning experience; seeking adventurous moments; searching for a new life perspective, and seeking autonomy. Chiang and Jogaratnam (2006) asserted that the five main motivational factors were experiences (experiencing a different culture, way of life), escape, relax, social and self-esteem. Seow and Brown (2018) suggest the importance of escape from responsibilities as a motivation for women to travel on their own. Likewise, Osman et al. (2020) found that important factors for Vietnamese female students were freedom, flexibility, self-empowerment, independence, exploration, curiosity about the outside world, interacting with the local community and having an inner journey of self-growth. Moreover, social interaction is a major driver for solo-travel and a central experiential feature of a solo trip (Bianchi, 2016). Therefore, the transformative experience, freedom, and flexibility that solo travelling offers are a main motive for women (Yang, 2020). Other motivations include visiting specific destinations or meeting friends and family (McNamara & Prideaux, 2010). However, in other instances, solo travelling could be by default due to the absence of a partner (Yang, 2020).

2.2.2 Constraints to Solo Female Travelling

Constraints are factors that "inhibit people's ability to participate in leisure activities, to spend more time doing so, to take advantage of leisure services, or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction" (Jackson, 1988, p. 203). Women face multiple constraints before their travels and during their trips, for instance, gendered cultural constraints might prevent women from travelling while safety and security constraints might affect the routes and destinations which women choose (Dolničar & Dickson, 2004; Khan et al., 2017; Wilson & Harris, 2006). In fact, multiple studies have examined the types of constraints faced by female solo travellers. For instance, Wilson and Little (2005) classified constraints into socio-cultural constraints from their home and host societies due to gender norms and prejudice against female solo travelling; women's personal beliefs and perceptions, including fear and self-doubt; practical constraints such as lack of knowledge about the destinations, time and money; and spatial restrictions such as limited destination choices or activities due to their gender.

Similarly, gendered socio-cultural norms affect women from different races and at different times of their lives. For Asian women, the mere idea of solo travelling was considered as resisting socio-cultural norms of the traditional Asian culture, which perceives women solo travelling as dangerous (Osman et al., 2020; Seow & Brown, 2018). Moreover, married women and mothers from different cultures face barriers towards solo travelling due to their expected gender roles and responsibilities (Su & Wu, 2020; Wilson & Little, 2005). Also, the disapproval and concerns on women's travel plans intensify their fear and vulnerability either because it is socially unacceptable for a woman to travel on her own or too dangerous. In addition, the pre-travel constraints on solo-Western female travellers and their inner personal fears from travelling on their own do not only affect their access to certain regions but also create a preceptory anxiety (Wilson & Little, 2008). Conversely, McNamara and Prideaux (2010) showed that female solo-travellers are not fearful in general, but rather it is the safety of the destination that affects their action. Thus, while the possibility of occurrence of certain risks in destinations affects the safety of the destination, it could also affect women's travel choices.

2.2.3 Risks Facing Women on Their Travels

Travelling encompasses multiple activities which pertain a certain degree of risk (Mawby, 2014; Yang & Nair, 2014). Risk is defined as the possibility of occurrence of a certain threat, danger, or something unwelcomed (Battistelli & Galantino, 2019; Fischhoff et al., 1984; Xie et al., 2021). Risk can take multiple forms, such as theft, harassment, accidents, injury, etc. Travellers usually assess risk from multiple aspects, including the possibility of the occurrence of a crime, political unrest, disease, environmental disasters and degree of sanitation in the destinations. Other risks associated with travelling include the risk of not receiving the agreed upon service as well as other everyday risks such as mugging or road accidents (Rossello & Saenz-de-Miera, 2011). Therefore, if certain risks occur, they might act as a constraint and hinder women's journey of empowerment. Risk is caused not only due to external factors but also by internal psychological ones. Therefore, perceived risk is highly subjective and differs from one individual to another (Mirehie et al., 2020; Yang & Nair, 2014). Mowen and Minor (1998) explained that perceived risk depends on people's perception and on their assessment of possible negative outcomes.

While women face risk-related security issues in specific destinations, they suffer from gendered risk as well (McNamara & Prideaux, 2010; Wilson & Little, 2005). Women face various levels of harassment during their trips, from whistling or catcalling to incidents of rape threat. Intersectionality between being a Western female and a solo-traveller has intensified sexual risk as some women are considered as sexually "available" (Wilson & Little, 2005). Moreover, Asian women were harassed due to their race (Seow & Brown, 2018). This results in unwanted attention during their travel and a sense of consciousness (Seow & Brown, 2018; Wilson & Little, 2005; Wilson & Little, 2008). Due to these perceived harassments risks, safety, and security constraints affect the routes and destinations which women choose (Mowen & Minor, 1998; Wilson & Little, 2005). Therefore, a significant relationship between women's subjective fear of the occurrence of a certain risk and the constraints that women face exists. Moreover, women's internal fear also acts as a constraint that prevents them from fully enjoying their trips (Wilson & Little, 2008). Nevertheless, this does not prevent women from negotiating them and giving up on their empowerment journey.

2.2.4 Negotiating Risks and Constraints

Studies into solo female travel uncover that negotiating constraints and facing risks provide an empowering journey for women (Doran, 2016; Seow & Brown, 2018; Valaja, 2018; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b). From the moment women embark on their travel, they challenge themselves and negotiate their internal fear and self-doubt, which increases their confidence, self-growth, and strength (Harris & Wilson, 2007). In order to negotiate pre-travel constraints, women plan their trips carefully, considering their transportation, touristic sites, timeframe and accommodation, getting health insurance, checking the reliability of services and safety of areas, etc. (Ngwira et al., 2020; Su & Wu, 2020). Additionally, technology enables them to choose destinations, plan their trips and read reviews on safety (Oktadiana et al., 2020)

As for negotiating risks during their travels, cultural adaptation, including dressing modestly and ignoring catcalling, are some of women's strategies (Ngwira et al., 2020). However, other women use a different approach to decide to defend themselves and take action against the perpetrators (Su & Wu, 2020). Women also create a safe space for themselves in touristic destinations by wearing less revealing clothes or avoiding certain locations or activities (Doran, 2016; Seow & Brown, 2018; Valaja, 2018; Yang et al., 2018b). From another perspective, this is viewed as a relative freedom and escape as women have to refrain from certain activities, such as walking alone at night. Additionally, their inner fear prevents them from fully indulging in their solo-travel (Su & Wu, 2020). Nevertheless, mobility across different cultures is empowering for them (Choudhury, 2009). Engaging in group activities is also another approach used by women to overcome loneliness. (Valaja, 2018; Yang et al., 2018b).

Business female solo travellers negotiate pre-travel constraints through travelling for short durations. Moreover, solo travelling increases their self-confidence due to the respect they gained from their social circle, the challenges they faced and increased their networking opportunities (Wilson & Harris, 2006). As for women engaging in adventure tourism, they adopt multiple strategies to negotiate constraints, including using their motivation for adventure tourism as a driver; planning and preparing to ensure their safety, and allocating sufficient time to engage in sports despite gendered responsibilities. Their participation in adventure tourism empowers them due to the sense of freedom and escapism, physically challenging their bodies, forming new friendships, gaining new skills, self-development, and growing in confidence (Doran, 2016). Therefore, solo female travelling is seen as a voluntary risk-taking achievement (Wilson & Harris, 2006; Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b).

3 Methodology

3.1 Sampling and Procedures

This study investigated the perspective of Egyptian solo female travellers using Kabeer's (1999) proposed women empowerment framework wherein: a) the resources used by solo female travellers include methods for getting information on the trip and the existence of supportive networks as well as other financial and/or human resources, b) agency refers to female travellers' motive to travel and decision-making processes including their negotiation strategies before and during their trips and c) the outcomes of their travel experiences are evaluated through an examination of the impacts of solo-travel on females in light of their transformative effect and the risk conditions faced which could lead to disempowerment. Additionally, the motive of women to travel was assessed as well as their agency which predisposes women to act and negotiate risks and constraints to assess if travelling meets their expectations or not. A qualitative approach was followed through conducting in-depth, semi-structured interviews (Longhurst, 2009). This method was chosen as the most appropriate for collecting data allowing the in-depth exploration of the experiences, motives, and perspectives of women (Osman et al., 2020; Rubin & Rubin, 2011).

The sample was selected in a purposive non-random method and was done through volunteers who responded to our call for participants on Facebook and who offered to share their experiences. Sampling criteria were flexible; however, the main criteria were being Egyptian females who finished university education and travelled at least once alone. In accordance with Osman et al. (2020) and Ratthinan and Selamat (2018), interviews were carried out with 12 females on the telephone due to the restrictions imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic, which was worsening during the time of the data collection. Nine of the participants had solo-travelled more than once, where participant 7 travelled to 14 countries on her own. Therefore, the selection criteria allowed us to investigate the gradual progress that solo-travel had on these females as well as compare it with the others who travelled only once on their own.

The interview language fluctuated between English and Arabic, whichever was more convenient to the researcher and the participants; however, statements expressed in Arabic were translated to English. The duration of the interview ranged from 30–90 minutes. The profile of the interviewees can be seen in Table 1. The age of the participants ranged from 23–30 while the countries travelled were mainly in Asia, Europe, and Africa. The duration of their travel ranged from a few days to a

Table 1 Profile of interviewees

Participant number	Age	Solo female travel destinations	Maximum duration	Purpose of travel	Age when started travelling
Participant 1	27	London	5 weeks	Training	22
Participant 2	24	Thailand USA	2 months 2 weeks	Volunteering	20
Participant 3	27	France–Germany Italy–Switzerland–Macedonia South Africa–Tanzania–Kenya–Rwanda-Zimbabwe–Uganda–Senegal–Ghana–Nigeria–Burkina Faso	2 weeks 7–15 days each	Leisure Work	25
Participant 4	24	India	6 weeks	Volunteering	19
Participant 5	27	India Rome USA	6 weeks 3 days 1year	Volunteering Leisure Study	24
Participant 6	27	UK France–Belgium–Brussels–Amsterdam Budapest–Germany	One year 2 weeks on average	Studying, Conference and Leisure	22
Participant 7	23	New Zealand–Russia–England–Switzerland–Germany–Czech Republic–Turkey–Solomon Islands–Republic of Vanuatu–Spain–Netherlands–Italy–Japan–UAE	1 week on average Up to 45 days	Work meetings Attending programmes Leisure	19
Participant 8	25	India Bahrain Morocco	One year 20 days 17–18 days	Volunteer & Work	19
Participant 9	25	Malaysia	One year	Work	24
Participant 10	30	Balkans Europe	2 weeks 10 days	Leisure	28
Participant 11	24	Germany–Czech Republic–Slovenia–Italy	3 weeks	Academic purposes Leisure	21
Participant 12	26	Dubai	1 year	Work	24

year, with 33% of the sample having lived for one year abroad to work or study, yet one of their motives was to solo-travel and overcome gender constraints which was expressed in their replies.

In order to take into account intersectionality between religion, solo female travelling and risks, the demographic feature of wearing a veil was taken into consideration. The purpose of travel varied significantly across the participants and it included work, trainings, conferences, tourism, cultural exchange, and leisure.

4 Findings

In attempting to understand women's solo-travel experiences, four key themes were investigated: motivation to travel; constraints and risks faced; negotiation strategies; and empowerment.

4.1 Motivation to Travel

The interviewed women travelled for multiple purposes such as tourism, work, or volunteering. Nevertheless, their motivation to travel included discovering new cultures and places; meeting new people; challenging themselves; gaining perspective; achieving self-discovery and freedom from constraints, both psychological and physical. *"I wanted to get out of my comfort zone ... get put in situations where I have to act and communicate" commented participant 3.* Their travel interest and thirst for adventure encouraged them to travel alone. *"If you travel with your parents it would be constraining...friends also don't have the same mindset...are they open to knowing new people or not"? commented participant 1.* Likewise, *participant 10 said "I do not like laid back people in travelling"* Moreover, many of the females wanted to meet other people and listen to their stories. As participant 10 stated:

> ...solo travel gives you an opportunity to talk with other solo travelers...to discover other people, and the country in a different context. The experience is totally different ...kind of makes you more flexible...broadens your perspective.

Self-discovery was an important driver in women's journeys as some wanted solitude in order to know who they truly are and if they would be happy on their own. *"I wanted to test my values... I am not me...I wanted to know who I am..."* argued participant 9. Likewise participant 6 mentioned "*I wanted* to *have solid grounds about myself even if my background changes*" Moreover, it was important to challenge and depend on themselves to see how they would act on their own. As participant 5 argued, *"No one was coming with me...what if I am alone will I manage? ...how will I deal with it? ... part of our personality pops up ... in our community eventually we are dependent"*. For some, travelling was important for getting the life they wanted, whether it was a step to feel empowered and strong or take the decision to live on their own. In the words of participant 9, *"I wanted to live on my own ...at peace...to decorate my home ...make big decisions... in Egypt we live with our families...follow your parents*". Others believed that through travelling they unplug and seek peace of mind following hardship in their lives. Thus, as opposed to seeing this as escapism from their problems, female travellers saw this as an opportunity to solve them. It is with no doubt that women sought freedom in their travels to the extent that they might have attempted to take risks more than others. In some of the instances, they even decided to not plan their trips. *"I was always the person who had a plan ...I wanted something unstructured...no specific accommodation...plane ticket flexible"* said participant 6.

4.2 Constraints and Risks

Gendered socio-cultural constraints were not prevalent for most of the interviewed women, as many of them mentioned that they were not raised to think that they cannot do something because they are females. The main constraint identified was fear constraint due to the protective nature of their parents as well as gender safety constraints. While some asserted that their mothers encouraged them to travel solo, others mentioned that their fathers were excited and wanted them to explore the world despite their mothers' fears. "*My Dad was very supportive because he always thought I would immigrate…I told him I will deliver my passport in the embassy tomorrow…he was like great…my Mom was afraid…My Dad is the decision-maker in the house"* said participant 7. This is quite interesting because it is mostly presumed that men as sole decision-makers would adopt a protective and patriarchal nature with their daughters and prevent them from travelling.

In addition to pre-travel constraints, female travellers came across multiple incidents that put them at risk in their travel destinations. Even though the sexual risk is predominant in the literature, a few women reported incidents of sexual harassment. *"Some harass you… …the customs officer told me I will give you my number in the passport*" commented participant 3. For most of the interviewed females, sexual risk was not main threat in their travels. Some attributed this to the country, while others indicated that it was the kindness of people that made them feel safe. As participant 2 said, *"I wasn't afraid about harassment after the first three days… … …the people were very-very-very kind there was nothing to make me afraid"*. Others did not perceive that they would be harassed and felt fear of harassment after travelling and experiencing such incidents. *"It is a different type of harassment … I wasn't expecting it, no one will stop you in the street in Egypt and ask for your Instagram"* mentioned participant 11.

Interestingly, the majority feared mostly crimes such as losing their belongings or getting robbed. *"In the train…there were people who looked at each other and winked at me, my money was in my backpack…if I slept, they might have robbed me…I was really afraid…I couldn't sleep…I changed my seat…"* said participant 10. Another risk facing female solo travellers was related to wearing the Hijab. Some of the veiled women interviewed reported incidents of Islamophobia as this intersectionality exacerbated their vulnerability. The words of participant 6 and participant 5 indicate this vulnerability:

> …when you are alone if you are in a place where you don't belong to, there's this gaze where's the bomb that will make us explode", "I was on a bus with a friend and there was an old man… we were looking at one another and I smiled when we eye contacted…the fourth time…he started yelling at me and said Islamophobic stuff…I trembled…I feel tense from this now…It was disempowering, it wasn't equal power, someone felt that he is … supreme…I couldn't reply, even now I do not know what I should have said.

The other risks identified were related to services such as transportation or accommodation's expectations. For instance, a participant felt unsafe in a hostel because there were teenage boys who offered her drugs. Finally, the language barrier constituted a major risk for women. For example one of the participant's bag got stolen and as she could not speak the language, she could not communicate easily with people to help her. It is also worth noting that women's constraints in their original habitus affected their trips as one of the participants was afraid that her parents might blame her if she put herself in risky situations that resulted in a negative outcome, i.e. occurrence of a risk. As for gender incidents, only one of the participants reported that a police officer at a train station made her feel unequal because she could not speak the language and kept asking for her male friend, who was previously with her and was translating for her. *"He made me feel like I am not adult enough . . ."* commented participant 6.

4.3 Negotiation Strategies

Most of the participants held a firm belief towards their right to travel and used their agency to overcome constraints. *". . . I am independent, and my mom is independent . . . we do not have the approach that I am a girl we'll tell you what to do even my dad was like that"* said participant 9. Moreover, the interviewed women had encouraging networks that helped and supported their travel plans. To deal with their parents' concerns, the female travellers used four strategies. Firstly, they would travel with work, volunteer abroad, attend programmes or conferences, and extend their stay, which created a safety feeling for the parents, whereas the realisation of the importance of the opportunities offered made them encourage their daughters to travel alone. Thus, success in their professional life led to increased trust in their personal life with regard to solo travelling. In the words of participants:

> When you get approved in a programme abroad, parents are encouraged to support you to travel alone when they realise they cannot compensate you with the opportunity of travelling and all of this experience . . . [participant 2]

> My father was very proud that my paper got accepted. . .he wanted me to go and explore. . . he is proud that I will create something [participant 6]

Secondly, females used a gradual approach while travelling; for example they would travel the first time with a group of friends or a volunteering or educational programme before embarking on their solo trips. A third strategy that was adopted by the female travellers was showing initiatives by searching for opportunities or working to fund part of the trip or even searching for a scholarship to cover their expenses. *"I travelled on my own. . .I was sitting 24/7 searching for free travel opportunities. . . everything was paid only the plane ticket wasn't paid... I kept on trying with my university until they accepted to pay for the plane ticket. . .do not wait for the privilege"* suggested participant 7. Taking initiatives also took other forms. For instance, some of the females paid for their trips, booked their flight tickets, got visa appointments even when their parents were still hesitant. Finally, women took a lot of time towards planning their trips by asking their friends and network to help them or doing a lot of research. *"…my friend was worried so he helped me…I did an itinerary and wrote everything, addresses, schedules, buses…"* said participant 10. Similarly, participant 5 added *"My dad needed certain check points to feel that I am safe…I created a contact list…who knows me in the city I am travelling to, where am I, and how he can reach me if my phone doesn't work".*

4.4 Empowerment

Despite the risks they encountered, female travellers mentioned to have become more empowered and enjoyed risky and insecure situations, which set a new norm for them. In the words of participant 3, *"I love the idea of risk…Going to the airport, arriving not knowing what to do, there is something really good about it"*. On a similar note, participant 7 stated, *"I enjoy the things I do not plan…what are the odds of something bad happening...I feel proud that I managed it without a sim card or money or language… I can manage anywhere*". Additionally, the feeling of strength came gradually as some needed more than one solo trip or a few days trips and even some risky activities, which helped them to realise that fear is something internal in their mindset that they need to overcome. *"I started walking aimlessly in the middle of the night… I realized it was fun … it wasn't a safe environment and I made it on my own…I felt free… once I let go of the constraint that I am lost and have to get back home I felt free and empowered"* said participant 7 on the moment that encouraged her during one of her group trips to travel on her own afterwards. Likewise, participant 6, who wears a veil, described when *"…someone did a gun gesture with their fingers in the underground…you can either mourn about racism or continue with what you do and create great stuff*". *."* It is also worth noting that women transformed risky situations into their own safe space in the words of participant 3". *"… the Uber driver told me are you not afraid? … you are alone and do not know anyone here … the road was dark and it was raining … but I got used to it*". For these women, solo travelling helped them become more independent and courageous yet made them realise their psychological and physical weaknesses at the same time. *"I planned to hike but it's difficult alone…"* said participant 3.

Solo travelling also gave the interviewed women perspective and made them capable of assessing situations, understanding people and themselves better and solving their problems. *"Facing your own thoughts and reflecting is a tough journey, you never get to do that by your own will… I never took time to see where I am socially and emotionally … travelling made me more at peace with myself"* commented participant 5. Some women have decided to empower those around them after they felt empowered as the impact of solo travelling changed their lives.

To overcome risks women used several strategies, such as seeking help from others. While this could show that women were not independent it is in fact the contrary, as participant 7 mentioned: *"On your own does not mean being totally alone, it means you are not familiar with the environment and the people…not that* *you do not ask for help"*. Moreover, in some instances, gender disparities might have in fact helped women as one of them mentioned that people get very empathetic when they see solo female travellers. Another strategy was seeking the company of others by walking in groups in places that might be unsafe. Therefore, the experience was truly rewarding for women and created a sense of achievement for them. *"... I can't believe I did this ... it is something out of the ordinary... your mind can't believe it ... something overwhelming"* as stated by participant 11.

In conclusion, this transfer of power was positively overwhelming for women, and it empowered them to the extent that they might have not believed it, which is considered as an achievement. Nevertheless, the availability of financial resources in cases of women funding part of their trips, opportunities abroad and planning as well as knowledge and skills, resources and social support acquired encouraged them to travel. However, undertaking trips, facing risks and tailoring their trips would not have been achieved without utilising their agency. Therefore, solo travel truly represents an empowering journey for women, one which increased their strength, independence, and self-awareness as well as helped them believe in themselves.

5 Conclusion and Implications

This study aimed to contribute to the literature on solo travelling through an understanding of an under-represented segment, which is Egyptian female solo travellers. The results showed that the motivation of women for solo travel extended from discovering themselves, gaining perspective towards discovering the world and meeting new people. These women were encouraged by their networks and used the help and advice of friends to plan their trips. The major constraint confronting them was their parent's fear of their safety, which they overcame by applying for programmes, volunteering, attending conferences or even working abroad to have a connection with people in the country they were travelling to. They have also faced multiple risks and constraints on their trips, such as racism and crime risks. Moreover, overcoming risky situations made them feel powerful to the extent that sometimes they no longer felt afraid.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

This study advances knowledge of how solo female travel may contribute to sustainable tourism development by helping to achieve SDG5. Accordingly, this chapter contributes to tourism literature by clarifying the most important factors that affect the motivation and agency of female travellers and their willingness to make travel and tourism decisions which are important for their empowerment and, hence, for gender equality. In addition, it contributes to extant literature by enhancing knowledge on solo female travellers as it focused on women in the MENA region.

Specifically, this study contributes to the literature by examining socio-cultural and gender norms, social support, and observed religious identity (wearing Hijab) that influence the nature of women's decision-making and travel experience. Given that multiple factors affect tourists, including perceived destination image, religiosity, cosmopolitanism, satisfaction, and loyalty affects (Mohamed et al., 2020), this study expanded existing knowledge by undertaking an analysis on the impact of religious attire (Hijab) on Muslim females' travel experience. It also bridges the gap in the literature as it provides a true and comprehensive picture of the factors that enable or impair solo female travellers from the MENA region to become empowered through travelling. It also took into account the use of business and study travel as negotiation strategies to combat social and cultural barriers towards female solo travel.

5.2 Practical Implications

In order to encourage solo female travel, destinations must apply destination social responsibility (DSR) initiatives, as these affect the reputation of the destination. Such initiatives enhance tourist confidence of the destination by emphasising various dimensions such as the moral values of the destination and its stakeholders (Hassan & Soliman, 2021). Thus, destination managers and marketers should develop effective strategies by ensuring that the dimensions of the DSR (environmental, economic, legal, and ethical responsibilities) are well publicised and considered. By improving the destination's reputation, the perceived trust of females in the destinations and services provided is enhanced. Moreover, since safety was a major concern for female travellers, destinations may promote their position on peace indices developed by the World Economic Forum and the Institute for Economics and Peace. Similarly, measures of the safest destinations for solo female travel may also be promoted in order to help females prepare for their trip. Technology can also provide multiple tools for women who are travelling solo. For example many travel bloggers document their trips and offer advice to women. There are other initiatives implemented in relatively unsafe destinations which could provide an opportunity for women to explore these countries more safely, therefore, expanding their destination choice. Two initiatives that are extremely prominent include HarassMap and Safetipin. These applications are used to document incidents of harassment and report when and where they happened, including specific streets or to assess the safety of locations based on visibility and building entrances, amongst others. Moreover, technology provides a tracing service; in case women feel unsafe, they can send their location, and their friends can track them. In addition, creating more cultural exchange programmes could also act as a method for encouraging women to travel. Finally, as females depend mainly on their networks, it is advisable to create more online groups in order for them to share their experiences, empower one another and create a new norm for female solo travelling.

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Brand Bhutan and the Political Economy of Sustainable Tourism Development

Poulomi Dasgupta and Alison Vogelaar

1 Introduction

Bhutan, "land of the Thunder Dragon," brings to mind majestic mountains and mystical valleys, quaint traditional villages and, of course, happiness. These images are the intentional product of the Bhutanese government's development and implementation of its brand—Brand Bhutan—built upon the philosophy of Gross National Happiness (Song, 2019). Gross National Happiness, a concept with a dynamic and disputed origin story, was formally embedded in Bhutan's constitution in 2008 and has evolved into an econometric framework for measuring the nation's development progress and overall approach to nation branding across economic sectors (see IIM, 2005; Munro, 2016). In 2012, the Center of Bhutan Studies (CBS) published Bhutan's first Gross National Happiness Index with the support of the World Happiness Report (WHR) at the United Nations Sustainable Development Network (UNSDSN) and Oxford University Researchers. GNH is set in opposition to the mainstream idea that successful economic development should be measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) alone (see Ansari, 2012; Brown & Bird, 2011; GNHC, 2013) and proposes instead an index including four key pillars: the promotion of equitable and sustainable socio-economic development, preservation and promotion of cultural values, conservation Change of the natural environment, and promotion of good governance (GNH Center Bhutan, n.d.).

In spite of its historically strong economic relationships with Indian princely states in the south and Tibet in the north, Bhutan was characterized as a closed economy until the 1960s when it symbolically opened its gates to the global marketplace embarking on a path of modernization (Ansari, 2012). This mythic opening of a hitherto hidden "Shangri-La" remains central to Bhutan's allure (or as

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brand managers put it, “competitive advantage”) as an unspoiled, traditional, and mystical escape from the modern world. Bhutan’s tourism sector is a central driver and benefactor of this myth. This chapter explores the political economy of tourism development in Bhutan with a specific interest in the unresolved and often unarticulated tensions between sustainable development and sustainable travel, especially as these tensions are exacerbated by the forces of neoliberal global capitalism.

As is evident in the description of the four pillars of GNH above, sustainability forms the foundation of Bhutan’s implementation of Gross National Happiness. According to Purvis et al. (2019), the discourses of sustainability developed in the 1980s out of the twin critiques of economic development: environmental critiques of the negative impacts of the economic growth paradigm in the so-called developed world and the lack of environmental considerations in the economic development programs being implemented in the developing world as well as economic critiques centered on the failed promises of “progress” and exacerbation of social ails presented by early economic growth-based development. While Bhutan was the first government to formally adopt GNH as a development policy and economic framework, “happiness economics” (also called wellness economics) was very much in fashion in international development circles in the latter half of the twentieth century as it responded to the problems associated with growth-based economic development models. The concept of Gross National Happiness emerged in the same year (1972) in which The Club of Rome (an international group of industrialists, politicians, and scientists) published *The Limits to Growth*—the document that contains the first modern appearance of the term [sustainability] in its broad global context—and the United Nations convened the first World Summit on the Human-Environment resulting in the establishment of the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) (Purvis et al., 2019). The following year saw the publication of economist E. F. Schumacher’s (1973) *Small is Beautiful*—a book critiquing mainstream trickle-down economic approaches to development and dedicating a chapter to “Buddhist economics.” Fast forward to today and sustainability is fully embedded in development discourses and organizations most prominently the ubiquitous UN Sustainable Development Goals.

Given the significance of tourism in the global marketplace and national economies and its equally significant impacts on the environment and sustainability, it comes as no surprise that the United Nations’ 2030 Agenda for Development highlights the crucial role of tourism in achieving the sustainable development goals and implementing the post-2015 development agenda (UNWTO, 2021). And while many assert that the tourism sector can play a pivotal role in a green economy through “more sustainable business practices, climate change mitigation and adaptation techniques” (Reddy & Wilkes, 2015: 7), there are nevertheless “ambiguities about how tourism and allied industries can maximize their contribution to human wellbeing and ensure environmental sustainability, embracing issues of political economy, geography and business ethics” (Reddy & Wilkes, 2015: 7, see also Bianchi & de Man, 2021).

This chapter responds to gaps in the political economy of tourism development literature by focusing specifically on the “unresolved tensions between sustainable development and sustainable tourism" in Bhutan's tourism sector (Bianchi & de Man, 2021: 375). Using government reports, data collected by trade bodies as well as secondary field survey data, our analysis explores distributional inequities in Bhutan's tourism sector with an eye to better understanding key issues and omissions. The chapter begins with a review of two relevant sets of literature: the political economy of tourism development and the sustainability and tourism nexus. The chapter continues with a description and historical contextualization of Bhutan's sustainable tourism sector. Section four introduces the methodology used in the study. It is followed in section five by a description of our findings, regarding the distributional inequities in three key domains in the tourism sector (tour operators, hotels, and village home stays). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the recurring issues impeding political economy approaches to sustainable tourism research and several policy implications and recommendations.

2 Literature Review

The following section surveys the literatures in the political economy of tourism development and sustainable tourism development.

2.1 Political Economy of Tourism Development

Until the COVID-19 pandemic abruptly halted most international travel in early 2020, the global tourism sector was growing faster than other major sectors including financial and business services, transport and manufacturing (Reddy & Wilkes, 2015). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2020), travel and tourism accounted for one in four jobs created in the past four years, one in ten of all jobs in 2019 (330 million in total) whereas the growth of the sector was up 3.5% for the same year, accounting for 10.3% of the global GDP (8.9 trillion USD). According to Reddy and Wilkes (2015: 25), "the direct and induced benefits of tourism in terms of employment, revenue, investments, transport, accommodation, food, events, leisure services, and linkages with allied industries including insurance, housing, clothing, and local produce are well known." Even as governments and International Non-profit Governmental Organizations (INGOs) recognize the economic values of the sector in improving people's financial and social capital (Font & McCabe, 2017), there is widespread agreement that its benefits are geographically uneven and "not fully understood" in some developing countries (Reddy & Wilkes, 2015: 26).

Tourism has since the 1970s been a central feature of mainstream free market-based development strategy. According to Bianchi, "tourism entered the mainstream of development thinking in the context of debates in the 1950s and 1960s regarding the need to promote economic development in the Third World" (2018: 90).

Whereas development in the immediate post-war period took a state intervention approach, this period saw the return to free market approaches dominated by neoliberal calls for fiscal discipline, trade liberalization, privatization, and deregulation (Peet & Hartwick, 2015; Weaver, 2004). The study of tourism from an economic perspective began with the rapid growth of tourism as an economic activity in this period (Song et al., 2012). Economic research into tourism development has until fairly recently been predominantly focused upon the quantification (and often enthusiastic advocacy) of tourism's impact on developing nations (Bianchi, 2018). In spite of the obvious implications of tourism on the production and reproduction of regimes of accumulation and exacerbation of socio-economic inequalities, "research into tourism development has until recently remained largely disconnected from questions of political economy" (Bianchi, 2018: 89; see also Britton, 1982 and Mosedale, 2011).

Political economy refers to a wide variety of interdisciplinary approaches to the study of the relationship between "the economy" and its "non-economic" context such as the political, socio-cultural, psychological, and geographical environment (Mosedale, 2011). More specifically, it entails "the study of the socio-economic forces and power relations that are constituted by the production of commodities for the market and the divisions, conflicts and inequalities that arise from this" (Bianchi, 2018: 1). Political economic approaches reject the value-neutral claims of neoclassical theory that claim to be able to isolate "markets and human beings from their social and political context and is thus blind to the manner in which production and distribution are constituted out of the dialectics of class struggle and inequalities of power" (Bianchi, 2018: 89).

Bianchi's (2018) survey of the field of tourism development offers several explanations for the absence of political economy approaches including the lack of analytical clarity and long-running disagreements regarding the precise parameters and industrial configurations of the tourism industries themselves, the dominance of studies that focus on consumption as opposed to production, the foregrounding of issues of scale over the economic and political relations of power, the "kaleidoscopic character of tourism capitalism" making it difficult to identify and quantify (in Gibson, 2009: 529), the dominance of applied business perspectives and scientific positivism in tourism research, the general reluctance of researchers to acknowledge the capitalistic nature of tourism and related "benign view" of tourism that may be attributed to tourism's privileged position within the framework of the United Nations system and its relation with discourses of peace, conservation, and sustainability. The centrality of tourism in the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) may further strengthen this tendency to tread lightly on the tourism sector.

Though "fruitful theoretical developments in political economy have largely bypassed tourism" (William, 2004: 62), Bianchi (2018) contends that there are signs of an emerging sub-discipline in the political economy of tourism. It is hoped that the impressive theoretical contributions offered by William (2004), Mosedale (2011), Bianchi (2011, 2018), and Bianchi and de Man (2021) will continue to inspire site and/or case-specific analyses of tourism development from a political economy perspective. One such example is Nelson's (2012) study of the implications of the postcolonial land tenure system on Tanzania's tourism sector, a system they assert has resulted in an uneven and unfair distribution of land rights in the tourism sector characterized by the appropriation of natural resources and hunting rights by local elites and the dispossession of local communities (in terms of traditional lands and communal resources). Another example is Montes and Kafley's (2019) study of the environmental and socio-economic impacts of the introduction of ecotourism and competitive economic models in rural areas of Bhutan.

2.2 Tourism, Sustainability, and Sustainable Development

Tourism research in the 1970s also began to explore the sector's "negative economic, environmental, and socio-cultural impacts, especially within the emerging 'pleasure periphery' destinations of the Caribbean, South Pacific and Africa" (Weaver, 2004: 511). According to Wong (2004), while serious research on the environmental impacts of tourism commenced in the 1970s, it was not until the 1990s that it began to apply the notion of sustainable development (see also Briassoulis & van der Straaten, 2000). Studies have consistently revealed that the impacts of tourism on the environment are overwhelmingly negative (Wong, 2004), albeit varied and complex, contributing diversely to increasing greenhouse gas emissions, biodiversity loss, increasing consumption of resources, as well as habitat and ecosystem degradation (Wong, 2004, see also Hunter & Green, 1995). Research and mitigation are further complicated by the fact that the boundaries of the tourism sector and systems are "fuzzy" and/or complex (Weaver, 2004) and that it is difficult to distinguish the impacts of tourism from other anthropogenic factors (Wong, 2004).

Ideas around sustainable tourism emerged out of the larger construct of sustainable development—a concept that arose in the 1980s out of science-based models of sustained yield resource management and conservation (e.g., The Limits to Growth) and was popularized through international initiatives and collectives including the World Conservation Strategy of 1980, the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987), and the Rio Earth Summit of 1992 and its Agenda 21 manifesto (Weaver, 2004; see also Hall, 1998, 2010). Sustainable development refers to the general notion that the development needs of the present should be met without compromising future generations' ability to meet their own (Weaver, 2004; see WCED, 1987). While the Brundtland Report made no specific mention of the role of tourism in sustainable development (in spite of the sector's rapid growth in this period), the concept of sustainable tourism appeared shortly thereafter in the tourism literature and has since developed into a central paradigm for tourism academics, organizations, and practitioners (Weaver, 2004).

The promotion of sustainable tourism emerged out of the consensus that "much tourism growth, as with much economic growth in general, is already uneconomic at the present margin as we currently measure it given that it is leading to a clear running down of natural capital" (Hall, 2010: 137). According to Weaver (2004); the 1990s saw widespread engagement with sustainability in the conventional mass tourism industry involving the: proliferation of codes of conduct (e.g., UNEP, 1995) and ecolabels (e.g., Green Globe 21 and Blue Flag); implementation of green practices such as recycling and energy use reduction as well as organizational initiatives including the adaptation of Agenda 21 to the travel and tourism industry; creation of a sustainable tourism unit within the World Tourism Organization, creation of the global Alliance for Sustainable Tourism; and various programs initiated by the European Union (e.g., Natura 2000 and LEADER) (see also Font & Buckley, 2001; Webster, 2000). It has given rise in the past decade to a variety of environmentally oriented forms of "new tourism" including ecotourism, nature tourism, and green tourism (Hughes, 2004). More recently, the promise of sustainable tourism has been extended by the prospect of tourism in the "green economy" and the promotion of green growth (Reddy & Wilkes, 2015). The focus on sustainable tourism has continued with the UN General Assembly declaring 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development. Sustainable tourism also features in several of the SDGs including targets 8, 12, and 14 where the role of sustainable tourism has been linked to the goals of job creation and promotion of local culture and products (UNWTO, 2021).

Critiques of the near-consensus support for sustainable tourism center upon three interrelated concerns. First, the concept of sustainable tourism is ambiguous and can entail just about anything to anyone and in the process becomes meaningless (Weaver, 2004). Such conceptual malleability has left the term open to "appropriation by supporters of various ideologies, thus allowing it to be used to represent and support just about any model of development" (Weaver, 2004: 518). Second, the term is a demonstrable oxymoron. As Weaver (2004) asserts, it is doubtful whether any destinations or even the tourism industry as a whole can claim to have achieved a meaningful level of sustainability as of the early 2000s. Critics thus question the logic and ethics of pursuing a development program that has significant negative impacts including "its contribution to global carbon emissions, its impact on Indigenous and heritage and cultures, its impacts on nature, traditional landscapes and townscapes" (Font & McCabe, 2017: 870). Finally, the scope of sustainability raises fundamental questions as to the reality of (and lack of empirical evidence for) achieving balance between the economic, social, and environmental goals entailed in sustainable development. All of this begs the question whether the concept has become a public relations tool employed (wittingly and not) by the tourism industry, governments, and intergovernmental organizations to "green wash" the sector and in so doing avoid deeper and more complex discussions about the unsustainability of tourism (Hall, 2010, 2015; Weaver, 2004).

3 Study Context: Sustainable Tourism Development in Bhutan

Bhutan makes for an ideal case study in the political economy of tourism development because it opened to the world economy in precisely the same moment that sustainability and global neoliberalism emerged as geopolitical leitmotifs. These two complex and often divergent dynamics are nowhere more evident than in the nation's incorporation and promulgation of Gross National Happiness. In addition to being a program of social and economic change based upon a notion of development in the pursuit of collective happiness, Gross National Happiness has become Bhutan's biggest soft power export (McCarthy, 2018) and the essential ingredient in its so-called brand; a brand made most visible in its tourism sector.

While the development and export of hydropower remains one of the most important drivers of Bhutan's economic growth (Santini et al., 2017), tourism is an economically significant and symbolically crucial feature of the nation's development. According to the Bhutan Tourism Monitor (BTM), the number of tourists who visited Bhutan in 2019 was 315,599 which was a 15% increase from the previous year. Tourism helped Bhutan earn US$88.65 million in foreign exchange earnings (TCB, 2019a). Bhutan opened to international tourism in the early 1970s and was founded on the principle of high value-low volume (changed in 2008 to high value-low impact). According to Tashi (2015), the acquisition of foreign currency was the sole driver for Bhutan's opening of its tourism sector to the international market. Tourism was state controlled until 1991, after which the Royal Government of Bhutan (RGoB) began privatizing the sector. The process began with the privatization of the Bhutan Tourism Council (TCB) when the RGoB floated its shares in the market and 51% of the shares were bought by a private company, Bhutan Hotels and Travels (Basu, 1996). The TCB now coordinates between the associations of tour operators, hotel and restaurant owners, guides and the Department of Tourism. Since 1991, the sector has seen a steady rise in the number of privately held tour operators, even so, the government continues to play an important role in the sector by providing tax subsidies and regulating tourist activities. Bhutan's tourism sector is now at a crossroads where private players like hotel owners would like greater liberalization and tour operators would like the government to honor its commitment to sustainable tourism and play a more regulatory role in the sector.

According to Koh Buck Song (2019), few countries have as strong a nation brand as Bhutan. Indeed, Bhutan has gone to great measures in recent years to propagate its image in the international political community and global marketplace as the premier destination for the elusive and exclusive commodity we call happiness. In 2011, the Tourism Council of Bhutan commissioned global branding and advertising agency Ogilvy Mather's India Office to create a new logo that would enhance and merge "the uniqueness of the nation, its culture, tradition, environment, architecture and religion together with the philosophy of Gross National Happiness" in order to better "showcase the nation as an exclusive high-end destination" (Tourism Council of Bhutan 2011). The result was the now well-known slogan "Bhutan, happiness is a place" adjoined by the National Flower of Bhutan, the blue poppy. According to the TCB (2019a) Bhutan has seen a consistent rise in the number of tourists since 2012, with 2019 recording the highest number of visitors.

More recently, in 2016, the Bhutan Department of Trade and the United Nations Development Program contracted the global brand management firm, FutureBrand, to redevelop Bhutan's brand strategy. The firm's preliminary research indicated that Bhutan was not widely known as a tourist destination, had been unable to benefit from economies of scale due to a small population, and had been unable to create a unique offer as efficiently or inexpensively as larger competing nations (Montgomery, 2016). FutureBrand sought to solve these complex economic issues and define the competitive difference that Bhutan could offer by creating "one unified and overarching country brand for Bhutan—broad enough to be leveraged across all sectors and industries in the future, particularly for sectors that support Bhutan's sustainable and long-term growth plans such as handicrafts and organic farming. That amplifies the ethos of Gross National Happiness, and captures the spirit of the country, its people and way of life" (Future Brand, 2017, n.p.). The result, "Made in Bhutan" and "Grown in Bhutan" (Rebrand, 2018) is meant to communicate that everything crafted in Bhutan comes from the country's pristine nature, timeless traditions, and enduring values (Future Brand, 2017, n.p.).

Bhutan's recent spate of branding initiatives is consistent with the near global assimilation of promotional politics, a contemporary approach to governing founded on the neoliberal ideology of competitiveness and the conviction by governments that national interests are best served if the country can find a "lucrative role" within a globally integrated economic system (Aronczyk, 2008: 44, see also Jansen, 2008; Schwak, 2016; Varga, 2013). Promotional politics is expressed in the practice of nation branding, defined by Kaneva as "a compendium of discourses and practices aimed at reconstituting nationhood through marketing and branding paradigms" (2011: 118). Nation branding engages in "the profit-based marketing techniques of private enterprises to create and communicate a particular version of a national identity" allowing national governments to better "manage and control the image they project to the world, and to attract the 'right' kinds of investment, tourism, trade, and talent, successfully competing with a growing pool of national contenders for a shrinking set of available resources" (Aronczyk, 2008: 42).

Since the country opened its borders to international tourists, the RGoB has been keenly aware of how mass tourism could wreak havoc on Bhutan's ecology and unique culture and thereby dilute its so-called brand—Gross National Happiness. Bhutan's approach to tourism from its inception has been to position itself as an exclusive destination. As the fifth king of Bhutan, Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck has said "People who make it to Bhutan feel privileged to be our guests" (as cited in Druk Journal, 2019). The key policy mechanism facilitating exclusivity has been the Minimum Daily Package Rate (MDPR). Currently listed at US$250 in high season and US$200 in lean season, the MDPR includes a US$65 fee that goes towards the government's Sustainable Development Fund (SDF) and includes accommodation, meals, guides, and ground transport (NCB, 2016). The rationale behind the daily fees for tourists is to limit the number of tourists coming to the country by making it unaffordable to budget and lower income travelers.

Bhutan's tourism sector has seen consistent increases since 2012 due in large part to rising numbers of regional visitors from countries including India, Bangladesh, and the Maldives who are exempt from paying the MDPR. This rise in regional tourists has had many consequences including unregulated tourist activities as well as a rise in budget tours and accommodations. While most international tourists are required to book their visits to Bhutan through certified tour operators, regional tourists are not required to do so and therefore are able to enter and visit Bhutan on their own. In practice, this means that regional tourists plan their own tours without taking into account the country's customs, traditions, and norms and often impact the local environment negatively. In addition, increases in the number of budget accommodations has put pressure on the cities' waste management and sewage systems and may 'have a lasting impact on the architectural tapestry of the capital' (Keen, 2019).

In January 2020, the RGoB passed a bill introducing a much smaller fee (US $16.25 per person per night) for regional tourists from India, Bangladesh, and the Maldives, that would go entirely towards the Sustainable Development Fund. Since this announcement was made, there have been some concerns raised by tour operators in Bhutan and India as well as hotel owners in Bhutan about how it will influence lower budget tour operators. For example while the Hotel and Restaurant Association of Bhutan (HRAB) spokesperson, Sonam Wangchuk, supported the new fee, he also pointed out that US$16.25 per person per night for large groups coming in from India may add up to a large sum for the visitors. He said that ultimately, this will reduce the number of regional tourists and will have a detrimental impact on some hoteliers (Tshomo, 2020).

In 2019, the TCB released the first ever comprehensive tourism policy outlining a vision for Bhutan to be a green, sustainable, inclusive, and a high value competitive tourism destination (TCB, 2019b). Notably, the document advocates for the return to the original principle of high value-low volume tourism as well as a proposal to use tourism to promote development in rural communities by encouraging rural communities to use it as a source of supplemental rather than primary income. While the document signals an awareness of the limitations of Bhutan's current approach to tourism development, its proposals nevertheless remain obscure and based in the repetition of familiar neoliberal mantras of green growth and competition without specific plans for implementation or metrics for assessment.

4 Methodology

The literature review revealed several significant impediments to using political economy approaches in the sustainable tourism sector, namely: the difficulties of quantification associated with the sector's kaleidoscopic character, the generally benign view of tourism and doubly so of sustainable tourism, the lack of research, data or frameworks for exploring the potential conflicts between the economic, social, and environmental components of sustainable development, and finally the potential for sustainable tourism to be used as "green wash" that may in some cases mask inequities and abuses. Guided by these insights, our study was driven by the following three research questions:

- Who are the main stakeholders in the production and distribution of tourism services in Bhutan and what data is available to investigate the impact of tourism on them?
- What can the data tell us about distributional inequities in Bhutan's tourism sector?
- To what degree does the data help us engage with the inherent contradictions and complexities of Bhutan's implementation and privatization of sustainable tourism?

Studying the political economy of tourism in Bhutan was complicated by the fact that data regarding workers' wages and employment in the tourism sector are scarce thereby making a traditional Marxian class analysis of this case more challenging. In the absence of such data, our study turned to the available data on three key domains in the tourism sector: Tour operators, hotels, and village home stays (VHS). Tour operators play an important role in the tourism sector of Bhutan. Any international tourist planning to visit Bhutan must use a tour operator registered with the TCB. These tour operators are then responsible for booking hotels, guides, and restaurants for tourists. This gives them a privileged position in the supply chain of tourism services. The hotel industry of course provides the basic service of accommodation to both international and regional tourists thereby making them an important player in the tourism sector. The interests of both these stakeholders are represented by their respective associations, namely the Association of Bhutanese Tour Operators (ABTO) and the Hotel and Restaurant Owners Association (HRAB). The chairmen of both ABTO and HRAB are currently members of the TCB. Finally, based on the TCB's proposal to encourage the participation of rural communities in the tourism sector, we chose to include village home stays (VHS) in our analysis as they provide the only direct link that we found to Bhutan's commitment to sustainable tourism.

Data produced by the TCB concentrates on tourism consumption (e.g., data including tourist satisfaction and demographics). While insightful, this data does not provide a complete picture of the tourism sector and does not aid in better understanding tourism production. Data on the earnings and profits of tour operators, hotel owners, and VHS are not publicly available. In the absence of such data, we used the data found in reports released by ABTO and HRAB (typically these are released through the press). In addition, we have used reports made available by the Ministry of Finance, the National Council of Bhutan, and the Royal Monetary Authority of Bhutan to understand how the tourism sector influences the economy and how macroeconomic policies are geared towards the growth of the tourism sector and which stakeholders benefit from these policies. Finally, in order to get insights from the VHS sector, we had to depend on secondary field surveys. Given the fragmented nature of this sector and scarce data, we have had to piece together sources to provide a framework that allowed us to make some provisional comments on the political economy of sustainable tourism in Bhutan.

5 Findings

The following section explores the distributional inequities of tourism development in three key stakeholders of tourism in Bhutan: Tour operators, hotels, and village home stays. The first section discusses regional inequities and the following three focus on our findings from the three sectors.

5.1 Regional Inequities

The distribution of the benefits of tourism is highly concentrated in Western Bhutan with Paro, Thimphu, Punakha, Wangdi, and Bumthang hosting the highest number of visitors (BTM, 2019, see Fig. 1). In recognition of these inequities, the government pledged to increase the share of tourists to the Eastern districts of the country to 20% of tourist visits (NCB, 2016). In 2019, however, the six districts in Eastern Bhutan accounted for only 3.85% (TCB calculations) of total visitors. Explanations for the underrepresentation of tourism in the East include poor road connections, lack of amenities, and poor quality hotels, in sum, underdevelopment. As such adequate attempts to build the sector in Easter Bhutan must involve spending on infrastructure, education, and business training. Patterns of inequality in the distribution of the share of revenue in the tourism sector are not only regional but also subregional. In order to explore these inequities, we examine the distributional

Fig. 1 Map of Bhutan. Source: Fitzgerald (2010)

inequities (and their structural causes) in three key areas of the tourism sector: tour operators, hotels, and village home stays.

5.2 Tour Operators

According to Rinzin et al. (2007), a few large operators dominated the Bhutanese market with four tour operators dominating about 44% of the total market up until 2002. Bhutan Tourism Monitor (2014) reported that ten tour operators had a share of almost 30% of the total tourists in 2014. While the addition of more players in the sector is promising, the market is still controlled by a few large players. According to Choegyal (2019), unlike in Nepal where the benefits of tourism have spread to remote hillside communities, this was never a priority for the top-down approach adopted in Bhutan, in which royalties are distributed by the government and much of the profits remain with Paro and Thimphu travel operators.

In addition to the concentration of the market in the hands of a few operators, there is evidence that tour operators are not sharing the profits or benefits with the local communities to which they bring tourists. For example, in a study of tourism development in Bumthang, Wangdi (2015) found that attempts to distribute the benefits of the tourism sector in that region by preparing 15 local houses and training the local farmers to host tourists (with the support of the Wangchuk centennial national park and the World Wildlife Fund) were thwarted by tour operators who, in order to maximize their profits, set up their own camping tents, instead of encouraging tourists to use the local accommodations. Similarly, in 2010, in an attempt to spread the benefits of tourism in Eastern Bhutan, an agreement was signed between Tourism Council of Bhutan, the Tashigang Dzongkhag and Association of Bhutanese Tour Operators to hire local people as porters, guides, and cooks. As in the above case, locals claim that the tour operators have not followed through with this agreement and are supplying their own porters, guides, and cooks (NCB, 2016). Such breaches exacerbate regional inequalities (concentrating profits in the urban and Western regions) while at the same time exploiting already marginalized regions and communities.

According to the 2016 NCB report (2016), there are also mounting concerns regarding the practice of undercutting in the tourism sector: “undercutting involves selling tour packages below the government set minimum price of US$200 and US $250 per person per day based on the season of travel” (NCB, 2016). This practice is in direct opposition to the high value, low impact approach to tourism and has increased the rates of low yield tourists visiting the country. The government fears that such a trend compromises the quality of tourist experience, which in turn influences the number of future tourists. The practice also has profound effects on the ability of the nation to sell itself as elusive and exclusive.

5.3 Hotels

The hotel industry is one of the fastest growing industries in Bhutan today. According to a report released by the Hotel and Restaurant Association of Bhutan (HRAB), the hotel industry grew by over 124% between 2013 and 2019 and provides direct jobs to more than 10,000 Bhutanese people (Penjor, 2019). Consistent with the wider trends in the distribution of the benefits of tourism, hotels are geographically concentrated. According to TCB's latest list, there are 160 hotels (3,4 and 5-star) in Bhutan. Of these 160 hotels, 51 hotels are in Thimphu, 33 hotels are in Paro, 22 are in Bumthang, and 17 are in Punakha. These figures do not account for 1- and 2-star hotels that generally service regional tourists and are not certified by the TCB.

The boom in the hotel industry is a direct result of a state led development strategy to promote the hotel industry that involves, most significantly, tax breaks provided by the RGoB since 2010. As per the Rules on the Fiscal Incentive Act of Bhutan, 2017, the Ministry of Finance offers attractive tax breaks to the hotel industry. This includes a 10-year income tax holiday to newly established tourist standard hotels and 5 years of income tax holiday to hotels that have upgraded to tourist standard hotels (MoF, 2017). The ministry also exempts tourist standard hotels from paying customs duty and sales tax on a number of items (e.g., chairs, utensils).

In addition to these fiscal incentives, generous loans have been provided to the hotel industry by the banks. According to the Royal Monetary Authority of Bhutan (RMA), the increase in loans for hotel construction has led to several worrying trends including oversupply and rent hikes in urban areas where property is being bought and converted into tourist accommodations. As per the 2019 annual report released by the RMA, in the financial year 2018–2019, credit to housing increased significantly on account of higher demand for hotels and residential property. The report also pointed out that hotels and restaurants also accounted for 13% of non-performing loans (NPL) in 2018–2019 (RMA, 2019). As such, the TCB is worried about a bubble in the hotel industry. The TCB also predicts that the occupancy rate is expected to fall in the coming years, and this will make loan repayments more difficult for hotel owners. The continued expansion of the capitalist tendencies has also made the economy more vulnerable to external shocks as evidenced by the precariousness of the hotel industry. As Penjor (2019) points out, while the hotel industry has helped create jobs and earn revenue for the government, the trickle-down effect of this industry remains questionable.

5.4 Village Home Stay (VHS)

The introduction of village home stays to Bhutan's tourism development plan is perhaps its most sustainable program. While village home stays do not cater to the elusive and exclusive set, the concept is squarely positioned in the GNH ideology ensuring economic inclusivity and sustainability. According to the TCB, VHSs allow visitors to stay in village homes that are approved by the TCB. VHSs are positioned as a way of spreading the benefits of the tourism sector by providing additional sources of income for rural communities. In addition to the accommodation services, VHS also provides other activities like village tours, hikes, farm work, and other cultural programs. According to TCB, VHSs also provide organic, locally sourced vegetables for their guests. In an attempt to bring more visibility to VHSs, the TCB has recently launched a digital booklet on "Village Home Stays" that has been made available on their website. This booklet provides contact information of 157 VHSs situated across 13 Dzongkhags or districts.

In 2018, the Gross National Happiness Commission (GNHC) published a report on the impact of VHSs on income generation. The study was conducted using quantitative and qualitative surveys to evaluate the impacts in eight districts. The study found that overall, home stay operators make an average annual income ranging from Nu. 20,000 to Nu. 400,000.[1] The study also found that home stays have improved the living conditions of the local communities as well as access to modern amenities including TVs and concrete housing.

While the GNHC study found that home stays have had economic benefits for the operators, a study by Montes and Kafley (2019) found that the economic success of the operation has come with particular social conflicts that were previously absent. In their study of a homestay in Haa, they found that the transition from traditional yak herding in this region to operating home stays has led to new social relations in the region. They explain, "the dominant mode of production now required a competitive outlook in order to provide economic security, which has come at the expense of social cohesion" (Montes & Kafley, 2019: 10). The study also found that the benefits of tourism are limited to those who operate home stays as they tend to hire their own relatives and use their own resources. In the study conducted by GNHC, home stay operators in Zhemgang reported that earnings from tourism were skewed towards only some in the community. Montes and Kafley also found in the case of *Phobjikha Homestay Network* existing social hierarchies have also played a role to exacerbate inequalities. This was due to the fact that when the Royal Society for Protection of Nature (RSPN) started the network, they approached only those homeowners whose homes met certain standards for tourists. Montes and Kafley assert that while such programs are promoted to alleviate poverty, in many cases, the economically well-off families benefit the most from these programs. A study conducted by Gurung and Seeland (2008) also indicated that—because many rural households do not have proper sanitation facilities—only relatively richer families benefit from village home stays.

[1] 1 USD $\approx$ 75 Nu.

6 Discussion and Conclusions

Bhutan's tourism sector provides a number of insights regarding the unresolved tensions between sustainable development and sustainable tourism highlighted by Bianchi & de Man (2021). Indeed, the sector is an exemplary study of the inherent conflict between the goals of capital accumulation and sustainable development. Bhutan's case is unique because the country opened its tourism sector cautiously, in pursuit of the needed foreign currency to import goods and capital, and also keenly aware of the consequences of mass tourism on the country's culture and environment. Their initial approach to this conundrum was to charge a substantial daily fee in an effort to attract a limited group of so-called high yield tourists. This approach however had significant negative effects from a political economy perspective including the exacerbation of existing economic inequities and wealth gaps. In its attempt to attract wealthy (typically European, middle-aged) tourists, the TCB only approves 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels for international tourists. In addition to the resource intensive nature of the construction and maintenance of these hotels, the high-end tourists they cater to often have higher carbon footprints and cultural imprints (Gurung & Seeland, 2008). What is more, increases in budget hotels to accommodate regional tourists has put immense pressure on cities' infrastructures (e.g., impacting rent rates for locals).

These issues pose major threats to the nation's green and thus happy brand image and also demonstrate the government's haphazard approach to sustainability in the tourism sector. Most significantly, the exclusivity strategy (high value, low volume) at the center of its approach to sustainable tourism has not reduced the number of visitors and what we see instead is a full-scale proliferation of capitalist tendencies from the use of international/Western branding firms to sell Bhutan as an exclusive and elusive destination to some tourists and the simultaneous rise of competitive and predatory practices in the budget segment of the industry. While the recent promotion of village home stays (VHS) represents a noteworthy attempt to reconcile some of the issues plaguing the sector, namely sustainability and distributional equitability, it may very well represent the addition of a yet another (potentially more sustainable) tourist market. In order to move beyond a marketing gimmick, sustainable tourism development in Bhutan needs to be nurtured in ways that will stimulate development in allied sectors that are more durable, sustainable, and equitable.

In addition to highlighting issues of regional inequality in three areas of the tourism sector, this analysis has revealed the emergence of several worrying trends in the increasingly privatized tourism sector, most notably in this moment in time, its vulnerability to external shocks. A new study released by the National Statistics Bureau (NSB) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in Bhutan in May 2020 assessing the impact of COVID-19 on the tourism sector found that: a) COVID has had a significant impact on households' livelihood and many stakeholders did not have enough savings to help them survive the crisis, b) there was a strong interest in alternative employment, and c) the ability of the stakeholders to cope with the crisis was limited. This study offered policy recommendations including integrated rural development programs, opportunities for alternate employment, and implementing re-skilling programs so that there can be expansion of vocational options for the youth and a refocus on ecotourism.

In order for Bhutan to better negotiate the tensions between sustainable development and a market-based tourism sector, limitless expansion of this sector cannot persist. While low volume is one viable approach, it cannot continue to be implemented using the existing exclusivity approach. A quota-based system would better balance all tenets of sustainable development (social, environmental, and economic). Segmenting tourism into cultural tourism and ecotourism might also facilitate better distribution with the latter being exclusively offered by stakeholders in the rural parts of the country (e.g., village home stays). Most importantly, income from tourist production should offer means of supplemental income as suggested in the TCB's 2019 tourism policy mentioned in Sect. 4 (see Suntikul & Dorji, 2015 for an interesting example of this in a study involving the Brokpa tribe). In addition to using traditional (and life sustaining) practices and landscapes a source of revenue, tourists might also be exposed to different forms of economic organization through these tours. Guided by the example of successful community led programs, the government should apply a bottom-up approach to tourism programs in rural areas partnering with officials at the district and block levels (Gurung & Scholz, 2008; Rinzin et al., 2007).

As the literature review indicated, studies of the political economy of tourism development are complicated by various factors including the fuzzy boundaries of the sector, the limited and scattered nature of production data and the benign, if not positive, view of the sector, a view intensified by the sector's complete absorption of the discourses of sustainability. Our case study of tourism development in Bhutan has confirmed these impediments and we offer the following insights and provocations for future studies in the planning and management of sustainability in tourism. First, if sustainability is to mean anything more than a passing commitment to an abstract goal, the distinct pillars of sustainability (social, economic, environmental) need to be better operationalized, measured, and put into conversation with each other. This requires both clear definitional boundaries and standardized metrics (and the correlate data producing bodies). Second, international organizations need to do their part in helping nations move from ideological support to material action. We realize this is complicated, if not, impossible in the context of existing structures. That being said, it is time to move from goals to outcomes. This is not to dismiss the many positive consequences of the incorporation of sustainability into our everyday language, conversation, and policy making bodies, but it is to suggest that this stage is now complete. The extent of the global climate crisis, species loss, ecosystem degradation, and social inequities demands action now. Small, emerging, and adaptable nations like Bhutan may offer ideal sites for the study and implementation of truly sustainable systems and sectors.

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The Sustainability of Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFPs) and Sociobiodiversity in Rural Brazil Through Community-based Tourism

Laura Bachi and Sónia Carvalho Ribeiro

1 Introduction

In Brazil, socio-cultural and biological diversity merge when wild species including a variety of Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFPs) are gathered and pre-processed using the skills and knowledge of traditional communities. Traditional practices have long been championed by nut gatherers in the Amazon and by family farmers in Caatinga and the Atlantic Forest biome (Noda et al., 2003). Brazilian sociobiodiversity material and immaterial values, associated with the use of NTFPs, are critical for meeting the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of reducing poverty (Goal 1) and securing food (Goal 2). The knowledge and skills of women collecting fruits and flowers (e.g., quebradeiras de coco Babaçu, "Sempre-Viva" pickers) in Cerrado biome importantly address gender equity (Goal 5). The gathering, processing, and commercialization of emblematic Brazilian NTFPs span across 12 million hectares of 94 Extractive Reserves (RESEX), 355 indigenous, and 253 quilombola lands, and involve 28 groupings of traditional peoples and communities (TPCs), and family farming. In Brazil, the National Plan for sociobiodiversity chains seeks to value practices and knowledge of traditional communities that use natural resources (MDA/MMA/MDS, 2009).

However, immaterial values such as knowledge systems and heritage embedded within sociobiodiversity chains have heretofore been barely considered as a rural development asset. NTFPs tend to be valued by the production (yield) of raw materials alone. Official statistics proudly report that, in total, from Açaí and Brazil nut in the Amazon to Babaçu and Pequi in Cerrado and other NTFPs, 753 thousand

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tons were gathered generating a revenue of over US$ 395 million in 2019. While the use of biodiversity by traditional communities might be sustainable or unsustainable depending on the context for and scale of use, the pressure for gathering “quantity of NTFPs” in order to boost output for large scale commodity chains has been led to the unsustainability of traditional management systems (Homma, 2018). Recently, there have been put forward arguments suggesting that RESEX, a symbol of traditional livelihoods empowerment, tends to be unsustainable and therefore should be discontinued (da Freitas et al., 2020).

Tourism in these rural landscapes can be assessed as an alternative to foster sustainability of NTFPs extractivism. Tourism, if associated with sociobiodiversity chains in specific conditions, can trigger traditional communities to not only exhibit the NTFPs they collect but also demonstrate the practices and knowledge that are attached to the use of biodiversity. This can reestablish the pride in communities of being extractivist, which has been fading away as “cowboy imagery” emerges (Gomes et al., 2012). In Brazil, the increasing demand of traditional communities to develop tourism activities in the surrounding and within protected areas (Fontoura et al., 2019), is giving visibility to initiatives that promote community-based management of tourism and the sustainable use of resources through the appreciation of traditional livelihoods and valuing sociobiodiversity associated with NTFPs extractivism (Bartholo et al., 2009).

Despite this, tourism and NTFPs extractivism have been only superficially treated as an asset for sustainable development in Brazil. As a result, traditional communities are vulnerable to external companies that can hamper their organizational capacity for sustainable tourism (Beni, 2007). In the municipalities that gathered and traded NTFPs, the mean revenue of people employed in the lodging sector in 2019 is estimated at US$ 317, according to the Ministry of Tourism (MTUR). Meanwhile, it is reported that Açaí gathering and trade contributes to 17% of household rents (Lopes et al., 2019). If reconciled and associated, tourism and NTFPs extractivism could increase the income of traditional livelihoods, such as in Uacari Lodge created from the demand for community-based tourism in Mamirauá Sustainable Development Reserve, where a stay ranges from US$ 761 to US$ 1418/per person per week (Bezerra & Vieira, 2016).

We are well aware that this cannot offer a panacea. There is the need for carefully evaluating the advantages of associating tourism and NTFPs extractivism. One way is exploring where initiatives that address tourism modalities regarding the integration of social, economic, and environmental aspects for sustainable tourism can be scaled up and how human-natural systems can be reconciled to support transformative change toward sustainability (Balvanera et al., 2017; Carvalho Ribeiro et al., 2018; Force et al., 2018; König et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2015). Community-based tourism (CBT) initiatives build from an alternative tourism management and governance model that value the practices and knowledge of traditional communities from the use of biodiversity for socio-cultural, environment, and economic development, fostering sustainable tourism (Moraes et al., 2017; Oliveira et al., 2021; Peralta, 2012). Spatially explicit information can be derived from the practice of CBT initiatives in Brazilian biomes for mapping where and how tourism and NTFPs extractivism are more likely to be self-reinforcing. Also, provide knowledge about how socio-cultural values and biophysical elements are integrated within collaborative networks (Urano et al., 2016). This knowledge can help to converge actors, institutions and policies toward common goals and collective action for sustainable use of wild species in landscape contexts, which may bring about sustainability transitions (Sayer et al., 2013).

Previous studies have identified positive associations between recreational ecosystem services and NTFPs extractivism (Carvalho Ribeiro et al., 2018). However, a national assessment of where and how CBT and NTFPs extractivism can be an asset for rural development has not yet been provided. Studies propose the mapping of cultural ecosystem services (CES) to foster sustainability in landscapes with a tourist vocation (Bachi et al., 2020). Yet, few address the problems of upscale tourism across larger scales (Zhang et al., 2009), as community-based tourism was reported as beset by the low quality of services and inadequate infrastructure for large-scale connections (Bartholo et al., 2009). Hence, studies stress the need to evaluate natural and human capital for upscaling sustainable tourism (Rahman et al., 2021). While rigorous state-of-art reviews and empirical studies have summarized the successes of CBT initiatives to foster socio-ecological integration and networks for strengthening traditional communities (Carvalho Ribeiro et al., 2018; Qian et al., 2017; Urano et al., 2016). Hereupon, spatial explicit modeling is useful for mapping natural resources and associated socio-cultural values over large scales (Wu, 2013). Yet, a spatially explicit approach for assessing where and how CBT can enhance NFTPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity values in specific locations across Brazil has not been developed.

Our goal is to assess where there is biophysical potential and institutional capacity for CBT to be associated so as to enhance NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity and suggest how best planning to integrate CBT into these networks across Brazilian biomes. We provide a hard-hitting list of CBT initiatives and use spatially explicit modeling to develop wall-to-wall maps of likely successful areas where and how the uses of biodiversity, both material and immaterial, can be nurtured via CBT. This should connect with sustainable transitions for tourism planning in any post-COVID-19 era (UNWTO, 2020). The work we here develop shows advantages to previous national tourism maps (MTUR, 2019), in two major ways. First, we characterize NTFPs extractivism landscapes and evaluate social, technological, economic, environmental, political and value (STEEPV) aspects from CBT initiatives to map large datasets of biophysical elements, cultural and socioeconomic attributes of NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity, including infrastructure and political/administrative aspects. Then, qualitative and quantitative grades and weights are assigned to each dataset regarding the likelihood of CBT to enhance the sustainability of NTFPs extractivism by valuing sociobiodiversity material (NTFPs) and immaterial values. Second, we explored human capital and institutional capacity within sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots.

2 Methods

To identify areas where there is biophysical potential and institutional capacity and suggest how best planning for CBT to be associated so as to enhance NTFPs extractivism, we started by characterizing NTFPs extractivism landscapes in Brazilian biomes, based on production data and the diversity of NTFPs collected and traded. Then, we performed the characterization of CBT initiatives that value biophysical elements in these landscapes. Based on these findings, we selected variables representing biophysical elements of NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity and defined grades and weights for the mapping of sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots. Afterward, we analyzed human capital and institutional capacity by mapping CBT initiatives in NTFPs extractivism landscapes (Fig. 1).

2.1 *Characterization of NTFPs Extractivism Landscapes*

We characterized NTFPs extractivism landscapes by comprising all the municipalities in Brazil that between 2013 and 2019 reported harvest and trade of above 1 ton of 33 NTFPs, from the annual survey of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE in its Portuguese acronym). We used these criteria as a reference for the demand for NTFPs in domestic and international markets. We chose a 6-year period to take into account the annual variations in quantity collected and traded (Homma, 2018). We add to this analysis a "diversity" approach to assess the diversification of NTFPs extractivism. We assumed that the higher the number of the NTFPs gathered/traded in the municipality (higher diversification of NTFPs) the more likely that this can be associated with multiple livelihoods (indigenous, quilombola, *ribeirinhos*), and sociobiodiversity practices (Rasoolimanesh et al.,

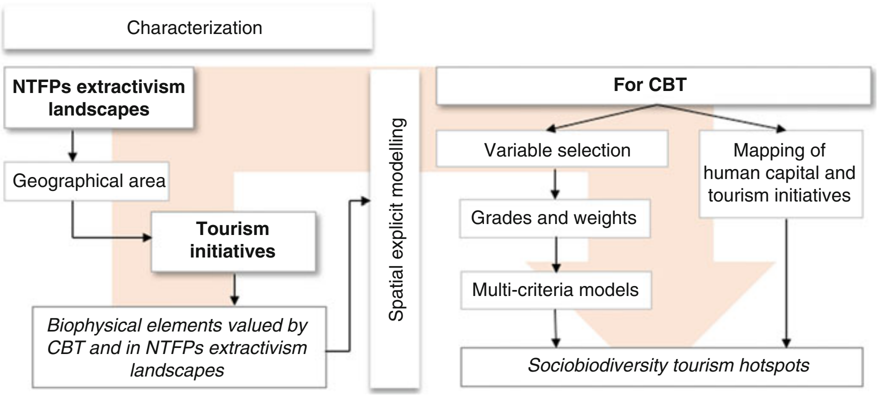

Fig. 1 Workflow of the methodological steps

2020). We calculated the Simpson diversity index based on the individual 33 NTFPs (n) and the relative quantity produced by each in the 2450 municipalities that collected and traded above 1 ton of NTFPs in 2019 (N). This index (λ) was multiplied by 100 to take values between 0 and 1, as infinite diversity. This index is calculated as follows:

$$\lambda = \mathbf{1} - \left(\frac{\sum \boldsymbol{n}(\boldsymbol{n} - \mathbf{1})}{\boldsymbol{N}(\boldsymbol{N} - \mathbf{1})} \right)^{\mathbf{2}} * \mathbf{100} \tag{1}$$

2.2 Reviewing Social, Technological, Economic, Environmental, Political and Values of CBT Initiatives

We surveyed Brazilian tourism initiatives that actively promote local community engagement and use biophysical elements of NTFPs extractivism landscapes. We collected data from both peer-review articles and gray literature (governmental reports, websites of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), foundations, community associations, travel agencies, and tour operators) in English, Spanish and Portuguese. We pre-selected 113 initiatives; however, due to the lack of information, the selection went down to 49 initiatives that explicit address and call themselves as CBT. We define three initiatives for detailed analysis of social, technological, economic, environmental, political, and value aspects (STEEPV). The social aspect relates to direct or indirect actions for livelihoods development (Qian et al., 2017). Technological aspect associates advancing the processing of goods from raw material (e.g., Açaí pulp) and innovation in sustainable management, increasing efficiency and knowledge transfer for human capital (UNWTO and UNDP, 2017). Economic aspect associates enhance rents and livelihood diversification, businesses and women entrepreneurial success (Bires & Raj, 2020). Environmental associates to the positive impacts on conserving biodiversity and protected areas, gearing away from unfavorable land-use trends, such as deforestation (Stronza et al., 2019). Political aspect refers to policies and funding to support tourism initiatives. And values refer to contributions to ethical issues (UNWTO, 2001).

2.3 Mapping Sociobiodiversity Tourism Hotspots

2.3.1 Data Collection

We compiled large official datasets comprising the main biophysical elements that underpin NTFPs extractivism landscapes and sociobiodiversity into five categories (Table 1). We used data about municipal, state, and federal conservation units (UCs),

Table 1 Details of the data collected allocated into five categories

Categories	Variable	Literature source	Dataset source
Landscape and wildlife	Reserves	(Lupi et al., 2017; Stronza et al., 2019; Bartholo et al., 2009)	Ministry of the Environment, Chico Mendes Institute
Focal communities	Sociobiodiversity chain	(Lupi et al., 2017; Dolezal & Novelli, 2020)	Ypadê Portal of the Ministry of Environment
	RESEX		
	Quilombola community		
	Indigenous lands		
	TPCs		
	Diversity of NTFPs extractivism		
	Family farming		2017 Agriculture Census
Service and organizational field	Lodging establishments	(Dredge, 1999; Lawrence et al., 1997)	Institute of Applied Economic Research
	People employed in tourism-related activities		
	NTFPs Cooperatives		Varied sources
Supportive policy	Tourism official department	(Jackson & Murphy, 2002)	Ministry of Tourism
Accessibility	International airports	(Nyaupane & Poudel, 2011)	Ministry of Infrastructure
	Federal roads		

called "reserves." This dataset is a compilation of areas of ecological interest, state and national forest, wildlife refuges, biological reserves, and sustainable development reserve (SDR) that allow public visitation for recreational and educational purposes (ICMBIO, 2019). We also used the typology provided by the National Policy for Sustainable Development of Traditional Peoples and Communities (TPCs) and characteristics of family farming (<100 ha) to map focal communities representing cultural and socioeconomic dimensions influenced by biophysical elements (De Assis & Barros, 2014). To address infrastructural issues, we gathered data on international airports and federal roads to account for accessibility. We collected data on the number of lodging establishments and the total number of people employed in tourism-related activities (e.g., food, transport, tour operators). We also collected data on NTFPs cooperatives and tourism official departments to address political/administrative issues.

2.3.2 Spatial Datasets

The data collected was compiled into datasets of raster-based maps (100 m x 100 m cell grid) to obtain a set of 26 variables distributed into the five categories. We calculated a Euclidean distance between the features recorded as point, lines, and polygon by its coordinates (x, y). For the accessibility data (airports, roads) recorded as lines and points, it was expected that the distance between infrastructure spatial distribution might explain accessibility across the study area (Weidenfeld et al., 2010). For the datasets at the municipal level, we used the information field to transform from vector to raster-based maps.

2.3.3 Qualitative and Quantitative Weights

From the characterization of CBT initiatives, we distinguished how CBT is likely to value NTFPs extractivism landscapes biophysical elements and sociobiodiversity material and immaterial values for being associated with sustainability issues, such as the responsible use of natural and cultural assets in recreational and educational purposes, include local communities, promote place-based identity, cultural exchange and enhance socioeconomic systems addressing to goals of end poverty (Goal 1), gender equality (Goal 5), reduce inequalities (Goal 10) and protect terrestrial ecosystems (Goal 15) (Bartholo et al., 2009). Then, we conducted a literature review and defined three classes of qualitative and quantitative weights ranging from 0 to 3 (Table 2). These values were assigned to the set of 26 variables.

Table 2 Matrix of the weights assigned to the 26 variables

Variables	CBT
Landscape and wildlife Σ	3
Reserves	3
Focal communities Σ	24
Sociobiodiversity chain	3
Extractive Reserves (RESEX)	3
Quilombola community	3
Indigenous lands	3
TPCs (Veredeiros, Riverside, Araguaia retreators, Pomerano people, Marroquianos, Vazanteiros, Caatingueiros, Geraizeiros, “Sempre-viva” pickers, Faxinalenses, Terreiro, marine extractivist).	3
NTFPs extractivism diversity index	3
Family farming from concession of indigenous land	3
Family farming from title of quilombola community	3
Service and organizational field Σ	7
Lodging establishments up to 9 employers	2
People employed in tourism-related activities	2
NTFPs extractivism cooperatives	3
Supportive policy Σ	2
Tourism official department	2
Accessibility Σ	4
International airports	2
Federal roads	2

A variable assigned to the qualitative weight “likely”, for example, is understood as having a direct influence on CBT. For instance, indigenous lands and reserves under conservation, financial, and monitoring mechanisms, can support livelihood diversification through CBT (Carr et al., 2016), and therefore was assigned a quantitative weight of “3.” Variables believed to have a “complementary” role or indirect influence for CBT were assigned a weight of “2.” Federal roads are assigned with a weight of “2” as they connect places of attractiveness in large-scale regions and are often the only way to access destinations (Kádár & Gede, 2021). The weight “unlikely” (0) informs no association.

Accordingly, variables from the landscape and wildlife category evidence the capacity of CBT to value protected areas and natural features (Peralta, 2012). Focal communities’ category variables, represent the capacity of CBT to value socio-cultural values from traditional livelihoods and family farming, such as from concession of indigenous land and quilombola communities (de Barreto & da Tavares, 2017). NTFPs diversity index has a direct influence on CBT to foster the monitoring of collected yields, thereby reinforcing collecting practices beyond the production of goods to make biomes more attractive for visitation. CBT can also take place in small inns and family lodgings (Bartholo et al., 2009).

2.3.4 Spatial Explicit Modeling

We used the set of 26 variables as raster-base maps as inputs to a multicriteria analysis model (S_i). We use DINAMICA EGO software, to assess the spatial arrangements between the different datasets in specific locations (hotspots). We attributed grades (x_i), ranging from 1 (no relevant) to 10 (very high spatial explicit diversity and intensity) assigned to the 26 variables. Then, we derived the weights (w_i) from 0 to 3, expressed as:

$$S_i = \sum\nolimits_{\textbf{categories/variables}} \mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{W}_i \tag{2}$$

We equalized the output values ranging from hotspots, representing likely areas for CBT to be associated so as to enhance NTFPs extractivism, to cold spots. Then, we used landscape metrics at the patch level, to quantify the spatial patterns of hotspots and cold spots. Following, we used quantitative analysis to characterize the hotspots based on the presence of the 26 variables.

2.3.5 Assessing Human Capital and Institutional Capacity

To explore where there is a human capacity and institutional potential for CBT to be associated so as to enhance NTFPs extractivism, we mapped municipal administrative headcounters, villages, urban areas, rural settlements (small and agricultural villages, nuclei, and town), called as “localities” to represent human capacity.

Besides the tourism official departments and cooperatives used in the spatial modeling, we mapped the 49 CBT initiatives to represent institutional capacity. We overlapped these data with sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots and cold spots.

3 Results

3.1 NTFPs Extractivism Landscapes in Brazilian Biomes

Up to 43% (2450 out of 5572) of municipalities in Brazil gathered/traded at least one ton of NTFPs, such as Açai and Brazil nut in Amazon, Carnaúba in Caatinga, Pequi and Babaçu in Cerrado and Mate-herb, Araucaria seed and Piaçava in Atlantic Forest biome. The 2450 municipalities cover over 5 million km^2 where 5 million tons of 33 different NTFPs were collected and traded from 2013 to 2019, according to the annual survey (in tons) of IBGE. The municipalities that collected and traded up to 1 ton of NTFPs are concentrated in Caatinga (813), Atlantic Forest (753), Amazon (439), Cerrado (437), Pampa (5), and Pantanal (3) biome. In 2019, the diversity index ranged from 0 indicating low diversity (one NTFP) to 78 indicating high diversity in municipalities that collected and traded up to 7 different NTFPs in Amazon, Caatinga, and east of Cerrado biome (Fig. 2).

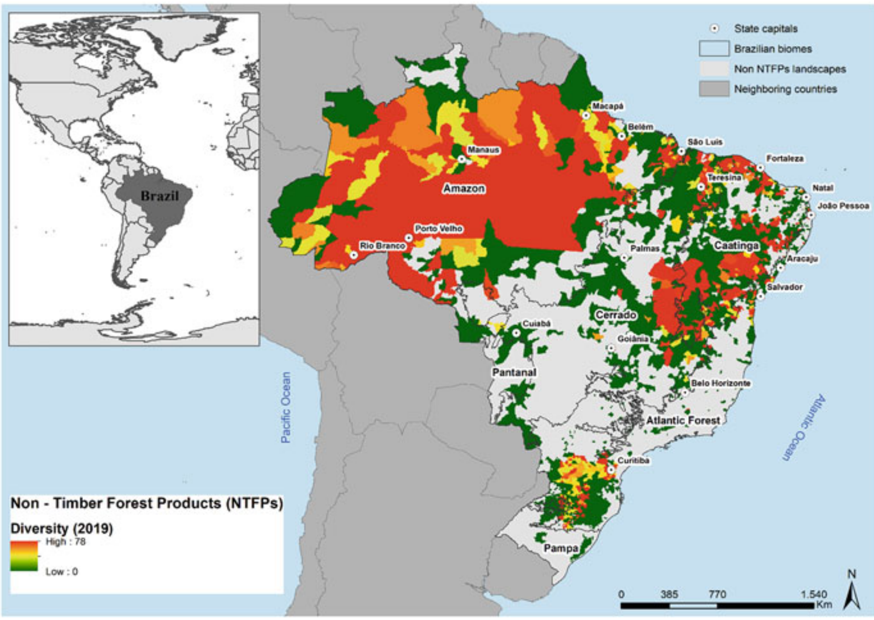

Fig. 2 Spatial explicit patterns of NTFPs extractivism landscapes and NTFPs diversity index in the year 2019 across all six Brazilian biomes. Source: Authors

3.2 STEEPV of CBT Initiatives: Case Studies

Table 3 summarizes the key issues and drivers from STEEPV aspects for sustainable tourism in three relevant CBT initiatives in Brazilian biomes.

Table 3 Key issues and drivers from STEEPV aspects

	Uacari Lodge	Quilombo do Cumbe	Mosaico Sertão Veredas Peruaçu (MSVP)
Social	Value traditional knowledge and community associations and cooperatives in decision-making. Invest in capacity building for territorial and resource management.	Values and promotes the knowledge and ways of doing quilombolas, artisans, and fishermen.	Community-based management by quilombolas, indigenous people, extractivist, and family farmers through as advisory council.
Technological	Innovation and technical support for agriculture management model, fishing, community forestry. Research and technical assistance to family farmers.	Official website to communicate trails and family home accommodations.	Official website to inform about attractions, family home accommodations.
Economic	Uacari lodging; Sale of wood extracted from community management; Income from fishing and agrosystems by family farmers.	Tourists are hosted by community members. Sale of handicrafts and fishing and culture festivals.	Tourists are hosted by community members; Sale of handicrafts; Fruits and nuts; Finance support through partnerships.
Environmental	Sustainable management practices for fisheries, community forest management, and family farming agriculture.	Ecological hikes for natural and archeological heritage protection and monitoring.	Developed in a mosaic of 12 Conservation units. Conservation of natural and archeological and heritage sites.
Political	Amazon Fund, Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation, USAID, Amazonas State Government, and Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovations.	State Secretary of Culture, Rede Cearense de Cultura Viva; National law N° 13,018/2014, State Law N° 16,602/2018.	Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation (ICMBio) Brazilian Institute for the Environment and Renewable Natural Resources (IBAMA).
Value	Community empowerment Gender equality and ethnic tolerance.	Gender equality and ethnic tolerance, right to land.	Gender equality, right to land, community empowerment.

The Uacari Lodge in Mamirauá Sustainable Development Reserve is a CBT initiative in the heart of the Amazon biome. This initiative was created in 1999 and promotes a circular pattern of sustainable growth merging all STEEPV aspects. It promotes social development based on the inclusion of traditional communities and investments in human capital on all fronts of resource management. Using research, technology, and innovation for the regular improvement of the business management models of community-based tourism in Uacari lodge integrates sustainable fishing, NTFPs extractivism, timber production, and family farming. As a result, there is an economic diversification for riverside dwellers, extractivist, and family farmers within the reserve. Such activities are supported by political aspects such as the adoption of public strategies and policies for conservation and sustainable use of Amazon's biodiversity with a broad base of funding partners. Therefore, ethical rights such as appreciation and respect for the culture and identity of communities, transparency, sustainable use of resources are appreciated.

Quilombo do Cumbe, is a CBT initiative on the coast of the Caatinga biome. This initiative was created in 2003 and helped traditional communities to protect their right to the land. It promotes social development based on the appreciation of 168 quilombola families, fishermen, farmers, and artisans. Major technology investments are focused on information technology for the official website that promotes the community as a tourist destination. As a result, there is economic diversification since the community members are entrepreneurs, owners of family homes, restaurants, and boats used by tourists to get to know natural and historical points and enjoy the local cuisine. Community members are also tour guides to ecological hikes and boat trips to see mangroves, dunes, and rivers that are part of the livelihoods of quilombola communities and fishermen. The community also monitors environment threats. Activities are supported by Palmares Cultural Foundation and state cultural policies. Ethical values such as the right to land, gender equality, and the sustainable exploitation of resources, are appreciated.

The MSVP initiative takes place in an area formed by 12 conservation units in the Cerrado biome. This initiative was created in 2008 and is known as a Mosaic of Protected Areas part of the National System of Conservation Units (SNUC). It promotes social development by valuing material and immaterial values from quilombolas, indigenous peoples, NTFPs extractivist, such as the Babaçu coconut breakers, and family farmers with the protected areas. Major technology investments are focused on an official website as means to communicate a diversified portfolio of activities and promote the MSVP as a tourist destination. The community is employed and/or manages community accommodations and tours to the protected areas, caves, and cultural manifestations for recreational and educational purposes. This initiative promotes technical cooperation and is supported by the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), the National Indian Foundation (FUNAI), universities, and indigenous associations. Ethical values such as the right to land, socio-cultural respect, and the sustainable use of resources are appreciated.

3.3 Spatial Explicit Sociobiodiversity Tourism Hotspots

The results of the multicriteria analysis show scattered distribution of CBT hotspots in a total area of 113 million hectares across all six Brazilian biomes (Fig. 3).

The higher mean patch area in these hotspots is located in Amazon (874,278 ha), Caatinga (496,711 ha), and also in Cerrado (61,563 ha). This evidence suggests that Amazon is the most suitable for developing CBT and addressing poverty (Goal 1), securing food (Goal 2), creating reliable jobs (Goal 8), and smoothing inequalities (Goal 10). Such hotspots in Amazon are characterized by municipalities with average NTFPs extractivism diversity index (ʎ = 29) that overlap 48 million ha of sustainable development reserves (SDR) (20), RESEX (35), indigenous lands (152), and quilombola communities (64), alongside 35,776 km of rivers home to riverside communities.

When looking at the human capital and institutional capacity, the human capacity comprised of over 10 thousand localities, overlap the sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots across Brazilian biomes. Strikingly, the institutional capacity represented by 49 CBT initiatives, located in Amazon (29), Caatinga (12), Cerrado (6), and Atlantic Forest (2), are more sparsely distributed in the hotspots (Fig. 4).

Although there are only 51 NTFPs extractivism cooperatives, these are the very same areas where 40% of the human and 59% of the institutional capacities, represented by CBT initiatives such as Uacari Lodge in RDS Mamirauá, overlap CBT hotspots in Amazon (Table 4). Serras Guerreiras de Tupuruquara, managed by the Association of Indigenous and Riparian Communities (ACIR), and "Baré experience" and "Yawanawá experience" initiatives allow visitors to experience the culture and traditional livelihoods of indigenous people (Baré and Yawanawá tribes) and participate in parties, artisanal flour production and Açaí and Brazil nut gathering. RESEX Tapajós-Arapiuns initiative enables local community lodging services, addressing directly Goal 1 and empowerment of women (Goal 5). São Manuel Bar and Rio Juruena and RESEX Cazumbá Iracema initiatives also have a diverse portfolio of income activities, such as local community hostel, local handicrafts, and extractivism of Brazil nut. Tourists can also experience Açaí, Brazil nut and Babaçu extractivism, trekking with an overnight stay at REXES Rio Ouro managed by rubber tapper and agroextractive association. There are 6 thousand lodging establishments, 104 official tourism departments 4 international airports, and 9 thousand km of federal roads to support the upscale of these initiatives in CBT hotspots in the Amazon.

CBT hotspots in Cerrado (Fig. 4b) are characterized by the highest diversity of livelihoods (e.g., caatingueiros, sempre-viva pickers, veredeiros, geraizeiros, vazanteiros, and riverside communities), national and state parks, among other UC's, such as in MSVP initiative, that overlap municipalities with average NTFPs diversity index (ʎ = 29). The CBT in Campo Buriti initiative also values women artisans from traditional communities of Cerrado, who produce unique ceramic dolls of Jequitinhonha Valley. However, there are no international airports, a limited 1.804 km of federal roads for accessibility, and 47 tourism official departments for

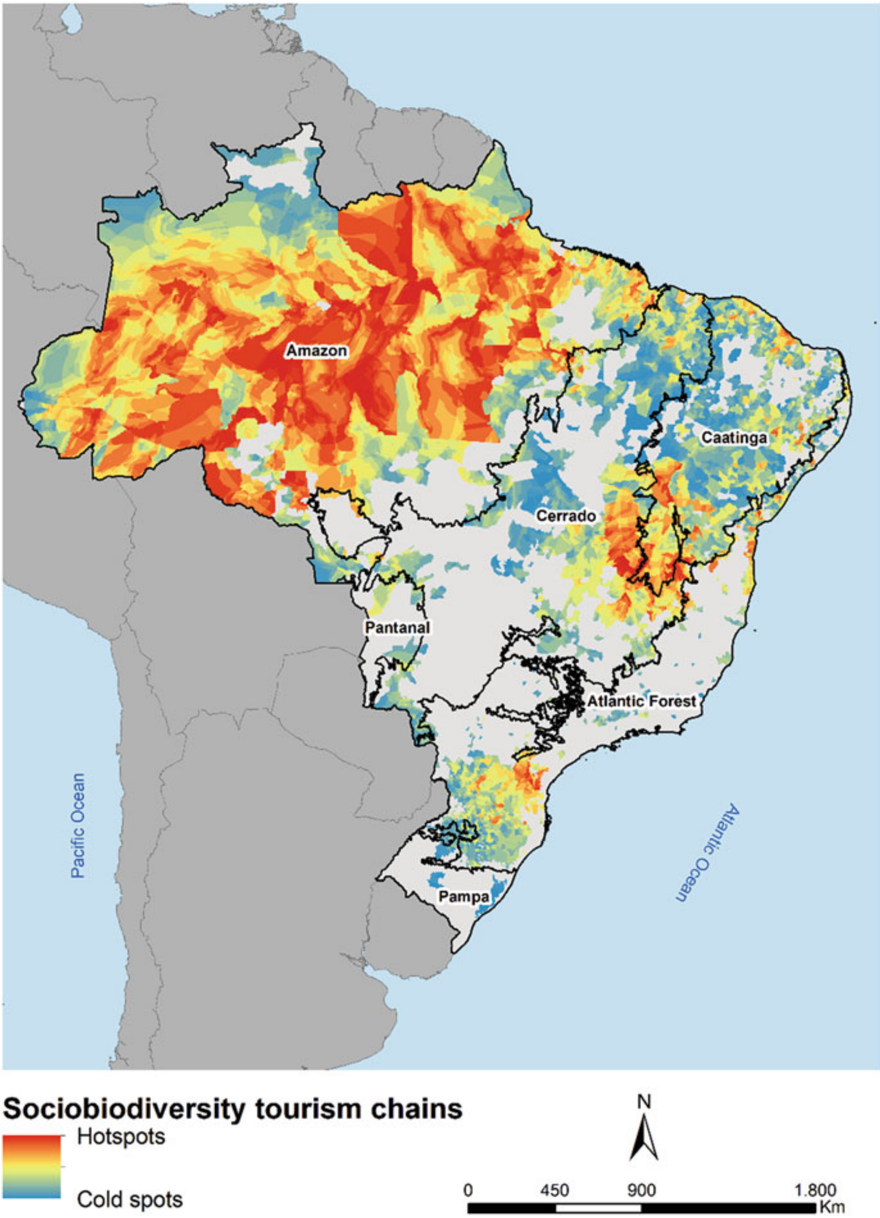

Fig. 3 Wall-to-wall map of sociobiodiversity community-based tourism (CBT) hotspots. Source: Authors

coordination within the hotspots. In CBT hotspots located in Caatinga there are 95 thousand ha of RESEX, including marine, and indigenous lands. The maximum overlap of 8% of human and institutional capacities, concentrated mostly in the coast

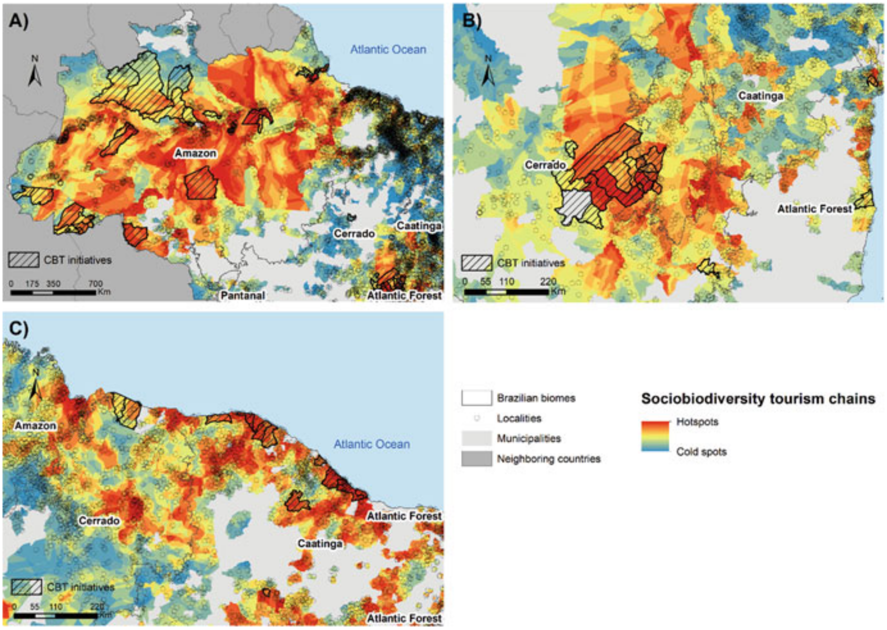

Fig. 4 Human capital and institutional capacity overlap hotspots and cold spots of (**a**) CBT in Amazon, (**b**) CBT in Cerrado, and (**c**) CBT in Caatinga and Cerrado biomes. Source: Authors

of this biome within the hotspots. This highlights widespread uncertainty regarding effective collaboration for CBT to enhance NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity in other areas of the biome (Fig. 4c). In CBT initiatives such as RESEX do Batoque, Curral Velho, Caetanos de Cima, traditional communities offer their homes as lodging where tourists can experience local recipes. In Quilombo do Cumbe and Prainha do Canto Verde, tourists can experience artisanal fishing and enjoy local community lodging and gastronomy, also visit the small fishing village Mandacaru and Canto de Atins. In Sertão do Cariri and Tijuca Boa Vista Rural Settlement, the only initiatives located off the coast of Caatinga biome, tourists experience folkloric manifestations. All these activities address directly Goal 1 (reducing poverty) and Goal 8 (providing decent employment). Although there are 509 km of federal roads, there are no international airports in this hotspot area.

4 Discussion

4.1 Implications for Planning and Governance in Sociobiodiversity Tourism Hotspots

Although the socio-cultural values can help implement SDGs (Mugo et al., 2020), Brazil's emblematic sociobiodiversity has not yet been a development asset, being

Table 4 Analysis of political/administrative and infrastructure, human capital (localities), and institutional capacities (CBT initiatives) in sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots and cold spots of the six Brazilian biomes

		CBT					
		Amazon	Caatinga	Cerrado	Atlantic Forest	Pampa	Pantanal
Service / organizational	N° lodging establishments	6041	1153	1796	3320	–	–
	N° people employed tourism	463,701	16,158	61,565	374,938	–	–
	N° NTFPs cooperatives	51	3	14	2	–	–
Supportive policy	N° tourism department	104	21	47	49	–	–
Accessibility	N° international airport	4	0	0	1	–	–
	Federal roads (km)	9582	509	1804	292	–	–
Human capacity	Cold spot	161	1.858	906	1189	54	–
	% in the biome	7.6%	46%	47%	46%	71%	–
	Hotspot	406	51	152	44	–	–
	% in the biome	40%	1.2%	8%	1.7%	–	–
Institutional capacity	Cold spot	9	8	5	1	–	–
	% in the biome	23%	72%	83%	50%	–	–
	Hotspot	23	3	1	1	–	–
	% in the biome	59%	27%	16%	50%	–	–

often associated with underdevelopment and “empty land”. Development pathways in rural landscapes often focus on *commodities* exports such as agribusiness (e.g., soybean) and mining (Bendini et al., 2019). Added to this main scenario, Brazil was severely hit by the COVID-19 pandemic and it is likely that this image will hamper international tourism. For Brazil to recover from it there is the need to go well beyond the prevailing mass tourism industry and instill a new market of low-density tourism in sparsely populated landscapes.

Brazil has great examples of CBT initiatives (Bartholo et al., 2009), as highlighted in this study. The main characteristics of CBT initiatives in Brazil regarding the integration of STEEPV aspects show that, although local, they provide action-oriented knowledge to associate CBT with NTFPs extractivism, as a way to strengthen sociobiodiversity chains in rural landscapes (MDA/MMA/MDS, 2009; Urano et al., 2016). The Uacari Lodge, Quilombo do Cumbe and MSVP case studies evidence the diversity of biophysical elements in NTFPs extractivism landscapes valued through CBT such as trails, forests, and lakes for recreation purposes, as well the livelihoods of traditional communities so that tourists can experience and learn about and understand their material and imaterial values (Moraes et al., 2017; Oliveira et al., 2021; Peralta, 2012). As a consequence, as far as the where is concerned, we show that there are many likely successful areas for integrating biophysical elements, NTFPs extractivism, and CBT initiatives. Despite being rare, this integration can help convert overexploitation lands to promote wide-ranging socio-cultural, economic, and ecological benefits in specific socio-environmental contexts.

As far as the how is concerned, the mapping of sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots brings up the relevance of planning CBT integration and the need of powerful governance mechanisms that value natural, physical, human, social, and economic capitals of NTFPs extractivism landscapes (Qian et al., 2017), into such complex territorial arrangement. CBT hotspots in Amazon presented human capital and institutional capacity for valuing sociobiodiversity material and immaterial values and upscale tourism initiatives. However, hotspots in Cerrado and Atlantic Forest lack infrastructure, fundamental for the efficiency of sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots (Bartholo et al., 2009). There is also an urgent need to go beyond the marketing of undifferentiated raw biodiversity products. The planning we highlight here calls for innovative markets aligning production and consumption in CBT and NTFPs extractivism, rewarding and strengthening relationships across traditional livelihoods (e.g., forests and reserves). However, studies have illustrated the difficulties facing actors involvement, policies and funding to put sustainable development concepts into practice at landscape scale (Carvalho-Ribeiro et al., 2010).

The suggested planning and the need for governance structures build on the areas where there is potential for a comprehensive development strategy based on CBT and the material and immaterial uses of biodiversity that so far have been overlooked. First, planning and governance in sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots in rural Brazil require integrated socio-environmental policies. Second, CBT governance in these hotspots will likely be successfully implemented through collaboration between traditional communities, institutions, and tour operators. However, there is the need to deal with governmental failure and power politics that afflict rural enclaves. For example, studies report that there is much doubt as to whether indigenous and quilombola peoples will be consulted in the process of reopening federal road BR-319, in Brazil's "arc of deforestation" in Amazon (Ferrante et al., 2020).

We suggest that because the hotspots and sociobiodiversity values rely greatly on biophysical elements, planning for CBT integration, as well as governance in the hotspots, must start with both tourism and non-tourism policies enforcing environmental laws through strict supervision and use of technology to reconcile the demands of multiple land uses and prevent illegal logging (Weaver, 2011). Also, upgrading the quality of protected areas (Jones et al., 2019). Such measures can increase trust among traditional communities towards governments and institutions, as proved in CBT management models in China (Qian et al., 2017). In sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots, policies and funding to upgrade the quality of existing nature reserves need to consider sociobiodiversity practices and the particular knowledge of traditional communities (Pringle, 2017). This is crucial for better governance of Amazon's hotspots, where illegal logging and fires threaten subsistence food production and climate regulation (Strand et al., 2018). Increasing the importance of legal reserves in family farming can contribute to sustainable NTFPs extractivism of Mate-herb and Araucaria seed in Atlantic Forest, Carnaúba in Caatinga and Pequi in Cerrado (Guerra et al., 2020). Communities can also use their knowledge systems and be trained to improve the monitoring of natural attractions, conduct environmental education activities about NTFPs and forest ecosystem services (Stronza et al., 2019).

From the overlap of human and institutional capacities in CBT hotspots, good governance starts with respect to place-based identity of small-scale agriculture and NTFPs extractivism in CBT hotspots (Tao & Wall, 2009). The overlap of human and institutional capacities, such as Uacari Lodge, Quilombo do Cumbe and MSVP case studies, also evidenced that capacity building and collaboration are imperative for traditional communities to self-organize and actively participate in native ecosystems protection and economic management of NTFPs extractivism within the hotspots (dos Santos & dos Santos, 2020). This can be done through public-private partnerships and creating consulting boards and community associations to include traditional communities in decision-making and discuss processes for allocating the profits (Su et al., 2019). These associations are the node for traditional communities to take on a more insightful part in the planning and governance of sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots as community-based networks (Urano et al., 2016). Although not free from conflicts of interest, strong feedback communication and articulation between community associations within the hotspots is essential to share place-based identity and create common values within a decentralized network (Costa et al., 2003). Brazil has two major network examples, the Brazilian Network of Solidarity and Community Tourism (Rede Turisol), and the Cearense Community Tourism Network (Rede Tucum), mapped in this study. We here suggest upscaling these networks and planning new ones from sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots, as the areas where CBT can enhance the sustainability of NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity material and immaterial values. This can led to networks of traditional communities, institutions and tour operators working toward the same goals of reconciling CBT and the use of Brazil's megadiversity across landscapes (Sayer et al., 2013; Urano et al., 2016), fostering transitions toward sustainability.

5 Conclusion

The findings from this study contribute to enhance knowledge on where and how tourism can help promote sustainable transitions toward sustainability in a post-COVID-19 era. First, the transition towards sustainability with tourism as an asset is due to the diverse biophysical, socio-cultural, economic, environmental, and political elements presented by rural landscapes that collected and traded NTFPs between 2013 and 2019, unveiling a rich potential for upscale tourism initiatives into sociobiodiversity tourism hotspots and help address end poverty (Goal 1), gender equality (Goal 5), and protect terrestrial ecosystems (Goal 15) at a landscape scale. Second, CBT and NTFPs extractivism, are reinforcing and might give a new breath to NTFPs extractivism and sociobiodiversity values that have been regarded as obsolete in terms of current market value. Therefore, the overarching conclusion from our wall-to-wall spatially explicit assessment is that CBT hotspots can enhance the sustainability of NTFPs extractivism by valuing biophysical elements and sociobiodiversity material and immaterial values. These findings reinforce the importance of exploring CBT capacities to associate with socio-cultural values and NTFPs extractivism as a driver to transitions away from lock-ins and toward internationally competitive tourist products and destinations. Although infrastructure and fractured institutional capacity remain key challenges, the human capital can give rise to community associations and networks as a way of how CBT can value sociobiodiversity values and rescale tourism initiatives. We argue that efforts to close development gaps in rural Brazil would be more effective if tourism and NTFPs extractivism are considered as a sustainability development asset. This study reflects the preliminary stages of a broader research effort to understand why, where, and how tourism can be part of the development strategy of rural landscapes for positive transitions in Brazilian biomes in line with the global sustainability agenda.

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